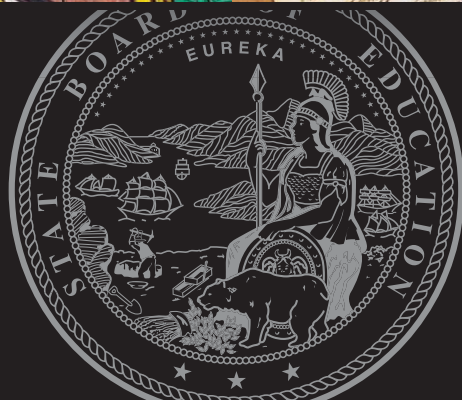


HISTORY SOCIAL SCIENCE FRAMEWORK

FOR CALIFORNIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS
Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve



Adopted by the California State Board of Education
July 2016

Published by the California Department of Education
Sacramento, 2017

HISTORY SOCIAL SCIENCE FRAMEWORK

FOR CALIFORNIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS
Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve

**Adopted by the California State Board of Education
July 2016**

*Published by the California Department of Education
Sacramento, 2017*



Publishing Information

The *History–Social Science Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve* was adopted by the State Board of Education on July 14, 2016. The members of the State Board were as follows: Michael W. Kirst, President; Ilene Straus, Vice President; Sue Burr, Bruce Holaday, Feliza Ortiz-Licon, Patricia Ann Rucker, Nicolasa Sandoval, Ting Sun, Trish Boyd Williams, and Michael McFarland, Student Member. It was developed by the Curriculum Frameworks and Instructional Resources Division, California Department of Education (CDE). This publication was edited by the staff of CDE Press, working in cooperation with Kenneth McDonald, Education Programs Consultant. It was designed and prepared for printing by the staff of CDE Press, with the cover designed by Karen Phillips. It was published by the Department of Education, 1430 N Street, Sacramento, CA 95814. It was distributed under the provisions of the Library Distribution Act and *Government Code* Section 11096.

© 2017 by the California Department of Education
All rights reserved

ISBN 978-0-8011-1778-7

Reproduction of this document for resale, in whole or in part, is not authorized.

Additional Publications and Educational Resources

This document is posted on the CDE Web site at <http://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/hs/cf/>. For information about additional publications and educational resources available from the California Department of Education, please visit the CDE's Educational Resources Catalog page at <http://www.cde.ca.gov/re/pn/rc/>, or call the CDE Press sales office at 1-800-995-4099.

Notice

The guidance in the *History–Social Science Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve* is not binding on local educational agencies or other entities. Except for the statutes, regulations, and court decisions that are referenced herein, the document is exemplary, and compliance with it is not mandatory. (See *Education Code* Section 33308.5.)

CONTENTS

FOREWORD	v
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	vii
CHAPTER 1 Introduction	1
CHAPTER 2 Instructional Practice for Kindergarten Through Grade Five	19
CHAPTER 3 Kindergarten: Learning and Working Now and Long Ago	31
CHAPTER 4 Grade One: A Child’s Place in Time and Space	39
CHAPTER 5 Grade Two: People Who Make a Difference	47
CHAPTER 6 Grade Three: Continuity and Change	55
CHAPTER 7 Grade Four: California: A Changing State	67
CHAPTER 8 Grade Five: United States History and Geography: Making a New Nation.	95
CHAPTER 9 Instructional Practice for Grades Six Through Eight	127
CHAPTER 10 Grade Six: World History and Geography: Ancient Civilizations.	135
CHAPTER 11 Grade Seven: World History and Geography: Medieval and Early Modern Times	179
CHAPTER 12 Grade Eight: United States History and Geography: Continuity and Change in Modern United States History.	237
CHAPTER 13 Instructional Practice for Grades Nine Through Twelve	277
CHAPTER 14 Grade Nine: Elective Courses in History–Social Science	287
CHAPTER 15 Grade Ten: World History, Culture, and Geography: The Modern World	317

CHAPTER 16	Grade Eleven: United States History and Geography: Continuity and Change in Modern United States History.	377
CHAPTER 17	Grade Twelve: Principles of American Democracy (One Semester).	433
CHAPTER 18	Grade Twelve: Principles of Economics (One Semester).	457
CHAPTER 19	Assessment of Proficiency in History–Social Science	479
CHAPTER 20	Access and Equity	509
CHAPTER 21	Instructional Strategies	547
CHAPTER 22	Professional Learning	609
CHAPTER 23	Criteria for Evaluating Instructional Materials: Kindergarten Through Grade Eight	621
APPENDIX A	Capacities of Literate Individuals	635
APPENDIX B	Problems, Questions, and Themes in the History and Geography Classroom.	639
APPENDIX C	History–Social Science Content Standards	679
APPENDIX D	Teaching the Contemporary World	757
APPENDIX E	Educating for Democracy: Civic Education in the History–Social Science Curriculum	773
APPENDIX F	Religion and History–Social Science Education	783
APPENDIX G	California Education and the Environment Initiative.	791
APPENDIX H	Practicing Civic Engagement: Service-Learning in the History-Social Science Framework	813
WORKS CITED	819
FRAMEWORK RESOURCES	841



Foreword

This new *History–Social Science Framework for California Public Schools* is a welcome update to our state curriculum in history and the social sciences. This document is an important step forward in our ongoing commitment to ensure that all California students are prepared for college, twenty-first century careers, and citizenship.

This framework models the diversity of our great state. Although the framework is based upon the *History–Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools*, the course descriptions were completely rewritten to include new scholarship and to reflect the inclusionary objectives of the State Board of Education (SBE) and the California Department of Education (CDE). This framework tells a much broader story that features the contributions of diverse peoples of all sorts to the story of California and the United States. During the lengthy development process of the framework, the CDE and the SBE received a significant volume of public comment. This unprecedented feedback—from teachers, administrators, professional organizations, interest groups, and members of the public—has been reflected in the document.

The guiding principle of the *History–Social Science Framework* is a focus upon student inquiry. Consistent with our recently adopted frameworks in other subject areas, this framework relies upon students being active participants in the learning process. The framework is designed to help teachers and administrators create a curriculum where students ask questions, develop and support arguments, conduct independent research, evaluate interpretations and evidence, and present findings in a cogent and persuasive manner. In addition to the revised course descriptions, the framework includes new chapters on assessment, access and equity, instructional strategies, and professional learning—all designed to assist teachers and administrators in furthering the collective goal of creating active, engaged, and civic-minded students. The framework also includes the criteria for evaluating kindergarten-through-grade-eight instructional materials, which will ensure that the curricular tools for the next generation will reflect these aims.

The *History–Social Science Framework* was designed with the assumption that literacy and skill development are collaborative enterprises. To that end, this framework provides guidance on how teachers of language arts, history–social

science, and other subject areas can work together to ensure that students are able to develop their reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills even as they dive into the content and skills of the disciplines of history, geography, economics, and civics. This framework contains explicit links to the *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects*, and the *California English Language Development Standards*. Throughout the framework, more than 20 classroom examples are provided as models of lessons that integrate history–social science content and skills, language arts skills, and English language development.

This framework adds considerable information on civic learning, consistent with the work of the California Task Force on K–12 Civic Learning. The California curriculum maintains its consistent focus on the founding documents of the United States, such as the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution, and examines in detail the legacy of the important events, people, laws, and court decisions that have shaped the history of this country. But this framework also promotes the development of the habits and skills of good citizens. There are suggestions for lessons and activities that include simulations of government, student-led debates and research projects, voter education, and service learning that brings students into an active role in their local communities.

We are proud of this important step forward in the development of a complete curriculum that supports the needs of our educators and students. As we move further into the twenty-first century, the burden we bear as educators will only continue to grow. A collaborative effort to prepare our students for the changing world that they will enter as adults ensures that they will be equipped to make choices that will lead to personal and professional success as engaged citizens of a prosperous state and a thriving democracy.

TOM TORLAKSON
*State Superintendent
of Public Instruction*

MICHAEL W. KIRST
*President, California State
Board of Education*

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This edition of the *History–Social Science Framework for California Public Schools: Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve* was adopted by the California State Board of Education (SBE) on July 14, 2016. When this edition was approved, the following persons were serving on the SBE:

Michael W. Kirst, President	Patricia Ann Rucker
Ilene Straus, Vice President	Nicolasa Sandoval
Sue Burr	Ting Sun
Bruce Holaday	Trish Boyd Williams
Feliza Ortiz-Licon	Michael McFarland, Student Member

Special appreciation is expressed to Nicolasa Sandoval and Patricia Ann Rucker, who offered guidance and support while serving as the SBE’s liaisons to the framework.

In November 2015 when the framework was recommended for adoption by the SBE, the members of the Instructional Quality Commission (IQC) were as follows:

Jo Ann Isken, Commission Chair, Retired Educator
Louis “Bill” Honig, Commission Vice Chair, CORE, Inc.
Jocelyn Broemmelsiek, San Dieguito Unified School District
Jose Flores, Brawley Union High School
Robert Foster, Redlands Unified School District
Lori Freiermuth, Sweetwater Union High School District
Marlene Galvan, Dinuba Unified School District
Carla Herrera, ABC Unified School District
Risha Krishna, Fremont Unified School District
Senator Carol Liu, California State Senate
Nancy McTygue, California History-Social Science Project
Assembly Member Kevin McCarty, California State Assembly
Brian Muller, Los Angeles Unified School District

Acknowledgments

Dean Reese, Tracy Unified School District
Socorro Shiels, Santa Rosa City Schools
Julie Spykerman, Anaheim Union High School District
Carlos Ulloa, Old Adobe Union School District
Lauryn Wild, San Bernardino City Unified School District

The following members of the History–Social Science Subject Matter Committee participated in the development and approval process for the framework from 2008 through 2016:

Katherine Crawford, Alameda Unified School District
Patricia Dixon, Palomar College
Jose Dorado, Los Angeles Unified School District
Senator Denise Moreno Ducheny, California State Senate
Jose Flores, Brawley Union High School
Robert Foster, Redlands Unified School District
Louis “Bill” Honig, CORE, Inc.
Marlene Galvan, Dinuba Unified School District
Martha Hernandez, Ventura County Office of Education
Michelle Herczog, Los Angeles County Office of Education
Christine Lanphere, Natomas Unified School District
Risha Krishna, Fremont Unified School District
Nancy McTygue, California History-Social Science Project
Lucy Medina, Palm Springs Unified School District
Assembly Member Gene Mullin, California State Assembly
Nicole Naditz, San Juan Unified School District
Rose Mary Parga-Duran, Merced City Schools
Carlos Ulloa, Old Adobe Union School District
Monica Ward, Riverside Unified School District
Lauryn Wild, San Bernardino City Unified School District

The initial draft of the framework was developed by the History–Social Science Curriculum Framework and Evaluation Criteria Committee (CFCC) between February and June 2009. The SBE and the IQC commend the following members of the CFCC and extend great appreciation for their efforts (affiliations listed were current at the time of each member’s appointment).

Kirk Ankeney, CFCC Chair, Curriculum Leader for History-Social Studies, San Diego Unified School District

Stephen Anderson, Teacher, Montebello Unified School District

Patricia Birk, Teacher, Los Angeles Unified School District

Jim Charkins, Professor of Economics, California State University, San Bernardino

Marie Criste, Teacher, Roseville Joint Union High School District

Alexis Davis, Teacher, San Lorenzo Unified School District

Gary Dei Rossi, Assistant Superintendent of Curriculum and Instruction, San Joaquin County Office of Education

Joan Dusa, Teacher, Central Juvenile Hall School, Los Angeles County Office of Education

Jessica Fork, Teacher, Roseville Joint Unified High School District

Matthew Hayes, Resource Teacher, San Diego Unified School District

Randy Heredia, Eighth-Grade Teacher, Walnut Valley Unified School District

Julie Huson, Teacher, San Rafael City Schools

Brian McCabe, Teacher Consultant, California Geo Alliance

Lawrence Osen, Teacher, San Marcos Unified School District

Christopher Roe, Assistant Professor of Teacher Education, California State University, Stanislaus

Laurie Rogers, Teacher, Mt. Diablo Unified School District

Mohani Thiara, History Teacher, Los Banos Unified School District

Marielle Tsukamoto, Consultant

Linda Tubach, Secondary Social Studies Teacher, Los Angeles Unified School District

David Walters, History-Social Science Coordinator, Santa Clara County Office of Education

Todd Clark, President, Consulting Group Creative Education Partners (Alternate)

Linda Kidd, Elementary History-Social Science Specialist, Los Angeles Unified School District (Alternate)

Kay Hones, School Librarian, San Francisco Unified School District (Alternate)

Acknowledgments

The primary writer for the framework was the California History–Social Science Project (CHSSP), led by Nancy McTygue, Executive Director, and Beth Slutsky, Academic Coordinator. The following individuals associated with the project contributed material to the framework:

Joel Breakstone, Director, Stanford History Education Group

Shelley Brooks, Academic Coordinator, CHSSP

Jim Charkins, Professor Emeritus, California State University, San Bernardino

Robert Chester, Lecturer, University of California, Berkeley, History Department

Marshall Croddy, President, Constitutional Rights Foundation

Gary F. Dei Rossi, Deputy Superintendent, San Joaquin County Office of Education (retired); and Chair, CHSSP Advisory Board

Daniel Diaz, Associate Director, University of California, Los Angeles, History-Geography Project

Ross Dunn, Professor Emeritus, San Diego State University

Debbie Genzer, Senior Court Services Analyst, Judicial Council of California

Nicole Gilbertson, Director, University of California, Irvine, History Project

Robert Goldman, Professor, University of California, Berkeley, Institute for South Asia Studies

Phyllis Goldsmith, Director of Teacher Development, University of California, Berkeley, History Project

Stacey Greer, Director, University of California, Davis, History Project

Emma Hipolito, Director, University of California, Los Angeles, History-Geography Project

Lisa Hutton, Director and Professor, California State University, Dominguez Hills, History Project

Shennan Hutton, Academic Coordinator, CHSSP

Tim Keirn, Professor, California State University, Long Beach

Frances “Cricket” Kidwell, Education Consultant/Curriculum Specialist, California State University, Chico

Camille Leonhardt, Professor, American River College

Jennifer Metherd, Co-Director, North State History-Social Science Project

Laura Mitchell, Professor, University of California, Irvine, History Department

Robert Moeller, Emeritus Professor, University of California, Irvine, History Department

Kimberly Nalder, Professor, California State University, Sacramento

Dave Neumann, Professor, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona
Carlos Noreña, Professor, University of California, Berkeley
Amanda Podany, Professor, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona
Jeff Pollard, Teacher, Natomas Charter School
Rachel Reinhard, Director, University of California, Berkeley, History Project
Wendy Rouse, Professor, San Jose State University
Daniel Sargeant, Professor, University of California, Berkeley, History Department
Emily Schell, Executive Director, California International Studies Project, San Diego State University
Sudipta Sen, Professor, University of California, Davis, Department of History
Rosamaria Tanghetti, Professor, Sacramento City College, Department of History
Alan S. Taylor, Professor, University of California, Davis (retired), University of Virginia, Department of History
Heidi Tinsman, Professor, University of California, Irvine, History Department
Tuyen Tran, Assistant Director, CHSSP
Michael Vann, Professor, California State University, Sacramento, History Department

The following additional individuals contributed material to the framework:

Nancy Brynelson, Co-Director, California State University Center for the Advancement of Reading
Gerald A. Lieberman, Director, State Education and Environment Roundtable
Margaret (Peg) Hill, California 3Rs Project (retired)
Pamela Spycher, Senior Research Associate, California Comprehensive Center at WestEd
Hallie Yopp Slowik, Co-Director, California State University Center for the Advancement of Reading; and Professor, Department of Elementary and Bilingual Education, California State University, Fullerton

In addition to the individuals and groups referenced above, the California Department of Education (CDE) and SBE would like to acknowledge the many thousands of people who took the time to submit public comments during the framework development process. There are too many to thank individually, but public input was instrumental in the development of the document.

Acknowledgments

The following managers at the CDE coordinated the development and publication of this framework:

Thomas Adams, Deputy Superintendent, Teaching and Learning Support Branch
Stephanie Gregson, Director, Curriculum Frameworks and Instructional Resources Division; and Executive Director, IQC

Kristen Cruz Allen, Administrator, Curriculum Frameworks Unit

Cynthia Gunderson, former Administrator, Curriculum Frameworks Unit

Susan Martimo, former Administrator, Curriculum Frameworks Unit

The following staff members from the CDE’s Curriculum Frameworks and Instructional Resources Division also assisted in the development of the framework:

Kenneth McDonald, Project Lead, Education Programs Consultant, Curriculum Frameworks Unit

Deborah Franklin, Education Programs Consultant, Curriculum Frameworks Unit

Steve Furness, Office Technician, Curriculum Frameworks Unit

Laurie Garcia, Staff Services Manager, Division Support Unit

Lisa Leiplein, Analyst, Curriculum Frameworks Unit

Cliff Rudnick, Administrator, Instructional Resources Unit

Rhonda Runyan, Analyst, Curriculum Frameworks Unit

Susan Sweeney, Executive Secretary, Curriculum Frameworks and Instructional Resources Division

Joe Thompson, Analyst, Division Support Unit

Terri Yan, Analyst, Curriculum Frameworks Unit

Tracie Yee, Analyst, Curriculum Frameworks Unit

Finally, the CDE gratefully acknowledges the following staff members for their involvement in the development of the framework:

Patricia de Cos, Deputy Executive Director, State Board of Education

Stacey Greer, former Education Programs Consultant, Literacy, History, and Arts Leadership Office, Professional Learning Support Division

Carrie Roberts, former Director, Professional Learning Support Division

Note: The names and affiliations of the individuals were current at the time this publication was developed.

CHAPTER 1

Content. Inquiry. Literacy. Citizenship.

This framework guides educators as they design, implement, and maintain a coherent course of study to teach content, develop inquiry-based critical thinking skills, improve reading comprehension and expository writing ability, and promote an engaged and knowledgeable citizenry in history and the related social sciences.

The subject areas covered in this framework offer students the opportunity to learn about the world and their place in it, think critically, read, write, and communicate clearly. History, civics and government, geography, and economics are integral to the mission of preparing California’s children for college, careers, and civic life. These disciplines develop students’ understanding of the physical world, encourage their participation in our democratic system of government, teach them about our past, inform their financial choices, and improve their ability to make reasoned decisions based upon evidence. Moreover, these disciplines play a vital role in the development of student literacy because of a shared emphasis on text, argumentation, and use of evidence.

Important shifts in instructional practice have occurred since this document was last updated. Thus this framework seeks to bring up to date the state of these important areas of study. Achieving these goals is a shared responsibility. History–social science teachers are encouraged to collaborate with their colleagues in other disciplines to ensure that all students achieve the common goal of readiness for their future as literate, informed, and engaged citizens.

California’s schools house the largest and most diverse population of students in the country. Of the 6.2 million students attending California’s public schools in 2012–13, over 1.3 million were classified as English learners (ELs), 21.6 percent of the total school enrollment. The rates of ELs were much higher in certain counties and districts. In addition, 58 percent of children attending public schools qualify for free or reduced-price lunches, an indicator of poverty. In some counties, such



as those in the Central Valley, the percentage of impoverished children is much higher: In Fresno and Madera, for example, 72 percent of the children in schools are eligible for free and reduced-price lunches. Even in relatively wealthy counties, communities and families struggle with poverty; 28 percent of the students qualify for free or reduced-price lunches in affluent Marin County.¹

The relationship between students’ English proficiency, socioeconomic status, and learning has been well documented. Children of color, children who do not speak English with fluency, and children living in poverty can struggle more than their privileged peers to achieve academically. These challenges provide the state of California with an opportunity to make a difference—to support schools and teachers in their efforts to help our state’s children to become literate, knowledgeable, and responsible citizens.

It is the obligation of the state of California to provide all students with an engaging and relevant history–social science education that will shape how they participate in their world. This framework aims to highlight the most recent shifts in instructional practices that will make it possible to meet this obligation, while retaining the best practices currently employed. As the *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History–Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy) and the *California English Language Development Standards* (CA ELD Standards) emphasize, in order

1. California Department of Education, DataQuest census reports (accessed June 19, 2014).

to be successful in most content areas, students must develop essential reading, writing, and analysis skills.² Studying disciplines like history and the related social sciences requires students to employ complex vocabulary, understand discipline-specific patterns of language, and exercise analytical thinking skills. The shifts in instructional practice required by the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, the CA ELD Standards, and the *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools* (ELA/ELD Framework) are substantial. To effectively shift to more substantive instruction, schools must emphasize concepts and disciplinary practices—investigation, evidence, close reading, and argumentative writing—and provide the training and curricular resources that teachers will need to implement these shifts. The study of history and the related social sciences presents opportunities for student learning and literacy development as well as challenges from increased expectations for student learning. Every California school should offer a robust and integrated instructional program in social studies for kindergarten through grade twelve with the development of thematic and conceptual understandings throughout the entire sequence.

The framework has two primary audiences: (1) educators and (2) developers and publishers of curriculum programs and materials. Educators will use this framework as a road map for curriculum and instruction. Publishers must attend to the content and pedagogical requirements specified in the standards and the framework to ensure that all California students have access to carefully designed, research-based instructional materials that are appropriate for diverse learning

To effectively shift to more substantive instruction, schools must emphasize concepts and disciplinary practices—investigation, evidence, close reading, and argumentative writing—and provide the training and curricular resources that teachers will need to implement these shifts.

2. Intersegmental Committee of the Academic Senates of the California Community Colleges, the California State University, and the University of California, *Academic Literacy: A Statement of Competencies Expected of Students Entering California’s Public Colleges and Universities* (Sacramento: ICAS, 2002). <http://senate.universityofcalifornia.edu/files/reports/acadlit.pdf>. *Academic literacy* is defined as the “reading, writing, listening, speaking, critical thinking, use of technology, and habits of mind that foster academic success.”

needs. Additional audiences for the framework include parents, caregivers, families, members of the community, and policymakers, as well as institutions, organizations, and individuals involved in the preparation and ongoing professional learning of educators. The framework will be a useful guide for teachers and the stakeholders who review curriculum at the local and state levels.

Content

The framework and standards encourage students to learn about the world from several perspectives—local to global—in a deliberate and careful sequence and to develop thematic and conceptual understandings based on these perspectives. Along the way, students engage with the content through questions and topics of disciplinary and conceptual significance rather than learn to memorize discrete pieces of information that do not appear to connect to broader issues. From a very young age, students learn about family and community structures, regional and geographic characteristics, and then about people and institutions on a broader scale. Starting with the upper-elementary grades, history and the related social sciences center on chronology and geography. As students explore this content, they learn from a variety of primary and secondary sources, grapple with multiple and often competing pieces of information, form interpretations based on evidence, learn about how to place information in its appropriate context, and connect it to issues of broader significance.

The framework and standards also emphasize the importance of history as a constructed narrative that is continually being reshaped and retold. The story of the past should be lively and accurate as well as rich with controversies and dynamic personalities. The study of history is enriched with the use of literature: both literature of the period and *about* the period. Teachers of history and of the language arts should collaborate to select diverse works that illuminate the past with a variety of texts that can be investigated as both historical documents and as works of art. Poetry, novels, plays, essays, documents, inaugural addresses, myths, legends, tall tales, biographies, and religious literature help to shed light on the experiences of people who lived in the recent and distant past. Such literature helps to reveal the way people saw themselves, their ideas and values, their fears and dreams, and the way they interpreted their own times.

California’s students need to know the story of the founding and settlement of different parts of the North American continent. They study the diverse history of their own state and how California’s story relates to a national narrative. They learn about this nation’s founding principles of freedom and democracy and of America’s ongoing struggles, setbacks, and achievements in realizing those principles. They consider the fight for political and social equality and efforts to achieve both economic growth and justice. In the *History–Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools* (History–Social Science Content Standards), students explore the meaning of liberty and equality by considering the actions Americans have taken to organize in support of and opposition to government policies, both in California and the nation as a whole. They examine the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation, the Constitutional Convention and ratification process, the Civil War, Reconstruction, and the Civil Rights Movement to assess the ways Americans have changed and reconstituted federal power. Students also consider the ways in which the quests for liberty, freedom, and equality have transformed the American populace. They study the recurrent theme of citizenship and voting by analyzing how these rights and privileges have been contested and reshaped over time. Starting with the freedoms outlined by the Framers, students examine the many contributions of Americans seeking to define the meaning of citizenship across the country, from farmers in Jefferson’s agrarian nation, to suffragists at the turn of the century, to civil rights activists putting their lives on the line to end Jim Crow laws in the middle of the twentieth century, to Americans seeking to bring marriage equality to same-sex couples in the twenty-first century.

California’s students also need to know the history and geography of the world beyond national borders. In the middle grades, students begin their study of the global past with consideration of the ancient world, from hunter–gatherer societies to the earliest civilizations in Mesopotamia, Egypt, China, and India. Their learning extends into subsequent civilizations such as the ancient Israelites, Greeks, and Romans. Students analyze the relationship between humanity and the physical world, trade, conflict, the development of new political institutions and philosophies, as well as the birth and spread of religious traditions. As in earlier grades, students continue to learn about these developments through a variety of primary- and secondary-source documents, analyze multiple pieces of evidence, and use this evidence to answer broader questions of historical significance. Through their

study of medieval and early modern history and geography, students examine the rise and fall of empires; the growth of commercial, technological, and cultural exchange; and the consequences of increasing population density and movement in Afro-Eurasia and the Americas.

In high school, students continue to analyze the connections between events at home and abroad as people, products, diseases, technology, knowledge, and ideas spread around the world as never before. Students survey economic, political, and social revolutions and the increasing impact of humanity on the natural and physical environment. They also investigate imperial expansion and the growth of nation-states, two world wars, decolonization, the Cold War, globalization, and unresolved conflicts that continue to affect the world today.



Students translate many of these inquiry-based skills to their personal financial decisions. As students mature, they learn to make informed financial decisions based upon sound economic reasoning. They learn to develop skills in demand in twenty-first-century labor markets, budget and manage credit, evaluate saving and investment opportunities, take advantage and be aware of the power of compound

interest, consider the advantages and disadvantages of different financial institutions, recognize the opportunities and dangers of student loans and consumer debt, and learn methods to minimize the danger of identity theft. In their investigation of the economy, students consider the opportunities and consequences provided by the emergence of capital markets. They also learn about how markets impact ordinary Americans and how the federal government affects them.

Students deepen their understanding of cost-benefit analysis, the use of incentives to explain peoples' behavior, markets (product, labor, and financial), the necessity for developing human capital to gain economic independence, the role of labor and entrepreneurs, the workings of the macro-economy, the effect of fiscal and monetary policies, and the interaction of economics and politics in public policy. They study economic progress, such as the Industrial Revolution's impact on

productivity, trade, and the standard of living. Students will also consider some of the costs of unfettered capitalism, such as industrialization’s impact on the environment, child labor, disparities between rich and poor, and corporate practices such as the development of trusts and cartels. Students will learn about the government’s attempt to address some of these economic problems. Among other relevant developments, students examine the significance of the national marketplace, the transcontinental railroad, the Great Depression, the New Deal, and the Cold War and post–Cold War era’s industrial growth and contraction.

Inquiry

Teaching history and the related social sciences demands more than telling students to memorize disconnected content. Since the adoption of California’s History–Social Science Content Standards in 1998, our state has recognized the importance of inquiry-based disciplinary understanding in the social studies classroom. The Historical and Social Science Analysis Skills highlight the importance of chronological and spatial thinking; research, evidence, and point of view; and historical interpretation, organized in three separate but related grade spans: K–5, 6–8, and 9–12. Embedded in these grade spans are discrete skills, vital for student learning, critical thinking, and literacy, such as understanding relationships between events, chronological understanding, understanding perspective and bias, and corroboration. These skills should help students relate better to the content.

The adoption of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy in 2010 and the ELA/ELD Framework in 2014 reinforced the importance of disciplinary literacy and understanding. The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy include standards for reading and writing, making clear that understanding informational text is integral to a well-rounded curriculum and that it involves learning to think, read, and write with these skills. As all of these documents emphasize, students must be able to engage in inquiry—using the individual tools of each discipline to investigate a significant question and marshal relevant evidence in support of their own interpretations.

In addition to the California History–Social Science Content Standards, CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, and CA ELD Standards (the state’s adopted documents that guide instruction), there is an additional document that should inform inquiry-based instruction. The *College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards* (C3 Framework) (<http://www.socialstudies.org/c3>)

is a document that was prepared and published by the National Council for the Social Studies in 2013. The C3 Framework combines many of the disciplinary skills that history and the related social sciences emphasize and organizes them into specific subject areas as part of an “Inquiry Arc.” This focus on inquiry builds upon the latest scholarship in educational research and promotes the development of skills necessary for an engaged citizenry:

[S]tudents need the intellectual power to recognize societal problems; ask good questions and develop robust investigations into them; consider possible solutions and consequences; separate evidence-based claims from parochial opinions; and communicate and act upon what they learn. And most importantly, they must possess the capability and commitment to repeat that process as long as is necessary. Young people need strong tools for, and methods of, clear and disciplined thinking in order to traverse successfully the worlds of college, career, and civic life.³

The following excerpts from the C3 Framework relate closely to the inquiry-based approach that benefits California’s students and relates to specific disciplines.

- **History.** Historical thinking requires understanding and evaluating change and continuity over time, and making appropriate use of historical evidence in answering questions and developing arguments about the past. . . . It involves locating and assessing historical sources of many different types to understand the contexts of given historical eras and the perspectives of different individuals and groups within geographic units that range from the local to the global. Historical thinking is a process of chronological reasoning, which means wrestling with issues of causality, connections, significance, and context with the goal of developing credible explanations of historical events and developments based on reasoned interpretation of evidence.

Historical inquiry involves acquiring knowledge about significant events, developments, individuals, groups, documents, places, and ideas to support investigations about the past. Acquiring relevant knowledge requires assembling information from a wide variety of sources in an integrative process. Students might begin with key events or individuals introduced by the teacher or identified by educational leaders at the state level, and then investigate them further. Or they might take a source from a seemingly insignificant individual and make connections between that person and larger events, or trace the person’s contributions to a major development. Scholars, teachers, and students form an understanding of what is and what is not significant from the emergence of new sources, from current events, from their locale, and from asking questions

3. *National Council for the Social Studies, College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards: Guidance for Enhancing the Rigor of K-12 Civics, Economics, Geography, and History* (Silver Spring, MD: NCSS, 2013), 6.

about changes that affected large numbers of people in the past or had enduring consequences. Developing historical knowledge in connection with historical investigations not only helps students remember the content better because it has meaning, but also allows students to become better thinkers.⁴

- **Government/Civics.** In a constitutional democracy, productive civic engagement requires knowledge of the history, principles, and foundations of our American democracy, and the ability to participate in civic and democratic processes. People demonstrate civic engagement when they address public problems individually and collaboratively and when they maintain, strengthen, and improve communities and societies. Thus, civics is, in part, the study of how people participate in governing society. Because government is a means for addressing common or public problems, the political system established by the U.S. Constitution is an important subject of study within civics. Civics requires other knowledge too; students should also learn about state and local governments; markets; courts and legal systems; civil society; other nations' systems and practices; international institutions; and the techniques available to citizens for preserving and changing a society.

Civics is not limited to the study of politics and society; it also encompasses participation in classrooms and schools, neighborhoods, groups, and organizations. . . . What defines civic virtue, which democratic principles apply in given situations, and when discussions are deliberative are not easy questions, but they are topics for inquiry and reflection. In civics, students learn to contribute appropriately to public processes and discussions of real issues. Their contributions to public discussions may take many forms, ranging from personal testimony to abstract arguments. They will also learn civic practices such as voting, volunteering, jury service, and joining with others to improve society. Civics enables students not only to study how others participate, but also to practice participating and taking informed action themselves.⁵

- **Geography.** Geographic reasoning requires using spatial and environmental perspectives, skills in asking and answering questions, and being able to apply geographic representations including maps, imagery, and geospatial technologies. A spatial perspective is about whereness. Where are people and things located? Why there? What are the consequences? An environmental perspective views people as living in interdependent relationships within diverse environments. Thinking geographically requires knowing that the world is a set of complex ecosystems interacting at multiple scales that structure the spatial patterns and processes that influence our daily lives. Geographic reasoning brings societies and nature under the lens of spatial analysis, and aids in personal and societal decision making and problem solving.⁶

4. Ibid, 45.

5. Ibid, 31.

6. Ibid, 40.

- **Economics.** “Effective economic decision-making requires that students have a keen understanding of the ways in which individuals, businesses, governments, and societies make decisions to allocate human capital, physical capital, and natural resources among alternative uses. This economic reasoning process involves the consideration of costs and benefits with the ultimate goal of making decisions that will enable individuals and societies to be as well off as possible. The study of economics provides students with the concepts and tools necessary for an economic way of thinking and helps students understand the interaction of buyers and sellers in markets, workings of the national economy, and interactions within the global marketplace. Economics is grounded in knowledge about how people choose to use resources. Economic understanding helps individuals, businesses, governments, and societies choose what resources to devote to work, to school, and to leisure; how many dollars to spend, and how many to save; and how to make informed decisions in a wide variety of contexts. Economic reasoning and skillful use of economic tools draw upon a strong base of knowledge about human capital, land, investments, money, income and production, taxes, and government expenditures.”⁷

Literacy

Learning how to read and write in the content areas is critical to overall student literacy development. Indeed, it is the particular kind of reading and writing involved in history–social sciences that will be most relevant to students’ daily lives as they mature and learn to craft argumentative essays in college or develop the skillset necessary for careers now and in the future. Text-based disciplines, such as history, demand student proficiency in content-specific informational text. Studying these disciplines entails vocabulary, reading, writing, and discourse patterns that are difficult for students. Literacy and language, along with positive dispositions toward learning and breadth of exposure to extraordinary literary and informational text and other media, enable students to consider the thinking of others—their knowledge, perspectives, questions, and passions—and to share, ponder, and pursue their own.

Content-area literacy development can improve the reading comprehension of all students with a focus on informational primary and secondary source texts that align with the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the ELA/ELD Framework. For example, by learning how to identify different kinds of text and how to read a text closely, with different purposes each time, students are taught to slow down and

7. Ibid, 35.

read on a level that transcends simple vocabulary or content comprehension; it heightens student critical thinking. Students explore a variety of texts, learn to identify a document by its purpose—whether it be persuasive, narrative, or autobiographical, for example—and evaluate its agenda and context.

Along with heightening students’ capacities for nuanced thinking, studying history and the related social sciences improves students’ expository writing ability. For years teachers have recognized the importance of guided writing instruction to deepen students’ understanding of content and to develop their overall literacy. Incorporating substantive writing instruction has been difficult, however, because of the focus on student mastery of multiple-choice tests, and because of the labor and time invested in teaching and grading such assignments. The shifts in instruction required by the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the ELA/ELD Framework provide opportunities for analytical writing that occur in much more frequent—and shorter—lengths than traditional essay and report assignments. Students learn to write analytically when weighing multiple primary-source documents against one another and make claims about the legitimacy of certain sources over others. For example, in a seventh-grade lesson on the medieval world,⁸ students may read primary accounts of slavery by sultanates and international traders in order to determine the intricacies of the slave trade and the different meanings that those in power across the world ascribed to the system of slavery. This reading ultimately leads students to develop a much more argument-driven and evidence-supported paragraph. And as students gain mastery of claims and evidence, they develop more sophisticated CCSS skills, such as the ability to make counter-arguments. Through the use of multiple primary-source documents, students can then extrapolate some specifics from history to support their arguments.

The relationship of English language development (ELD) and history–social science is both reciprocal and inextricable. Cross-curricular collaboration between history–social science and English language arts teachers should come naturally and necessarily to develop in students a well-rounded understanding of history–social science. Content knowledge grows from students’ knowledge of language and their ability to understand and use particular discourse practices, grammatical

8. *Sites of Encounter in the Medieval World, Cairo*. 2014, California History–Social Science Project. Davis: The Regents of the University of California.

structures, and vocabulary while reading, writing, speaking, and listening to reach their goals in a discipline. Similarly, as English learners delve deeper into the ways in which meaning is conveyed in history–social science, their knowledge of how language works and their ability to make informed linguistic choices also grow.

All students must be able to deconstruct subject-area texts to make transparent the disciplinary modes of information processing, synthesis, and dissemination. These multilayered tasks may be especially challenging for English learners. The CA ELD Standards outline major shifts in the understanding of language acquisition. These shifts provide a road map for teachers seeking to improve both their students' understanding of content and their literacy. The following research findings reveal the shift in instructional practices:

- Learning language is nonlinear and more complex than previously assumed. Students do not develop English proficiency in uniform speed or sequence. Students need a more cyclical approach to build their linguistic skills, one where teachers respond to the specific needs of their students.
- Instruction should prioritize the development of a student's ability to comprehend abstract text and communicate through both speaking and writing.
- English learners need to work with complex and intellectually challenging texts. Instead of simplifying texts, instructors should help their students understand those texts in their original language.
- English learners need practice to understand academic and disciplinary vocabulary *in context*.
- English is more than a set of rules. It is a tool to make meaning—students need to consider the audience, task, and purpose when reading.

These shifts have significant implications for instruction in history and the related social sciences. They suggest that teachers should organize their instruction based on their students' academic literacy in the discipline, their overall English literacy, and their content understanding. More specifically, an instructional approach that includes substantive oral language interaction, appropriate pacing of concepts, strategic grammar instruction, increased feedback, and research-based literacy strategies designed specifically for learning the individual disciplines

within the history–social science framework is one most likely to produce gains in *both* student content understanding and literacy.

This does not mean that history–social science teachers should become linguists or that ELD specialists should become history–social science experts. Rather, content teachers need to know enough about language acquisition to support their students’ different levels of English proficiency so that students maintain a steady trajectory along the ELD continuum. This also means that ELD teachers and EL specialists need to know enough about content to ensure that ELs are developing the language of the disciplines and of specific disciplinary topics in order to be successful in their core content course work. This approach to teaching and learning requires educators to collaborate with one another in order to ensure that all ELs receive instruction that is rigorous, comprehensive, and robust in terms of content knowledge, disciplinary literacy, and language.

History–social science teachers’ efforts to support student literacy align with the recommendations of the National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and the Council of Chief State School Officers. Detailed in appendix A, the recommendations outline the importance of independent learning, content knowledge, audience, comprehension and criticism, evidence, the use of technology, and appreciation for other perspectives and cultures.

Citizenship

The history–social science curriculum places a continuing emphasis on democratic values in the relations between citizens and the state. Whether studying United States history, world history, government, economics, or geography, students should be aware of the presence, absence, or contestation of fundamental human rights. These include the rights of the individual, the rights of minorities, the right of the citizen to participate in government, the right to speak or publish freely without governmental coercion, the right to freedom of religion and association, the right to trial by jury and to be treated fairly by the criminal justice system, the right to form trade unions, and other basic democratic and human rights. Students should understand the ways that various forms of government have encouraged or discouraged the expansion of these rights.

The disciplines also encourage the development of civic and democratic values as an integral element of good citizenship. From the earliest grade levels, students learn the kind of behavior that is necessary for the functioning of a democratic society in which everyone’s fundamental human rights are respected. They learn sportsmanship, fair play, sharing, respect, integrity, and taking turns. They should be given opportunities to lead and to follow. They should learn how to select leaders and how to resolve disputes rationally. They should learn about the value of due process in dealing with infractions, and they should learn to respect the rights of the minority even if this minority is only a single, dissenting voice and to recognize the dignity of every person.

These democratic values should be taught in the classroom, in the curriculum, and in daily life outside school. Teachers are encouraged to have students use the community to gather information regarding public issues and become familiar with individuals and organizations involved in public affairs. Campus and community beautification activities and volunteer service in community facilities such as hospitals and senior-citizen or day care centers can provide students with opportunities to develop a commitment to public service and help link students in a positive way to their schools and communities. Whenever possible, opportunities should be available for participation and for reflection on the responsibilities of citizens in a free society.

History and the related social sciences offer a unique opportunity for teachers to emphasize the importance of civic virtue in public affairs. At each grade level,

At each grade level, students can reflect on the individual responsibility and behavior that create a good society, consider the individual’s role in how a society governs itself, and examine the role of law in society.

students can reflect on the individual responsibility and behavior that create a good society, consider the individual’s role in how a society governs itself, and examine the role of law in society. The curriculum provides numerous opportunities to discuss the implications of how societies are organized and governed, what the state owes to its citizens, and what citizens owe to the state. Students learn about the values and institutions necessary for a successful and stable democratic system, such as the importance of an independent judiciary, fighting corruption, having accountability, fairness, and the rule of law.

Most importantly, in these discussions about the role of citizens in society, students will gain an appreciation of how necessary an informed electorate is in making possible a successful democracy. Students learn that reading informational text in newspapers, articulating similarities and differences between political candidates, making claims supported by evidence, and discerning genres of arguments, for example, are all essential virtues that an informed citizenry must possess.

Educators want students to perceive the complexity of social, economic, and political problems. They want them to be able to both comprehend and evaluate an argument and develop their own interpretations supported by relevant evidence. Educators want them to have the ability to differentiate between what is important and what is not. Students need to know their rights and responsibilities as American citizens and have both the capacity and willingness to participate in a democratic system of government. Educators want students to understand the meaning of the Constitution as a social contract that defines a democratic government and guarantees individual rights. Educators want them to respect the right of others to have different beliefs and ideas. Students need to take an active role as citizens and know how to work for change in a democratic society. The value, the importance, and the fragility of democratic institutions must be understood by all students. Only a small fraction of the world's population now or in the past has been fortunate enough to live under a democratic form of government, and students need to understand the conditions that encourage democracy to prosper. By developing a keen sense of ethics and citizenship, students develop respect for all persons as equals regardless of ethnicity, nationality, gender identity, sexual orientation, and beliefs. Educators want students to care deeply about the quality of life in their community, the nation, and their world. The desire of educators is to have students recognize their responsibility as members of the global community to participate ethically and with humanity in their interactions with various nations, cultures, and peoples.

To achieve these important and difficult goals, *all* students must have access to a robust and comprehensive history–social science instructional program from the earliest grades through their senior year in high school. Students must engage in inquiry-based learning, organized around questions of significance, developing their own interpretations, which are informed by relevant evidence. This evidence should represent a wide variety of perspectives and should be accompanied by

appropriate grade-level literacy support. The development of a knowledgeable and engaged citizenry is the goal of such an instructional program.

How to Read This Document

Teaching history–social science has never been easy. Each year, teachers have been expected to cover an expansive range of content, encourage the development of critical thinking, assess student learning, and provide students with both the experience and knowledge they need to participate in our democratic system. California’s History–Social Science Framework was first published in 1988. Ten years later, content standards in history–social science were adopted; they remain in force.

Despite the relatively few updates to these official state documents, educational reforms have dramatically altered classroom instruction in California. With the adoption of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy in 2010, the CA ELD Standards in 2012, and the ELA/ELD Framework in 2014, the expectations have expanded to include an explicit focus on the development of student reading, writing, speaking, and listening in English. Some have argued that this additional responsibility—the development of student literacy—necessarily takes away time from the content of the history–social science disciplines. However, as this document aims to demonstrate, a focus on student literacy in history–social science classrooms not only helps students learn content, it also develops the skills necessary to participate effectively in a literate, democratic society.

This expanded focus also firmly positions history–social science within the core curriculum and effectively pushes back against the parochial interests that have marginalized the disciplines in the last 15 years. In addition, disciplinary research has revealed new insights into the disciplines of history–social science and expanded understanding of how children learn and, more specifically, the effectiveness of an inquiry-based approach to instruction.

In response to these developments in history–social science education, this framework provides both a theoretical rationale and concrete classroom examples throughout the document to support the implementation of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, CA ELD Standards, and History–Social Science Content Standards. It also organizes the grade-level content around questions of significance, which

are designed to promote the use of inquiry as an effective and engaging instructional method, and incorporate the most recent scholarship in a given field. The framework includes broad questions such as “What does freedom mean?” and “How does it change over time?” and more narrow inquiries like “Why was there a Columbian



Exchange?” Framing instruction around questions of significance allows students to develop their content knowledge in greater depth, and to create a narrative arc around which other information can be contextualized. It also allows natural connections between the disciplines to take center stage by, for example, examining an important event and its economic, political, and geographic dimensions, as well as its place in the chronology of the past.

Finally, a caution: This framework is not a curriculum. It is not a textbook. And in no way can it supplant the good work of thoughtful and hardworking educators who teach California’s children every day. It is intended as a guide to support new teachers just learning how to translate complex and contradictory content they first learned at the university into an understandable and relevant narrative appropriate and accessible to children. The framework is a reference for more experienced educators who are looking for suggestions to update their teaching or have been reassigned to teach a new course or grade level. For administrators seeking to support their teachers, it offers an overview of the content and disciplinary knowledge, as well as the discipline-specific skills students have the opportunity to develop in social studies classrooms. And it represents the best efforts to incorporate the diverse perspectives of Californians. Wherever possible, the exploration of the past is encouraged through the use of primary sources—historical documents and artifacts that help foster the understanding that people have different perspectives, as is true today. The power of the individual disciplines that make up the social studies or history–social science collective is that it teaches students to look for those different perspectives, to have the capacity to analyze and ultimately evaluate them, and to make an argument, based upon evidence, that both deepens their own understanding and engages them in civic discourse to promote the common good.

At the end of the framework are eight appendixes that support the overarching goals described in this introduction. Appendix A, “Capacities of Literate Individuals,” has already been mentioned. Appendix B, “Problems, Questions, and Themes in the History and Geography Classroom,” suggests an alternative thematic approach to the study of history. Appendix C contains the full text of the History–Social Science Content Standards. Appendix D, “Teaching the Contemporary World,” elaborates upon recent events that extend beyond the timeline incorporated in the standards. Appendix E, “Educating for Democracy: Civic Education in the History–Social Science Curriculum,” is a companion to the extensive information on civic education that can be found throughout the framework. Appendix F, “Religion and History–Social Science Education,” offers updated information about what is legally permitted in the teaching of religion in California public schools. Appendix G provides information about the California Education and the Environment Initiative (EEI), including the Environmental Principles and Concepts and the EEI curriculum units that are referenced throughout this framework. Appendix H is a companion to the civic education piece in support of service-learning.

Finally, a bibliography of works cited and a list of Web links to primary-source documents discussed in the framework are provided.

CHAPTER 2

Instructional Practice for Kindergarten Through Grade Five

As described in the Introduction, in addition to providing history–social science content, teachers must emphasize disciplinary and literacy practices—investigation, close reading, analysis of evidence, and argumentative writing. The *History–Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools* (History–Social Science Content Standards), the *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy), and the *California English Language Development Standards* (CA ELD Standards) guide these practices in history–social science. Educators may also want to consider the *College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework* (C3 Framework), published in 2013 by the National Council for the Social Studies. All of these resources emphasize the need for students to think, read, and write in a discipline-specific way. The skills noted below are to be learned through, and applied to, the content covered in kindergarten through grade five. They are also to be assessed with the content in these grades.

Disciplinary Thinking and Analysis Skills

The Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills and the C3 Framework address the intellectual skills students should learn and apply when engaged in inquiry (utilizing the individual tools of each discipline to investigate a significant question and marshal relevant evidence in support of their own interpretations) in history–social science courses in kindergarten through grade five. The skills described below are organized by one of the four main social science disciplines: civics/government, economics, geography, and history. However, across all of the disciplines, students should understand and frame questions of disciplinary significance that can be answered by research and study.

Civics and Government

When studying civics, students explore how people participate in the governing of society. In elementary school, students begin by examine the roles and responsibilities of people in their immediate community and grow to understand the roles and responsibilities of government at different levels, in different branches, and in different times and places. They also begin to understand how all people in a community or society participate in a democracy and interact with each other responsibly.

Students explain the need for and purposes of laws, who makes and enforces them, and how people can change and improve rules and laws in school, their community, their state, and their nation. Students begin to understand and apply civic virtues and democratic principles such as equality, fairness, and respect for legitimate authority and rules. They identify how these principles guide government and communities and how people and governments can work together to address public issues and problems. They learn how to participate effectively in discussions and use deliberative processes when making decisions as a group. Additionally, students compare their own point of view with others' and learn how beliefs, experiences, and values contribute to perspectives.

These civics-related activities can be woven into a variety of classroom content areas:

1. Students identify and explain the origins and purposes of rules, laws, and key U.S. Constitutional provisions and the role they play in addressing public problems and issues.
2. Students use deliberative discussion when making decisions or reaching judgments as a group.
3. Students construct arguments and establish positions on issues by using reasoning and evidence from multiple sources.
4. Students identify and describe ways to take action individually and in groups to address problems and issues.

Economics

To make effective economic decisions, students need to understand how individuals, businesses, governments, and societies use human, physical, and natural resources. In elementary school, students begin to understand how people make economic choices based both on incentives and resource scarcity and the costs and benefits of those individual choices. They also learn about capitalism and begin to learn about their place in the economy. Students learn to explain how people earn incomes, why people save and invest, and the role of banks and other financial institutions in the economy. Students begin to learn about personal finance in modern and historical contexts. They learn about different resources needed to produce goods and services, how both the resources and products vary in different communities, and how these differences lead to specialization, trade, markets, and growing interdependence at the local, national, and international levels.

Geography

In studying geography, students explore local characteristics of places and learn about how places connect to each other. Elementary-school students' geographic reasoning skills include the use of maps and globes to describe environmental and cultural features of places and the relationships and interactions between them. Students learn to construct maps and visual representations of familiar and unfamiliar places. Students also explain the relationship and interdependence of human activities and the environment, and how these relationships affect the distribution and movement of people, goods, and ideas. Additionally, students

should explain how weather, climate, other environmental characteristics, as well as human-made and natural catastrophic disasters, affect people’s lives in a place or region and the migration of people within and between regions.

History

Historical thinking is a process of chronological reasoning, which means wrestling with issues of causality, connections, significance, perspectives, and context. The goal is for students to develop credible arguments about the past based on reasoned interpretation of evidence from a variety of primary and secondary sources in diverse media formats.

In elementary school, students begin to understand key concepts such as the past, present, future, decade, century, generation, and memory. They learn how the present is connected to the past, identifying both similarities and differences between the two, and how some things change over time and some things stay the same. They create and use a chronological sequence of related events to compare developments and recognize change over time. Students pose and answer relevant questions about events they encounter in historical documents, eyewitness accounts, oral histories, letters, diaries, artifacts, photographs, maps, artwork, and architecture, differentiating between primary and secondary sources. They learn to identify key details about historical sources, including the maker, date, place of origin, intended audience, agenda, and purpose to determine how useful the source is for addressing historical questions.

Students begin to understand perspective, how the place and time (context) affect perspective, why perspectives differ even during the same historical period, and how perspective shaped historical sources. Students explain probable causes and effects of events and developments. Finally, students make claims about the past based on evidence from historical sources.

Literacy Skills

The kindergarten through grade five (K–5) CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards recognize the role that literacy instruction plays across the curricula. They include expectations for reading, writing, speaking, listening, and language applicable across the curriculum, including in history–social science. A single K–5 section lists these literacy standards, reflecting the fact that most or all

of the instruction in these grades comes from one teacher. For example, teaching California history requires teachers to simultaneously address the History–Social Science Content Standards for grade four as well as the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy.

Through literacy instruction, students acquire knowledge and inquiry skills in history–social science. They read to gain, modify, or extend knowledge or to learn different perspectives. They write to express their understandings of new concepts under exploration and also to refine and consolidate their understanding of concepts. They engage in discussion to clarify points; ask questions; explain

their opinions; and summarize what they have heard, viewed, read, and experienced. They collaboratively work on projects, hands-on investigations, and presentations. They acquire language for new concepts through reading and listening and use this language in speaking and writing.

As literacy instruction is employed in the content areas, skills in reading, writing, speaking and listening, and language are further developed in a reciprocal relationship. The CA CCSS Reading and Writing Standards are meant to complement the History–Social Science Content Standards and help students grapple with the primary and secondary sources they encounter. At the same time, history–social science teachers also use the CA ELD Standards to determine how to support their English learners (ELs) in achieving the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the History–Social Science Content Standards and curriculum. The K–5 CA CCSS for ELA standards make clear the importance of both content and literacy.



English Language Development

Children and youths who are ELs face the unique challenge of learning English as an additional language¹ at the same time as they are learning history–social science content through English.² This challenge creates a dual responsibility for all K–12 teachers of ELs. The first responsibility is to ensure that all ELs have full access to the intellectually rich history–social science curriculum at their grade level. The second is to ensure that ELs rapidly develop advanced levels of English in history–social science, the type of English that is necessary for success with academic tasks and texts in these disciplines. To fulfill this dual responsibility, California promotes a comprehensive approach to English language development (ELD) as an integral part of a robust instructional program for all ELs. This approach includes *both* integrated ELD *and* designated ELD.³

Integrated ELD	↔	Designated ELD
All teachers with ELs in their classrooms use the CA ELD Standards <i>in tandem with</i> the focal CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards.		A protected time during the regular school day when teachers use the CA ELD Standards as the focal standards in ways that build <i>into</i> and <i>from content instruction</i> in order to develop critical language ELs need for content learning in English.

1. The term *English as an additional language* is used intentionally to signal that an explicit goal in California is for ELs to add English to their linguistic repertoires and maintain and continue to develop proficiency in their primary language(s).

2. Some ELs are enrolled in alternative bilingual programs where they may be exclusively learning history–social science in their primary language or learning history–social science in both their primary language and in English.

3. *Integrated* and *designated* ELD may be unfamiliar terms. These new terms encompass elements of previously used terms, such as *sheltered instruction*, *specially designed academic instruction in English [SDAIE]*, or *dedicated ELD*. It is beyond the scope of the *ELA/ELD Framework* to identify all previously used or existing terms, and readers should read the framework carefully to determine how the new terminology reflects, or differs from, current terms and understandings.

Students who receive specialized instructional services, including ELs and students with disabilities, will be at a disadvantage if they are removed from the general education classroom during history–social science instruction in order to receive these services. High priority must be given to ensure that all students have access to grade-level history–social science content knowledge. Therefore, careful consideration should be given to the timing of special services—crucial as they are—in order to minimize disruption to subject-matter learning. Planning for meeting the needs of all learners should be part of the Multi-Tiered System of Supports (MTSS), a systemic process to examine the various needs and requirements of all learners. Educators must develop schedules that allow for time to adequately address literacy and learning needs without having to remove students from instruction in the core subjects whenever possible.

Reading

In elementary school, about half of the texts children read (including those read aloud by teachers) are informational texts. Informational texts are different from narrative texts in several ways, placing different demands on the reader (Duke 2000). Informational texts convey disciplinary knowledge and are characterized by domain-specific and general academic vocabulary.

In addition, some informational texts employ features not found in most narrative texts: tables of contents, glossaries, diagrams, charts, bolded text, and headings. Furthermore, many history–social science informational texts make use of organizational structures different from the story grammar (e.g., setting, characters, problem or goal, sequence of events, resolution) used in most narratives. Historical texts make claims, present information by using strategies like cause-and-effect and compare and contrast, and provide multiple explanations of interpretations. The informational texts in each discipline convey knowledge differently from the others (Derewianka and Jones 2012; Lee and Spratley 2010; Shanahan and Shanahan 2012; Zygouris-Coe 2012). In history–social science, students read secondary and tertiary sources, such as the history textbook, as well as primary sources. Students should be taught how to read these texts because many differ from narrative texts in terms of language, organization, and text features (Duke and Bennett-Armistead 2003; Yopp and Yopp 2006).

It is crucial that students engage with text—both as readers and writers—as they develop knowledge in history–social science. Texts are used alongside other sources of knowledge: inquiry and hands-on experiences, teacher presentations and demonstrations, class discussions, and audio and visual media. Each of these approaches should be employed routinely. It is important that students who experience difficulty with reading receive support as they learn from texts.

Teachers should not avoid texts as sources of knowledge with students who find them challenging and rely exclusively on nontext media and experiences.

Replacing texts with other sources of information or rewriting them in simpler language—in spite of the intention to ensure access to the curricula—limits students’ skill to learn independently with texts in the future. In other words, instruction should be provided to enable all students to learn with texts alongside other learning experiences.

In transitional kindergarten through grade three, students interact with a range of historical and social science informational texts. They learn to ask and answer questions about grade-level texts, determine the main idea, explain how details support the main idea, and describe the relationship between ideas. They learn to determine the meaning of domain-specific words or phrases in grade-level texts, use text features and search tools to locate information, distinguish their own point of view from that of the author, use information gained from illustrations and words to demonstrate understanding of the text, describe the logical connection between particular sentences and paragraphs in a text (comparison, cause/effect, first/second/third in a sequence), and compare and contrast the most important points and key details presented in two texts on the same topic. They learn to comprehend informational texts at the high end of the text complexity band for grades two through three independently and proficiently.

During these years between transitional kindergarten and grade three, English learners learn English as an additional language while also developing the abilities to fully engage with the academic grade-level curriculum called for in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and in the History–Social Science Content Standards. The CA ELD Standards guide teachers to support their EL students to interact in meaningful ways and learn about how English works, while developing foundational skills in English, through integrated and designated ELD.

In grades four and five, students read history–social science texts independently and are asked to share their understandings, insights, and responses with others. Students in these grades learn to engage meaningfully with increasingly sophisticated and complex primary and secondary sources to convey and support understanding of texts and grade-level topics in writing and in discussions and presentations. The reading standards for grades four and five also include inference making and referring to details in a text (quoting accurately in grade five) to support inferences; summarizing text; describing the elements or explaining the content of text; explaining the structure of different types of texts or parts of a text; analyzing different points of view and accounts of the same event or topic; interpreting, using, and making connections among and analyzing different visual and multimedia elements of text and how they contribute to meaning; explaining an author’s use of evidence to support ideas conveyed in text; comparing and contrasting texts with similar themes or on the same topic; and integrating information from different texts.

The CA ELD Standards amplify the emphasis in grades four and five on meaning making. Students continue to learn to interact in meaningful ways through three modes of communication: collaborative, interpretive, and productive. To engage meaningfully with oral and written texts, they continue to build their understanding of how English works on a variety of levels: how different historical text types are organized and structured to achieve specific purposes, how texts can be expanded and enriched through particular language resources, and how ideas can be connected and condensed to convey different meanings. Importantly, fourth- and fifth-grade EL children deepen their *language awareness* by analyzing and evaluating the language choices made by writers and speakers.

Writing

In transitional kindergarten through grade three, children learn to write both opinion and informative/explanatory texts about history–social science topics. With guidance and support from adults, they produce writing in which the development and organization are appropriate to the task and purpose; engage in planning, revising, and editing; and use technology to produce and publish writing. They conduct short research projects that build knowledge about a topic,

recalling information from experiences and gathering information from print and digital resources, taking brief notes, and sorting evidence into established categories. They write routinely over extended time frames (time for research, 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.

Prior to entering grade four, students learn to write informative/explanatory texts, introducing the topic, grouping related information, including illustrations, developing the topic, using linking words, and providing a concluding statement or section. They plan and deliver an informative/explanatory presentation on a topic, organizing ideas around major points of information, following a logical sequence, including supporting details, using clear and specific vocabulary, and providing a strong conclusion.



Writing instruction for history–social science in the fourth- and fifth-grade span builds on instruction in the prior years as students further develop their skills to write opinion and informative/explanatory texts. Students logically group ideas in written work to effectively convey opinions and information. They learn how to effectively summarize and explain the content of text by using precise

language and domain-specific vocabulary in writing. Students begin comparing and contrasting firsthand (primary sources) and secondhand accounts (secondary sources), and (in grade five) multiple accounts of the same event or topic. They explain an author’s use of reasons and evidence to support particular points conveyed in text. They effectively integrate, draw inferences from, and interpret evidence from two to several different sources by quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing evidence from primary and secondary informational texts to support analysis, reflection, and research in multiparagraph texts. Students generate a corresponding list of those sources. They learn to use technological skills such as keyboarding, and they learn to use the Internet to produce and publish writing and to interact and collaborate with others.

The CA ELD Standards provide guidance on how teachers can support their EL students (using appropriate levels of scaffolding based on students' levels of English proficiency) to engage in complex tasks that will help them develop the skills and abilities described above.

Engaging in Research

The opportunity to engage in research contributes to students' knowledge of the world and is one of the most powerful ways to integrate the strands of language arts with one another and with the subject matter. The writing strand of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy calls for students to participate in research projects, ones that may be completed in the course of a few hours or over an extended time frame. Students engage in research, with guidance and support, beginning in transitional kindergarten. They learn to read a number of books on a single topic to produce a report; gather information from print, oral, and digital sources; and take brief notes. By grades four and five, they are more independent in their abilities to pose questions and pursue knowledge from a range of sources. They engage in more extensive projects, and they have opportunities to share their findings with others, using a variety of media and formats.

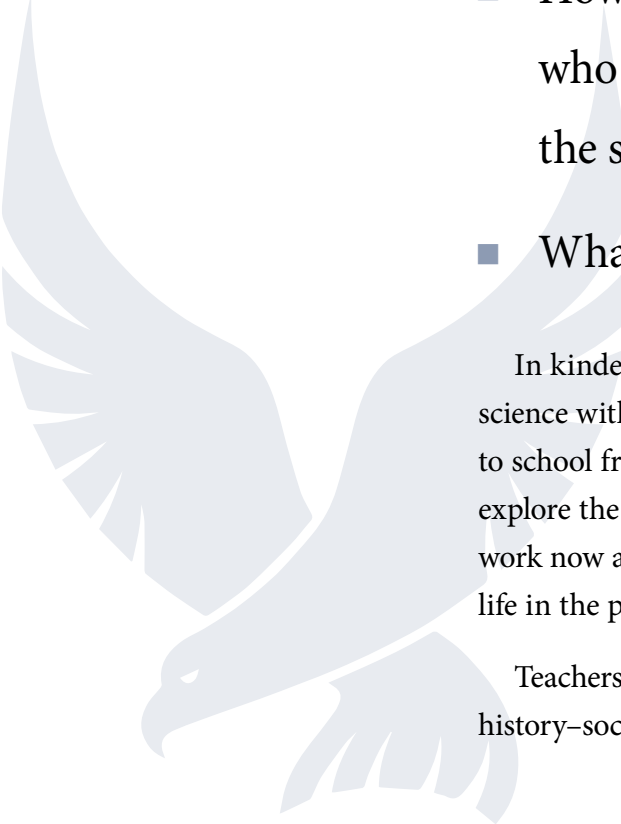
By grades four and five, students begin investigating different aspects of a topic when conducting short research projects. In grade five, they do research by using several sources. They are able to paraphrase, categorize information, and list sources. Students draw evidence from text to support analysis, reflection, and research. Research projects provide the opportunity for students to pursue their interests within the history–social science curriculum (thus contributing to motivation and engagement), make authentic use of texts and online resources, and engage in purposeful communication and collaboration with others, both online and in person. Research projects present an exceptional opportunity for interdisciplinary experiences and foster use and development of all of the themes of ELA/literacy and ELD instruction: meaning making, language development, effective expression, content knowledge, and the application of foundational skills. They also require many twenty-first-century skills, including collaboration, communication, critical and creative thinking, and use of media and technology.

This page is left blank intentionally.

CHAPTER 3

Learning and Working Now and Long Ago

- How can we learn and work together?
- What does it mean to be an American?
- How are our lives different from those who lived in the past? How are they the same?
- What is our neighborhood like?



In kindergarten, students begin the study of history–social science with concepts anchored in the experiences they bring to school from their families and communities. Students explore the meaning of good citizenship, national symbols, work now and long ago, geography, time and chronology, and life in the past.

Teachers are encouraged to build understanding of history–social science concepts while furthering beginning

literacy skills, as outlined in the *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy). For example, shared readings of narrative and informational texts related to the history–social science standards can reinforce academic content vocabulary and provide opportunities for students to work on a variety of reading, writing, speaking, and listening activities. Teachers should also work collaboratively with colleagues who teach grades one through three to avoid repetition. The content themes in kindergarten—such as understanding of and appreciation for American culture and government, geographic awareness, and (starting in grade one) economic reasoning—serve as a multigrade strand that can allow an extended and relatively in-depth course of study.

Learning and Working Together

In Standard K.1, students explore the meaning of good citizenship by learning about rules and working together, as well as the basic idea of government, in response to the question **How can we learn and work together?** An informational book such as *Rules and Laws* by Ann-Marie Kishel may be used to introduce the topic while teachers use classroom problems that arise as opportunities for critical thinking and problem solving. For example, problems in sharing scarce resources or space with others or in planning ahead and ending an activity on time for the next activity will teach students to function as a community of learners who make choices about how they conduct themselves.

Students need help in analyzing problems, determining why the problem arose, developing alternatives, considering how these alternatives might bring different results, and learning to appreciate behaviors and values that are consistent with a democratic ethic. Students and teachers can dramatize issues and choices that create conflict on the playground, in the classroom, and at home and can brainstorm choices that exemplify compromise, cooperation, and respect for rules and laws. Students must have opportunities to discuss these more desirable behaviors, try them out, and examine how they lead to more harmonious and socially satisfying relationships with others. Literature books such as Kevin Henkes’s *Lily’s Purple Plastic Purse*, David Shannon’s *David Goes to School*, and Laura Vaccaro Seeger’s *Bully* may be used to explore these themes.

Students also need guidance in understanding the purpose of rules and laws

and why a government is necessary. Teachers may discuss rules at home and in school and ask why they are important. What happens when family members choose not to follow rules? Students may help create classroom rules for the purpose of establishing a safe environment where learning can occur. Students may also discuss possible consequences for breaking these rules.

Kindergarten Classroom Example: Being a Good Citizen (Integrated ELA and Civics)

The students in Ms. Miller’s class are familiar with young David’s antics in David Shannon’s picture book *No, David!* They have chuckled with Ms. Miller over the story and illustrations many times. Ms. Miller and her kindergarten students explore what it means to be a good citizen and why rules are important. Ms. Miller reads aloud Shannon’s sequel, *David Goes to School*, in which a young David chooses to break one classroom rule after another. With support, the children identify and discuss, at appropriate points, the main ideas of the narrative conveyed in the text and illustrations.

Ms. Miller asks text-dependent questions to guide the children’s comprehension and critical analysis of the story. She returns to the story with them to locate specific language in the text that addresses these questions:

- What are the school rules in this book?
- Who is the author? Do you think the author believes that it is important to have rules at school and in the classroom? Why?
- What does David think of the rules? Does he think they are important? How do you know?
- What lessons do you think the author wants us to learn about rules that we can apply to our own school?
- Let’s compare the rules in our school with the rules in David’s school. Which are similar and which are different?

Example *(continued)*

To further develop students' critical thinking, Ms. Miller asks students to reflect on the rules in their own classroom. She refers to the posted list of classroom rules that the children helped develop early in the school year and encourages brief, small-group conversations to consider whether any rules need to be changed or added. What rules in our classroom would you like to add? Why? What rules in our classroom would you like to change? Why?

Knowing that some of the children need scaffolding to convey their thoughts, she provides an optional sentence frame: "We should add/change _____ as a rule because _____."

(Ms. Miller considers adding or changing one of the classroom rules so that the children recognize that their input has impact.)

CA HSS Content Standard: K.1

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RL.K.1–3; SL.K.1–2

Students further their study of good citizenship by learning about people who exhibit honesty, courage, determination, individual responsibility, respect for the rights of others, and patriotism in American and world history. Teachers may introduce students to important historical figures who exhibit these traits by reading biographies such as *Now and Ben: The Modern Inventions of Benjamin Franklin* by Gene Baretta; *Harvesting Hope: The Story of Cesar Chavez* by Kathleen Krull; *The Story of Ruby Bridges* by Robert Coles; *Clara and Davie* [a story of Clara Barton] by Patricia Polacco; and *Malala: A Brave Girl from Pakistan/Iqbal: A Brave Boy from Pakistan* by Jeanette Winter. They can use such biographies to illustrate decisions that those people made.

Stories, fairy tales, and nursery rhymes that incorporate conflict and raise value issues that are both interesting and understandable to young students are effective tools for citizenship education. Students deepen their understanding of good citizenship by identifying the behavior of characters in the stories. They observe the effect of this behavior on others, examine why characters behaved as they did, and consider whether other choices could have changed the results. These collaborative conversations are intended to help them acquire those values of deliberation, informed decision making, and individual responsibility that are consistent with good citizenship in a democratic nation. A few examples of such

stories are “Jack and the Beanstalk,” “Goldilocks and the Three Bears,” selections from *Aesop’s Fables*, Margot Friego’s *Tortillitas para Mama*, Helen Lester’s *Me First*, Gary Soto’s *Too Many Tamales*, and Virginia Hamilton’s *The People Could Fly*.

National and State Symbols

Kindergarten students explore the strands of national identity and cultural literacy by learning about national and state symbols in Standard K.2, using the question **What does it mean to be American?** Students may investigate the importance of national and state symbols such as the national and state flags, the bald eagle, and the Statue of Liberty and how those symbols relate to America’s cultural and national identity. Students begin to discover the values and principles in these symbols by examining photographs, artwork, poems, as well as literature and informational texts. The teacher may choose to integrate this standard with Standards K.6.1 and K.6.2 and create a larger unit on national symbols, holidays, and important Americans. Literature such as *America the Beautiful* by Katherine Lee Bates; *Fireworks, Picnics, and Flags* by Jim Giblin; and *Purple Mountain Majesties* by Barbara Younger can engage students and develop their understanding of the standards. In addition, songs such as “America the Beautiful,” “The Star-Spangled Banner,” and Woody Guthrie’s “This Land Is Your Land” all support student engagement and learning.

Work Now and Long Ago

In Standard K.3, students learn about the different types of jobs and work performed by people in their school and local community. This standard may be integrated with Standard K.4; as students construct school and neighborhood maps and talk about neighborhood structures such as the fire station, supermarkets, houses, banks, and hospitals, the jobs and workers can be introduced as well. As students learn about daily life in the past in Standard K.6, they may investigate ways in which work and jobs have changed or remained the same over time by answering the prompt **How are our lives different from those who lived in the past? How are they the same?** The teacher should provide prompting and support as students analyze multiple sources, including primary-source photographs, picture books, and informational books for young readers such as Vicki Yates’s *Life at Work (Then and Now)*. Students should understand that one purpose of school is

to develop their skills and knowledge and that this is as important as any job in the community. Working collaboratively to do tasks, students can practice problem solving, conflict resolution, and taking personal responsibility.

Geography of the Neighborhood

Students begin the study of geography by exploring the immediate environment of the school and their neighborhood, including its topography, streets, transportation systems, structures, and human activities, in Standard K.4 using the question **What is our neighborhood like?** Teachers guide students'



investigations of their surroundings with questions about familiar features of the environment, where they can be found, and how maps can be used to locate them. Students demonstrate spatial concepts and skills by using a variety of materials such as large building blocks, wood, tools, toys, and other recycled objects to construct neighborhood structures. Such group activities become important beginnings

of map work for young students. Students are encouraged to build neighborhoods and landscapes and to incorporate such structures as fire stations, airports, houses, banks, hospitals, supermarkets, harbors, and transportation lines. As a result of these activities, students are made aware of how stairs and curbs in their neighborhood pose physical barriers for people with mobility impairments such as those who use wheelchairs. Picture files, stories, and informational texts should be used to deepen students' understanding about the places they are creating and the work that is done in these places. Literature such as *The Listening Walk* by Paul Showers, or *Barrio: Jose's Neighborhood* by George Ancona, featuring photos of a Latino neighborhood in San Francisco, may be used to pique students' interest in exploring their environment.

Exploring the environment surrounding their school today and discussing how it is different than when the school was built focuses students on the fact that people in earlier times used many of the same goods and ecosystem services that

are used today, such as lumber, water, and food. They discover that in earlier times, people more directly consumed the goods and ecosystem services from natural systems rather than obtaining them from sources like grocery stores and lumberyards (see appendix G for California Environmental Principle II). Having students reflect on the management and use of natural resources on their campus provides them with a picture of the way resource use has changed over time (see the California Education and the Environment Initiative [EEI] curriculum unit “Some Things Change and Some Things Stay the Same,” K.4.5–K.6.3).

Time and Chronology

Learning about the calendar, days of the week, and months of the year is an important first step toward understanding time and chronology in Standard K.5. Chronological thinking can be enhanced by constructing timelines of the kindergarten day, practicing sequencing of a story, and learning words such as *first*, *next*, *then*, and *finally* while sequencing story events. In a study of the national symbols, holidays, and times past, the teacher may add selected events and pictures to a large class timeline to further develop students’ sense of chronology.

Reaching Out to Times Past

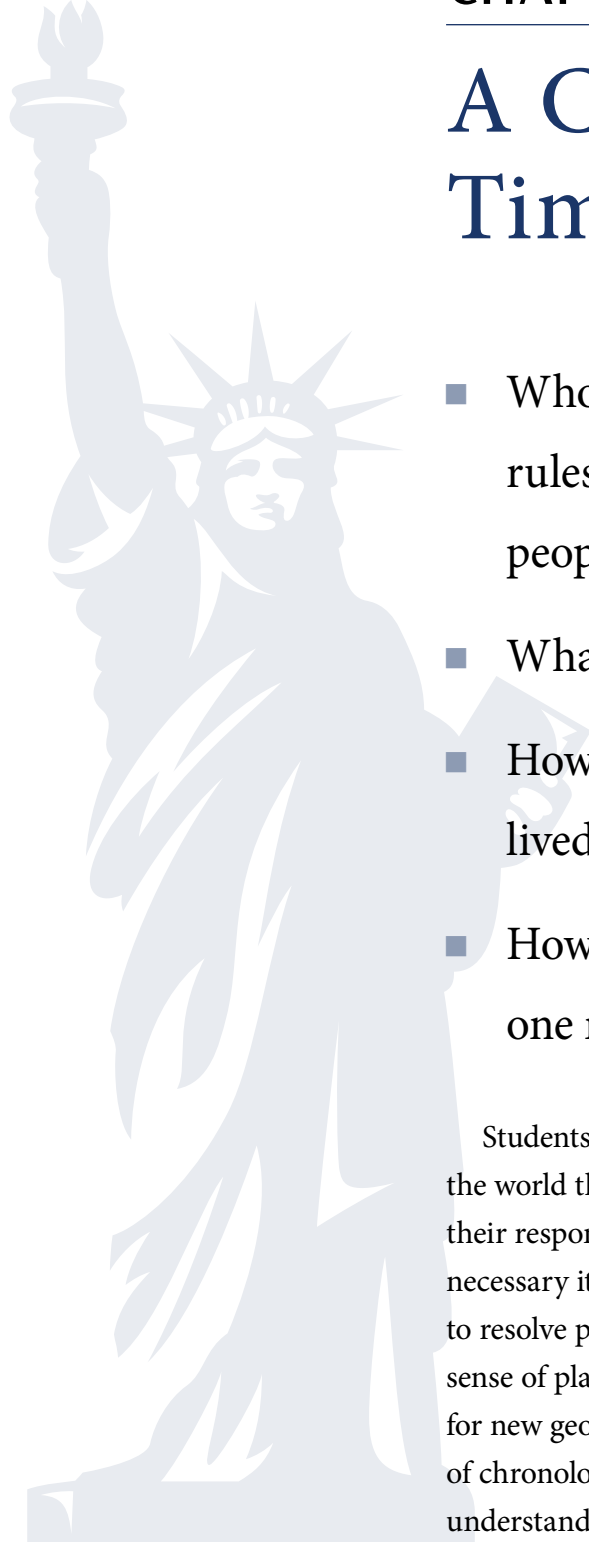
In Standard K.6, students take their first vicarious steps into times past to develop historical literacy and explore the themes of continuity and change. Students learn about national holidays and their purposes, as well as the events associated with them. Teachers may read historical accounts of famous Americans, which further establishes students’ understanding of national identity and cultural literacy.

Students also study the past and consider how life was the same as or different from their lives. For example, students may learn that getting water from a well, growing food and raising livestock, and making clothing are examples of how the past may be different from their lives today. Stories from the *My First Little House Books* series and informational books such as Vicki Yates’s *Life at Home* that illustrate the work and daily lives of characters and people in the past can help students develop historical empathy and understand life in the past. Primary sources can be introduced by using photographs of transportation, homes, work,

common household items, and clothing while questions are posed about which aspects of these items have changed, which have remained the same, and what this reveals about life in the past. Students should be encouraged to engage in discussions and write texts about the similarities and differences of daily life today versus daily life long ago by drawing on evidence from the primary-source photographs, informational texts, and literature books used in their studies.

CHAPTER 4

A Child's Place in Time and Space

- 
- Who is responsible for enforcing the rules? What are the consequences if people choose to break these rules?
 - What is our community like?
 - How is our life different from those who lived in the past, and how is it the same?
 - How do many different people make one nation?

Students in the first grade are ready to learn more about the world they live in, about the choices they make, and about their responsibilities to other people. They begin to learn how necessary it is for people and groups to work together and how to resolve problems through cooperation. Students' expanding sense of place and spatial relationships provides readiness for new geographic learning and a deeper understanding of chronology. Students also are ready to develop a deeper understanding of cultural diversity and to appreciate people

from various backgrounds and ways of life that exist in the larger world that they are now beginning to explore. Students also begin to develop economic and financial literacy as they learn about work in school, in the home, and outside the home, and the exchange of goods and services for money. Students increase their knowledge of cost-benefit analysis by recognizing that choices have consequences. Teachers should also work collaboratively with their colleagues who teach kindergarten and grades two and three to avoid repetition. The content themes they begin in kindergarten—such as understanding of and appreciation for American culture and government, geographic awareness, and (starting in grade one) economic reasoning—serve as a multigrade strand that can allow an extended and relatively in-depth course of study.

The Rights and Responsibilities of Citizenship

Students learn about the values of fair play and good sportsmanship. They learn to respect the rights and opinions of others and build on their understanding of respect for rules by which all must live. Students may discuss the class rules and understand how they were developed. They may also consider the following questions: **Who is responsible for enforcing the rules? What are the consequences if these rules are broken?** Having students solve the social problems and dilemmas that naturally arise in the classroom is a sound strategy. For example, they may discuss how to share scarce supplies, how to treat those who bully students perceived as different, or how best to proceed on a group project when a dilemma arises. In using this approach, students will learn that problems are a normal and recurring feature of social life and that the capacity to examine and solve problems lies within.

Teachers may also introduce value-laden problems for discussion through reading stories and fairy tales that pose dilemmas appropriate for young students, such as Paul Galdone's *The Monkey and the Crocodile*, Lenny Hort's *The Boy Who Held Back the Sea*, and Francisco Jiménez's *La Mariposa*. Through listening to these stories and through the discussions and writing activities that follow, students gain deeper understandings of individual rights and responsibilities as well as social behavior. Throughout these lessons the teacher's purpose is to help students develop those civic values that are important in a democratic society. Students may be given jobs in the classroom. Practicing democratic processes in the classroom helps students learn content and develop social responsibility.

Teachers may illustrate a direct democracy and a representative democracy by demonstrating them in the classroom setting. To learn about a direct democracy, all students can vote on classroom decisions such as which game will be played on a rainy day or which type of math manipulative will be used to build patterns. The class may vote by using different methods (for example, raising hands or casting secret ballots) and then discuss and reflect upon the process and the outcome. Was it important to have everyone vote? The teacher should ensure that students understand that everyone can influence the decision. Allowing students to select classroom leaders or table leaders who will then make classroom decisions is a way to explicitly model a representative democracy. The advantages and disadvantages of these two models can then be discussed with the students to help them develop a beginning understanding of citizenship and government.

Geography of the Community

Students' growing sense of place and spatial relationships makes possible important new geographic learning in grade one. To develop geographic literacy, teachers can build on students' sense of their neighborhood and the places where students regularly go in order to shop, play, and visit. In response to the question **What is our community like?**, students demonstrate their emerging spatial concepts and skills by making a map of their neighborhood, town, and county and then labeling a map with California, the United States, the continents, and oceans. Books such as *Me on the Map* by Joan Sweeney and *Maps and Globes* by Jack Knowlton may be used to teach students about cartography as well as build conceptual knowledge of community, city, state, country, continent, and world.

Students may construct a three-dimensional floor or table map of their immediate geographic region. Such an activity helps develop students' observational skills and spatial relationships and teaches the concepts of absolute and relative locations of people and places. Comparing the floor or table map to a picture map of this same region will help students make the connections between geographic features in the field, three-dimensional models of this region, and two-dimensional pictures or symbolic maps. Students should observe that the picture-symbol map "tells the same story" as the floor model but does so at a smaller scale. The picture-symbol map may also be hung upright without changing the spatial arrangement of these features and without altering their relationships to

one another. For example, when the map is hung upright, the supermarket is still north of the post office. These critical understandings are important in developing reading and interpretation skills with maps.

Finally, students learn how location, weather, and physical environment affect the way people live, including the effects on their food, clothing, shelter, transportation, and recreation. Students may engage in collaborative conversations with classmates as they gather evidence about the way people live in different environments by inspecting primary-source photographs depicting lifestyles in different parts of the world. Informational books such as *Children Just Like Me* by Anabel Kindersley and Barnabas Kindersley; *One World, One Day* by Barbara Kerley; *Houses and Homes* by Ann Morris; and *People Everywhere* by Paul Humphrey allow students to observe people from around the world and to draw conclusions about the effects of the physical environment on ways of living. Teachers may connect the learning about the interactions between the environment and people to Standards 1.5 and 1.6.

Studying a map of California and discussing places where people live lead students to analyze how location, weather, and the physical environment affect where and why people settle in an area. As they explore places where Californians live, students focus on the fact that human communities are generally located near the natural systems that provide the goods and ecosystem services upon which humans depend (See appendix G for California Environmental Principle I). Moreover, student reflection on human populations and consumption rates and the expansion and operation of human communities builds students' understanding of the influence of these activities on the geographic extent and viability of natural systems (Environmental Principle II, California Education and the Environment [EEI] curriculum unit "People and Places: Then and Now," 1.2.4).

Symbols, Icons, and Traditions of the United States

First-grade students deepen their understanding of national identity and cultural literacy by learning about national and state symbols (Standard 1.3). Students learn to recite the Pledge of Allegiance and sing songs that express American ideals (e.g., "You're a Grand Old Flag"). As students participate in shared inquiry, they begin to understand the significance of national holidays and the achievements of the

people associated with them. They also learn to identify and understand American symbols, landmarks, and essential documents, such as the flag, bald eagle, Statue of Liberty, U.S. Constitution, and Declaration of Independence, and know the people, ideas, and events associated with them. Teachers should focus on how these symbols provide a sense of identity for Americans and a sense of community across time and space. Informational texts and literature such as Deborah Kent’s *Lincoln Memorial*, Ann McGovern’s *The Pilgrims’ First Thanksgiving*, Lucille Recht Penner’s *The Statue of Liberty*, and Patricia Ryon Quiri’s *The National Anthem* may be used to answer questions such as **What are some important symbols of the United States?** and **Why are they important?** Students may create a class “big book” of important national symbols by writing informational/explanatory or opinion pieces about these symbols. Teachers may also read to students *The Wall* by Eve Bunting, which helps them to understand the symbolic nature of monuments and how they represent civic values.

Life Today and Long Ago

In Standard 1.4, students learn about times past, especially continuity and change. The focus is to compare different times and different places and how certain aspects of life change over time while some things stay the same. Schools, communities, and transportation of the past provide areas of study that students are familiar with in the present. Teachers may also examine such areas as work, clothing, games, and holidays to compare with the students’ lives today, using the frame **How is our life different from those who lived in the past, and how is it the same?** Informational books and stories such as *My Great Aunt Arizona* by Gloria Houston can help students develop historical empathy and understand life in the past. Primary sources can be introduced by using photographs (and videos or artifacts) of schools, transportation, and clothing.



Grade One Classroom Example: Schools in the Past and Today (Integrated ELA/Literacy and History)

Learning Objective: Children will write an informative/explanatory text about how schools in the past were the same yet different from schools today, supplying details and evidence from multiple sources.

Miss Pham’s first-grade students are exploring the concept of continuity and change by participating in shared research around the following questions:

How are schools from long ago the same as today? How are they different?

First, the students are prompted to return to the “bird’s-eye view map” of the classroom as well as the timelines of the school day that they created as part of earlier social studies units. The students are prompted to review these documents and discuss what school is like for them today in their classroom.

Students analyze several primary-source photographs of schools from the late 1800s courtesy of the Library of Congress, read the informational book *Schools: Then and Now* by Robin Nelson, and participate in a read aloud of the picture book *My Great-Aunt Arizona* by Gloria Houston and Susan Condie Lamb.

Miss Pham asks text-dependent questions of key details to guide the children’s comprehension and critical analysis of the photographs and texts. In addition, Miss Pham does another read of *Schools: Then and Now*, drawing the students’ attention to text features such as photographs, captions, and the index.

Using a whole-class graphic organizer to take notes, Miss Pham and her students return to the photographs and texts to chart information about schools long ago. The students then write down what school is like today.

Students work in small groups, discussing examples and evidence of things that are the same and different about schools in the past. Students are provided with sentence frames while discussing the sources. Then Miss Pham charts the students’ answers on the graphic organizer before asking the students to write a brief informational/explanatory text using the sentence frames.

Example (continued)

- “I see _____ in the photograph. This is the same as today.”
- “One thing about school that is the same is _____. My evidence is _____.”
- One thing that is different is _____. I think that because _____.”

CA HSS Content Standard: 1.4.1

CA HSS Analysis Skills (K–5): Chronological and Spatial Thinking 3

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RI.1.1, 5, 7, 9, W.1.2, 8, SL.1.1, 2

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.1.1, 6, 10

Cultural Literacy: One Nation, Many People

Standard 1.5 focuses on the people from many places, cultures, and religions who live in the United States and who have contributed to its richness. Through contemporary stories as well as folktales and legends, students discover the many ways in which people, families, and cultural groups are alike despite their varied ancestry. Teachers may employ the question **How do many different people make one nation?** and use quality literature such as *Everybody Cooks Rice* by Norah Dooley, *Whoever You Are* by Mem Fox, and Cinderella stories for multiple cultures, such as *Jouannah: A Hmong Cinderella* by Jewell Reinhart Coburn and Tzexa Cherta Lee, to teach and reinforce these concepts.

In developing this unit of study, teachers draw first from the rich fund of literature and folklore from the cultures represented among the families in the classroom and school. Then, as time allows, teachers can introduce literature from other cultures for comparison, emphasizing how American Indians and immigrants have helped to define California and America. Throughout this unit, students should be encouraged to discuss and dramatize these stories and analyze what these stories tell about the culture. Understanding similarities and differences of people from various cultural backgrounds allows students to have increased awareness of the beliefs, customs, and traditions of others.

Economics: Goods and Services

In Standard 1.6, students acquire a beginning understanding of economics. For example, they learn about the use of money to purchase goods and services and about the specialized work that people do to manufacture, transport, and market such goods and services. They learn that people exchange money for the goods and services they want, and because money is limited, people must make choices about how to spend their money. Even first-grade students can understand what *budgets* are and can study how people plan their spending. These topics provide a foundation for later instruction in financial literacy.

This standard can be taught in conjunction with, or build upon, the geographic exploration of the neighborhood and community. Students at this age level learn that the place where they live is interconnected with the wider world. This may include a focus on the trucks and railroad lines that bring products to this neighborhood for eventual sale in its stores; to an industrial region, near or far away, producing one or more needed products, such as bricks and building materials for new home construction or clothing for the stores; and to the airport or regional harbor that links this place with producers, suppliers, and families throughout the world.

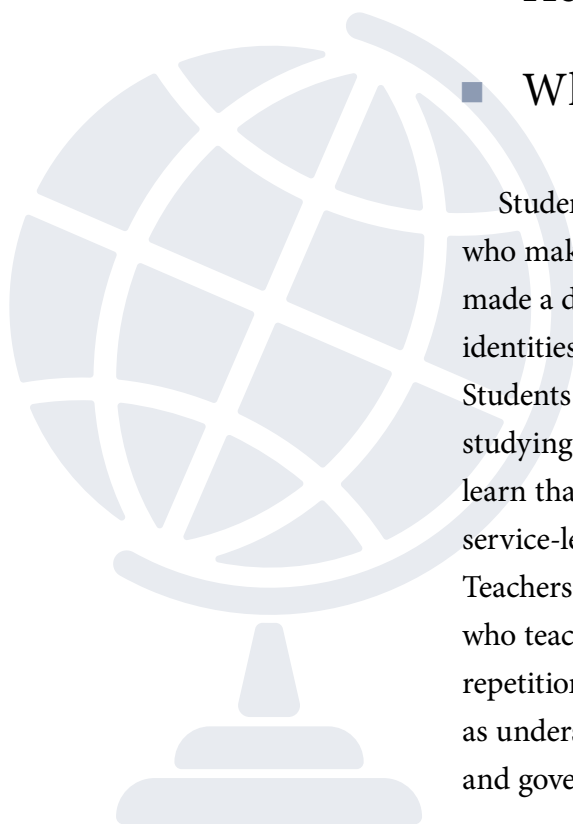
Students may continue their development of analytical skills by identifying the costs of their decisions. They should recognize that a cost is what is given up in gaining something. This fits with the economic concept of exchange. When students trade, they gain something, but they also give up something. What they give up is the cost of the choice. It should be emphasized that each choice has a cost (a simple example is the story of *The Three Little Pigs*, where two of the pigs give up safety for play).

At the same time, students may enjoy informational books and literature that bring these activities alive and that build sensitivity toward the many people who work together to get their jobs done. Stories such as *The Tortilla Factory* by Gary Paulsen illustrate the values of compassion, working together, and perseverance.

CHAPTER 5

People Who Make a Difference

- How do families remember their past?
- Why do people move?
- How can we best describe California?
- How does government work?
- What makes someone heroic?



Students in the second grade are ready to learn about people who make a difference in students' own lives and who have made a difference in the past. They develop their own identities as people who have a place in their communities. Students start their study of people who make a difference by studying the families and people they know. Students then learn that they too can make a difference by engaging in service-learning to improve their schools or communities. Teachers should also work collaboratively with their colleagues who teach kindergarten and grades one and three to avoid repetition. The content themes begun in kindergarten—such as understanding of and appreciation for American culture and government, geographic awareness, and (starting in grade

one) economic reasoning—serve as a multigrade strand that can allow an extended and relatively in-depth course of study.

Families Today and in the Past

In Standard 2.1, students develop a beginning sense of history through the study of the family—a topic that is understandable and interesting to them. Students are introduced to primary sources related to family history, including photographs, family trees, artifacts, and oral histories. In response to the question **How do families remember their past?**, students study the history of a family and may construct a history of their own family, a relative’s or neighbor’s family, or a



family depicted from books. By studying the stories of a diverse collection of families—such as immigrant families, families with lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender parents and their children, families of color, step- and blended families, families headed by single parents, extended families, multigenerational families, families with members having a disability, families from different

religious traditions, and adoptive families—students can both locate themselves and their own families in history and learn about the lives and historical struggles of their peers.

In developing these activities, teachers should not assume any particular family structure and ask questions in a way that will easily include children from diverse family backgrounds. They need to be sensitive to family diversity and privacy and respect the wishes of students and parents who prefer not to participate.

Members of students’ families may be invited to tell about the experiences of their families. Literature and informational texts may be shared to spark inquiry and help students acquire deeper insights into life in the past and the cultures from which the families came; the stories, games, and festivals that parents or grandparents might have enjoyed as children; the work that students as well as their families would have been expected to do; their religious practices; and the

dress, manners, and morals expected of family members at that time. Students are encouraged to compare and contrast their daily lives with those of families who lived in the past. To deepen student understanding and engagement, teachers may have students read *When I Was Little* by Toyomi Igus, *Dear Juno* by Soyung Pak, *The Boy with Long Hair* by Pushpinder (Kaur) Singh, and *In Our Mother's House* by Patricia Polacco.

To develop the concept of chronological thinking, students may construct timelines of their school day and important events in their lives. To culminate this unit of study, teachers may have students interview an older adult or family member about life in the past and then create a timeline of the person's life.

Geography and Mapping Skills: People, Places, and Environments

In Standard 2.2, students learn to describe the absolute and relative locations of people, places, and environments. Students learn to locate specific locations and geographic features in their neighborhood or community by using a simple letter–number grid system. Maps should be utilized frequently to provide practice in the use of map elements such as a title, legend, directional indicator, scale, and date. Students demonstrate their spatial thinking skills and concepts by labeling a North American map with the names of countries, oceans, the Great Lakes, major rivers, and mountain ranges.

Students may utilize world maps to locate places of family origin as part of the study of family history in Standard 2.1 in response to the question **Why do people move?** This activity allows the geographic theme of movement to be explored—why people move from place to place, as well as how and why they made the trip. Students gather evidence about the reasons and ways in which people move, by interviewing family members and neighbors, sharing their interviews with each other, and by reading historical fiction and nonfiction accounts of



immigration experiences. Historical fiction books such as *Watch the Stars Come Out* by Riki Levinson and *The Long Way to a New Land* by Joan Sandin allow students to draw comparisons between their families' immigration stories and those of other people in other times.

Students also compare and contrast basic land use in urban, suburban, and rural environments in California. Maps, photographs, informational books, and Web resources provide evidence of differences in and environmental impacts of land use and help students answer the question **How can we best describe California?** This question may be explored as part of Standard 2.4 with the study of farming and moving food from the farm to the market.

Government Institutions and Practices

In Standard 2.3, students learn about governmental institutions and practices in the United States and other countries. Students continue to develop their understanding of rules and laws, the role of government, and rights and responsibilities by considering the question **How does government work?** To help students deepen their understanding of these concepts, informational books about the way government is organized into three branches, such as *Our Government: The Three Branches* by Shelly Buchanan, may be utilized. Teachers may carry out a classroom simulation of the three branches of government to teach this concept as well as use literature books such as *House Mouse Senate Mouse* and other books in the series by Cheryl Shaw Barnes and Peter W. Barnes that explain the branches of government in a developmentally appropriate manner. To learn the ways in which groups and nations interact with one another and resolve their problems, the teacher may relate these concepts to familial and classroom rules and structures and how problems are solved in these more familiar settings.

Teachers may also discuss situations in which rules are important at home, at school, in the city, in the state, and in the country and then ask students to explain what happens if someone on the playground refuses to play a game according to the rules. Students can select one rule and use language arts skills to create a story about why this rule is important and how life would be different without it. Teachers may discuss school rules with students and how the rules are made. Students use analytic skills to consider such questions as, Is the school too large for everyone to discuss and vote on a decision? Students may discuss the major things

governments do in the school, community, state, and nation and give a basic description of government at the end of the year.

Economics: People Who Supply Goods and Services

Standard 2.4 develops students' economic literacy and appreciation of the many people who work to supply the products they use. This unit emphasizes those who supply food: people who grow and harvest crops such as wheat, vegetables, and fruit; workers who supply dairy products such as milk, butter, and cheese; and processors and distributors who move the food from farm to market. Throughout this study, students learn the basic economic concepts of human wants, scarcity, and choice and the importance of specialization in work today. In addition, students consider the interdependence of consumers, producers, processors, and distributors in bringing food to market. Students also develop an understanding of their roles as consumers in a complex economy. *Ox-Cart Man* by Donald Hall is an engaging book that can help students develop their understanding of economic concepts.

To engage students' interest and develop an understanding of the complex interdependence among the many workers in the food industry and how it functions the way it does, graphic organizers or flowcharts may be used to illustrate these relationships. Climate and geography affect the crops farmers grow and how farmers protect them against frosts or drought, the water supply and how irrigation systems work, and the workforce necessary. Students can observe the many linkages between their homes, the markets that supply their food, the places where people work to produce their food, and the transportation systems that move food from farm to processor to market. Field trips to local businesses and books such as *From Wheat to Pasta* by Robert Egan, *From Cow to Ice Cream* by Bertram T. Knight, or *Farming* by Gail Gibbons are helpful for illustrating the concepts and provide models for students to write their own informational/explanatory texts.



Applying what they know about natural systems and food production, students can focus on strawberries, a major California crop, to learn about the interdependence of producers and consumers in the economic system. (See appendix G for Environmental Principle I; California Education and the Environment Initiative [EEI] curriculum unit “The Dollars and Sense of Food Production,” 2.4.2–2.4.3.)

Biographies of People Who Made a Difference

In Standard 2.5, students will be introduced to the many people, ordinary and extraordinary, who have contributed to their lives and made a difference. The teacher may pose questions such as **What makes someone heroic?** or **Who are some people who have made a difference in our lives?** A picture book such as *Rosa* by Nikki Giovanni introduces students to an ordinary person, Rosa Parks, whose actions made a tremendous difference in the lives of others. Students learn about a variety of men, women, and children whose contributions can be appreciated by young children and whose achievements have directly or indirectly touched the students’ lives or the lives of others. Included, for example, are scientists such as George Washington Carver, Marie Sklodowska Curie, Albert Einstein, Louis Pasteur, Jonas Salk, Charles Drew, and Thomas Edison; athletes such as Jackie Robinson and Wilma Rudolph; humanitarians like Clara Barton, Jane Addams, Henri Dunant, and Florence Nightingale; as well as authors, musicians, and artists. Teachers may read biographies aloud as well as utilize biographies written at a variety of reading levels, such as the Rookie Biography series, for students to read independently. As students meet these heroes from long ago and the recent past, they understand the importance of individual action and character in one’s life. As students identify and discuss the skills and knowledge that helped these people achieve their goals, they have opportunities to cite textual evidence, write informational reports, and create presentations.

Grade Two Classroom Example: Heroes Making a Difference (Designated ELD Connected to History–Social Science)

In social studies, Mr. Torres’s class is learning about the importance of individual action and character and how heroes from long ago and the recent past have made a difference in others’ lives (e.g., Dolores Huerta, Abraham Lincoln, Harriet Tubman, Bella Abzug, Gloria Steinem, Betty Friedan, Yuri Kochiyama, Martin Luther King, Jr.). Mr. Torres takes care to emphasize historical figures that reflect his students’ diverse backgrounds. The class reads biographies of the heroes, views multimedia about them, and discusses the details of their lives and their contributions to society. Ultimately, they will write opinion pieces about a hero they select.

During designated ELD, Mr. Torres selects some of the general academic vocabulary used in many of the biographies to teach his ELs at the Emerging level of English language proficiency during designated ELD. These are words that he would like for students to internalize so that they can use them in their discussions, oral presentations, and writing about the civil rights heroes, and he knows he needs to spend some focused time on the words so that his ELs will feel confident using them. For example, to teach the general academic vocabulary word *courageous*, Mr. Torres reminds the students where they encountered the word (in the biography they read that morning), provides them with a student-friendly definition (e.g., when you’re courageous, you do or say something even though it’s scary), and models how to use the word through multiple examples (e.g., Dolores Huerta was courageous because she protested for people’s rights, even when it was difficult). He then assists the students in using the word in a structured exchange with a prompt that promotes thinking and discussion (e.g., How are you courageous at school? Be sure to provide a good example to support your opinion). He provides a strategically designed open sentence frame that contains the general academic word so that students will be sure to use it meaningfully (e.g., At school, I’m *courageous* when _____). He prompts the students to share their responses in pairs and then to ask one another follow-up questions that begin with the words *why*, *when*, *what*, *who*, and *how*.

Example *(continued)*

In social studies and English language arts, Mr. Torres intentionally uses the same words he is teaching his students during designated ELD so that his EL students will hear the words used in multiple situations. He encourages the students to use the words in their speaking and writing about the heroes they learn about.

CA ELD Standards (Emerging): ELD.PI.2.1, 5, 11, 12b; ELD.PII.2.5

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: SL.2.6, L.2.5, 6

CA HSS Content Standard: 2.5

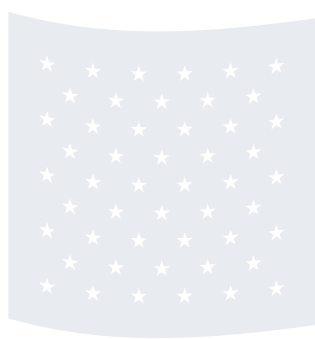
Students can also make a difference. They may work together in groups to brainstorm problems that exist at their school and in their community, such as litter or bullying. Students can evaluate and vote on a solution, which (for litter) might include hosting a clean-up day, increasing goals for recycling, or working to change a rule. Students can create a plan and work in teams to carry it out. Together they can then evaluate their effectiveness. For example, is there less litter on campus? Teachers can invite community members who are making a difference on issues important in the students' lives as guest speakers or partners in student projects to make their communities a better place to live. By meeting local "heroes," students will have role models from their own communities who are making a difference.



CHAPTER 6

Continuity and Change

- Why did people settle in California?
- Who were the first people in my community?
- Why did people move to my community?
- How has my community changed over time?



- What is the U.S. Constitution, and why is it important?
- How can I help my community?
- What issues are important to my community?

Third-graders prepare for learning California history in the fourth grade and United States history in the fifth grade by thinking about continuity and change in their local community. In exploring their local community, students have an opportunity to make contact with times past and with the people whose activities have left their mark on the land. Students ask questions, read and analyze texts, including primary and secondary sources, engage in speaking and listening activities, and write a variety of texts.

In third grade, students build on their knowledge of geography, civics, historical thinking, chronology, and national identity. The emphasis is on understanding how some things change and others remain the same. To understand changes occurring today, students explore the ways in which their locality continues to evolve and how they can contribute to improvement of their community.

Finally, teachers introduce students to the great legacy of local, regional, and national traditions that provide common memories and a shared sense of cultural and national identity. Students who have constructed a family history in grade two are now ready to think about constructing a history of the place where they live today. With sensitivity toward children from transient families, teachers may ask students to recall how the decision of their parents or grandparents to move to this place made an important difference in their families' lives. Discovering who these people were, when they lived here, and how they used the land gives students a focus for grade three. Teachers should also work collaboratively with their colleagues who teach kindergarten and grades one and two to avoid repetition. The content themes they begin in kindergarten, such as understanding of and appreciation for American culture and government, geographic awareness, and (starting in grade one) economic reasoning, serve as a multigrade strand that can allow an extended and relatively in-depth course of study.

Geography of the Local Region

Throughout California, the geographic setting has had important effects on where and how localities developed. Students begin their third-grade studies with the natural landscape as a foundation for analyzing why and how people settled in particular places in response to the question **Why did people settle in California?** In pursuing the question, teachers may utilize a variety of primary and secondary sources such as photographs, Internet resources, DVDs, and field

trips to establish students' familiarity with the major natural features and landforms of their county and California, including mountains, valleys, hills, coastal areas, oceans, lakes, and desert landscapes. As students observe, describe, and compare these features, they learn to differentiate between major landforms and begin to consider the interaction between these features and human activity.

The teacher can initiate inquiries into human–environment interaction by using literature such as *A River Ran Wild* by Lynne Cherry and *River Town* by Bonnie and Arthur Geisert. In conducting research for this activity, students learn the types of major landforms in the landscape and develop an understanding of the physical setting in which their region's history has unfolded.

Focusing on a California natural regions map and reader, students can research the ecosystems found near them, the resources provided by these ecosystems, and the ways people use them. They investigate the goods and services provided by these ecosystems and how they are used to support human communities (see appendix G for Environmental Principle I; California Education and the Environment Initiative [EEI] curriculum unit “The Geography of Where We Live,” 3.1.1–3.1.2).

American Indians of the Local Region

In Standard 3.2, students study the American Indians who lived or continue to live in their local region, how they used the resources of this region, and in what ways they modified the natural environment. It is most appropriate that American Indians who lived in the region be authentically presented, including their tribal identity; their social organization and customs; the location of their villages and the reasons for settlement; the structures they built and the relationship of these structures to the climate; the methods they used to get their food, clothing, tools, and utensils and whether they traded with others for any of these things; and their art and folklore. Local California Indian tribes and organizations are important sources of information for describing how indigenous cultures have persisted through time. Teachers may invite local California Indian representatives to share cultural information and help students understand **Who were the first people in my community?** Museums that specialize in California Indian cultures are rich sources of publications, pictures, and artifacts that can help students appreciate the daily lives and the adaptation of these cultures to the environment of the geographic region.

Working with maps of natural regions and Indian tribes, students can describe ways in which physical geography, including climate, affected the natural resources on which California Indian nations depended. Investigating the plants and animals used by local Indians, students explain how Indians adapted to their natural environment so that they could harvest, transport, and consume resources (see appendix G for Environmental Principle I, California EEI curriculum unit “California Indian People: Exploring Tribal Regions,” 3.2.2).

Development of the Local Community: Change Over Time

Students are now ready to participate in shared-inquiry projects about people who migrated or immigrated to their region and the impact of each new group. The teacher may begin the unit by exploring why people move and settle in particular places by posing the question **Why did people move to my community?** The bilingual picture book *My Diary from Here to There* by Amada Irma Pérez, which recounts the move of one family from Mexico to Southern California for economic reasons, may be used to develop conceptual knowledge of push-and-pull factors. Students can investigate when their families moved to the local region and what brought them here, placing these events on a class timeline. Then the sequence of historical events associated with the development of the community can be explored.



Students may develop a community timeline by illustrating these events and placing these illustrations in sequence with a caption under each. Depending on the local history, this sequence may include the explorers who visited the area; the newcomers who settled there; the economy they established; their impact on the American Indians of the region; and their lasting marks on the landscape,

including the buildings, streets, political boundaries, names, and the rich legacy of cultural traditions that newcomers have brought with them.

For example, students may compare how Asian Lunar New Year is celebrated in their local communities and how it connects people today to traditions from the past. These types of classroom discussions and fun activities will help build a greater sense of community and understanding.

Students observe how their community has changed over time and why certain features have remained the same, in response to the question **How has my community changed over time?** *The House on Maple Street* by Bonnie Pryor demonstrates how a place changes over 300 years. This book may be used to introduce the study of students' local community. Primary sources, secondary sources, and other informational text specific to their local region can deepen students' appreciation for and understanding of their community.

To better understand how communities function, students compare the kinds of transportation people used, the ways in which people provided water for their growing community and farmlands, the sources of power, and the kinds of work people engaged in long ago. They discover that the changing history of their locality was, at all stages, closely related to the physical geography of this region: its topography, soil, water, mineral resources, and relative location.

Students can analyze how successive groups of settlers have made different uses of the land, depending on their skills, technology, and values. Students may observe how each period of settlement in their locality left its mark on the land and predict how decisions made today in their communities will impact their communities in the future. Through this focus on place, students also deepen their understanding of California's environment (see appendix G).

To bring earlier times alive, teachers may provide students with historical photos to observe the changes in the ways families lived, worked, played, dressed, and traveled. Primary sources, such as maps and photographs, can be utilized to observe how a given place, such as Main Street, looked long ago and how it looks today.



Students can compare changes in their community with picture displays provided by the teacher. Students can write explanatory texts about the changes over time, using evidence from multiple visual or print sources to support their ideas.

The local community newspaper, libraries, the historical society, or other community organizations often can provide photos and articles on earlier events in the region. When available, old maps can be a source of discoveries: the location of the early ranchos that once occupied California; how people constructed streets in an earlier day and how many of the street names survive today; how boundaries have changed over the years and how settlements have grown; how once-open fields have changed to dense urban development; how a river or coastline has changed in location or size because of a dam constructed upstream, a great earthquake in the past, or breakwaters that have been built to change the action of the sea.

American Citizens, Symbols, and Government

Third-grade students continue preparing to become active and responsible citizens of their communities, of California, and the United States. In this unit, students focus on developing and understanding citizenship, civic engagement, the basic structure of government, and the lives of famous national and local Americans who took risks to secure freedoms. Through stories and the celebration of local and national holidays, students learn the meaning of holidays, landmarks, and the symbols that provide continuity and a sense of community across time. The U.S. Constitution and the Declaration of Independence are reintroduced; students may investigate questions such as **What is the U.S. Constitution?** and **Why is it important?** By using informational books such as *A More Perfect Union: The Story of Our Constitution* by Betsy Maestro and Giulio Maestro or *The U.S. Constitution* by Norman Pearl, students study the origin and content of this document.

Students can discuss the responsibilities of citizens, make a list, or create an illustration of what is considered a “good citizen.” They can also study how this notion has changed over time: For example, how did children living on farms in the nineteenth century imagine citizenship? How did this change for children in the early twentieth century who worked in factories? What are the similarities and differences?

Students learn about the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government, especially the local government. Teachers may also use informational texts such as *How the U.S. Government Works* by Syl Sobel as well as information from local, state, and federal government Web sites, such as <http://www.Kids.gov>, to help students understand the functions of government and the people who are part of each level and branch. Students can also write a classroom constitution. In a discussion of what to include, teachers may ask questions such as the following: Should the constitution protect your rights? Should your responsibilities as citizens be included? To explore the judicial branch of the government, teachers may use literature and role plays by reading *The True Story of the Three Little Pigs* by Jon Scieszka and holding a mock trial of Pig Brothers versus A. Wolf.

Grade Three Classroom Example: Classroom Constitution (Integrated ELA and History–Social Science)

Each year, Ms. Barkley begins the school year by welcoming her students and orienting them to the culture and organization of the classroom. In collaboration with the students, she creates a class list of norms everyone would like to observe in the classroom and beyond. These norms include rules for behavior and consequences for violations. This year she decides to use the rule-making process as an opportunity to develop students' civic knowledge, skills, and dispositions. She wants them to understand the democratic principles of the American way of life and to apply those principles, as informed and actively engaged citizens of their classroom, to create a class set of rules they will agree to follow. She engages students in a unit of study that begins with a lively class discussion about the importance of rules and laws by asking:

- What are rules? What are laws?
- Why are rules and laws important?
- What would happen if there were no rules or laws?
- Who makes the rules and laws in school, in our city, our state and our nation?
- Who decides what the rules and laws are?

Example *(continued)*

From there Ms. Barkley launches students into close readings of children’s versions of the U.S. Constitution and informational texts about the Founding Fathers. They will learn about and discuss the reasons for the U.S. Constitution; the democratic principles of freedom, justice, and equality; and the role and responsibility of government to represent the voice of the people and to protect the rights of individuals. They will also learn about the individual rights of citizens and the responsibility of citizens to be engaged, informed, and respectful of others. Ms. Barkley knows that these ideas and concepts lay the groundwork for students to understand the foundations of governance and democratic values in a civil society. It will also inform their thinking as young, engaged citizens to create a Classroom Constitution that is relevant to children in the third grade.

As they read and discuss the texts, Ms. Barkley asks the students questions such as the following:

- Why was it important for the Founding Fathers to write the Constitution?
- Why is it important to have rules and laws?

Ms. Barkley invites students to apply their learning to their real-world classroom setting. She explains that just as the Founding Fathers created a Constitution to establish the law of the land, the students in her class will work together to write a Classroom Constitution to create a safe and supportive environment where everyone can learn. She asks students to begin by working individually to think about the kinds of rules they would like to see observed in their classroom and to write these ideas in a list. She also asks them to think about what they read about the principles of the U.S. Constitution and consider why the rules they write are important for upholding the kind of behavior that will create a positive classroom culture and what might happen to that culture if the rules are broken. Afterwards, each table group records individual members’ ideas in a group graphic organizer such as the following example.

Example (continued)

What is the rule?	Why is it important to have this rule?	Is this rule constitutional? Does this rule uphold our classroom principles of freedom, justice, and equality?	What should be the consequence of breaking the rule?
-------------------	--	--	--

A lively discussion takes place in small groups, and students revise and add to their individual work as they wish during group time. Then Ms. Barkley engages the entire class in a discussion to compile and synthesize the rules and create student-friendly statements. She records them on chart paper so that the list can be posted in the classroom for future reference. The children are invited to discuss the benefits and challenges of each rule by recounting an experience and/or providing details and evidence to support their position. Ms. Barkley encourages them to ask and answer questions of one another for clarification or elaboration. After sufficient time for deliberation, the list of rules and consequences is finalized through an election process. Ms. Barkley posts the Classroom Constitution in a prominent place in the classroom, as well as on the school Web site.

Later Ms. Barkley engages her students in writing an opinion essay in response to this prompt: **Why is it important for the students in our class to follow our Classroom Constitution?** She will provide ongoing guidance and opportunities for students to share, revise, and finalize their work. A rubric for opinion essays developed collaboratively in advance helps guide students as they engage in the writing process. The essays are compiled and published as a book for the classroom library: *Why Rules in Our Classroom Democracy Are Important*.

Example *(continued)***Resources**

The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards, National Council for the Social Studies, 2013.

The Constitution for Kids: <http://www.usconstitution.net/constkidsK.html>.

Education for Democracy, California Civic Education Scope & Sequence, Los Angeles County Office of Education, 2003.

Preparing Students for College, Career and CITIZENSHIP: A California Guide to Align Civic Education and the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science and Technical Subjects, Los Angeles County Office of Education 2011.

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RI.3.1; W.3.1, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10; SL.3.1–6; L.3.1–6

CA HSS Content Standards: 3.4.1, 3.4.2, 3,4,6

CA HSS Analysis Skills (K–5): Historical Interpretation 1, 3

Students also learn about American heroes on the national level, such as Anne Hutchinson, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, Frederick Douglass, Harriet Tubman, Clara Barton, Eleanor Roosevelt, and Martin Luther King, Jr., as well as leaders from all walks of life who have helped to solve community problems, worked for better schools, or improved living conditions and lifelong opportunities for workers, families, women, and students. By considering the question **How can I help my community?**, students can research accounts of local students, as well as adults, who have been honored locally for the special courage, responsibility, and concern they have displayed in contributing to the safety, welfare, and happiness of others.

Students may read biographies or engage in an inquiry project focused on these national and local citizens by reading primary sources, informational books, and historical fiction such as *Separate Is Never Equal: Sylvia Mendez and Her Family's Fight for Desegregation* by Duncan Tonatiuh. The book recounts one family's involvement in the fight to desegregate schools in California.

Teachers may invite a local leader to visit the classroom through the Chamber of Commerce, local government, or a local nonprofit organization. Students

interview the leader about a local problem (for example, homelessness or hunger) and how he or she is helping the community (for example, a food bank, a soup kitchen, or a new law). The speaker may be asked to describe how students might help and what it means to be a citizen. Students work together to plan a class project, such as a food drive, a recycling program, a clothing drive, or writing letters to propose or oppose a law, in order to address the problem.

Economics of the Local Region: Choices, Costs, and Human Capital

Students should continue developing their cost-benefit skills and recognize the importance of education in developing their human capital. Students learn to identify some important issues in their immediate community and may engage in an inquiry project or service-learning project related to one of these issues, in response to the question **What issues are important to my community?** Informed volunteers in community service or elected officials may be invited to describe some of the arguments on different sides of an important issue facing the community. Children's literature such as *Almost Zero* by Nikki Grimes, *A Chair for My Mother* by Vera Williams, *When Bees Fly Home* by Andrea Cheng, and *A Day's Work* by Eve Bunting, as well as informational books, are valuable resources for introducing and developing economic concepts.

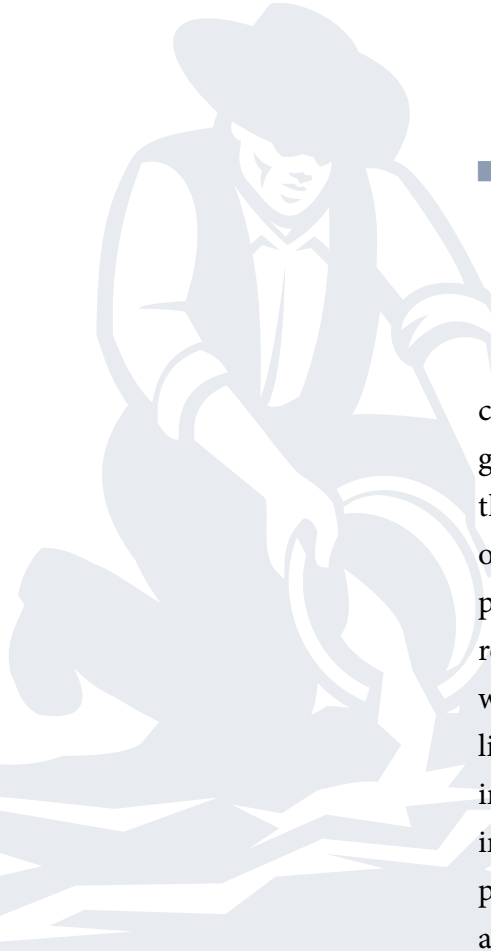


This page is left blank intentionally.

CHAPTER 7

California: A Changing State

- Why did different groups of immigrants decide to move to California?
- What were their experiences like when they settled in California?
- How did the region become a state, and how did the state grow?



The history of California is rich with ethnic, social, and cultural diversity; economic energy; geographic variety; and growing civic community. The study of California history in the fourth grade provides students with foundational opportunities to learn in depth about their state, including the people who live here, and how to become engaged and responsible citizens. California’s history also provides students with the opportunity to develop important language and literacy skills and to learn that history is an exciting, investigative discipline. As students participate in investigations about the past, they will learn to identify primary sources, understand them as a product of their time and perspective, and put them in a comparative context.

Students will also learn to make claims (through writing and speaking) about sources and how to use textual evidence to support a claim.

The story of California begins in pre-Columbian times, in the cultures of the American Indians who lived here before the first Europeans arrived. The history of California then becomes the story of successive waves of immigrants from the sixteenth century through modern times and the enduring marks each left on the character of the state. Throughout their study of California history, students grapple with questions to understand the impact of (im)migration to California. **Why did different groups of immigrants decide to move to California? What were their experiences like when they settled in California? How were they treated when they arrived in California?** These immigrants include (1) the Spanish explorers, Indians from northern Mexico, Russians, and the Spanish–Mexican settlers of the mission and rancho period, known as *Californios*, who introduced European plants, agriculture, and a herding economy to the region; (2) the Americans who settled in California, established it as a state, and developed mining, trade in animal hides, industries, and an agricultural economy; (3) the Chinese, Japanese, Koreans, Filipinos, South Asians (predominantly Sikhs), and other immigrants of the second half of the nineteenth century and the early decades of the twentieth who provided a new supply of labor for California’s railroads, agriculture, and industry and contributed as entrepreneurs and innovators, especially in agriculture; (4) the immigrants of the twentieth century, including new arrivals from Latin America and Europe; and (5) the many immigrants arriving today from Latin America, the nations of the Pacific Basin and Europe, and the continued migration of people from other parts of the United States.

Because of their early arrival in the New World, primarily because of the slave trade, people of African descent have been present throughout much of California’s history, contributing to the Spanish exploration of California, the Spanish–Mexican settlement of the region, and California’s subsequent development throughout the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

To bring California’s history, geography, diverse society, and economy to life for students and to promote respect and understanding, teachers emphasize its people in all their ethnic, racial, gender, and cultural diversity. Fourth-grade students learn about the daily lives, adventures, accomplishments, cultural traditions, and dynamic energy of the residents who formed the state and shaped its varied

landscape. There are multiple opportunities for students to learn what citizenship means by exploring the people and structures that define their state.

In grade four, emphasis is also placed on the regional geography of California. Students analyze how regions of the state have developed through the interaction of physical characteristics, cultural forces, and economic activity and how the landscape of California has provided different resources to different people at different times, from the earliest era to the present. Through an understanding of maps, geographic information, and quantitative analysis, students should come away from their California history course with an understanding of the important interactions between people and their environment.

Finally, students will be able to develop chronological thinking by creating and utilizing timelines that document events and developments that changed the course of California history such as pre-Columbian settlements, European settlement, the mission period, the Mexican-American War, the Bear Flag Republic, the Gold Rush, California's admission to statehood in 1850, and the state's rapid growth in the twentieth century. Most importantly, as students delve into various topics and inquiries throughout the year, they should be encouraged to see the big picture and understand a broader historical context rather than simply understanding discrete events and people as isolated features of the past.

Teachers can facilitate a broader contextual explanation of California's history by asking investigative and interpretive questions over the course of the year. Questions may include **When did California grow?** This question can be explained in demographic, geographic, and economic terms. Students may also consider fundamental questions that help define and understand their home, such as **Who lived in California? Who led California? and How did the region change when it became a state?**

Physical and Human Geographic Features That Define California

- How do climate and geography vary throughout the state? How do these features affect how people live?

By the fourth grade, students' geographic skills have advanced to the point where they can use maps to identify latitude and longitude, the poles and

hemispheres, and plot locations using coordinates. Students locate California on the map and analyze its location on the western edge of North America, separated from the more densely settled parts of the American heartland by mountains and wide desert regions, and understand that California, like much of the West, is arid; fresh water is a scarce commodity. They learn to identify the mountain ranges, major coastal bays and natural harbors, and expansive river valleys and delta regions that are a part of the setting that has attracted settlement for tens of thousands of years.



During their study of California history, students will use maps, charts, and pictures to describe how California communities use the land and adapt to it in different ways. As they examine California’s physical landscape, students should be encouraged to ask and answer questions about the role of geographic features in shaping settlement patterns, agricultural development, urbanization, and

lifestyle in the state. For example, students can investigate the relationship between climate and geography and day-to-day human activity with questions like these: **How does the natural environment affect the type of house you build and how many neighbors you have?** or **How does the environment affect the type and quantity of food you eat?**

The study of geography is a natural place to integrate technology into the classroom. Students may use Google Earth to zoom in to view regions and landmarks or annotate a map of California with their ongoing notes about geographic features with an app such as ThingLink.

Teachers who wish to design interdisciplinary or problem-based learning units may connect the study of geography to the *Next Generation Science Standards* through an essential question: **How do natural resources, climate, and landforms affect how plants, animals, and people live?** As students study the major regions of California, they might also explore how rainfall helps to shape the land and affects the types of living things found in a region.

Pre-Columbian Settlements and People

- What was life like for native Californians before other settlers arrived?
- How did the diverse geography and climate affect native people?

California has long been home to American Indian peoples; there is archaeological evidence of indigenous populations extending back to at least 9,000 years BCE. The area they inhabited was home to the widest range of environmental diversity in North America, from rainy redwood forests in the north, arid deserts in the east, a cooler Mediterranean climate along the coast, prairie grassland in the Central Valley, and the “cold forest” climate of the Sierra Nevada.

In 1768, approximately 300,000 Indians lived in California. Like the natural environment, the native population was also remarkably diverse, partly because of the region’s challenging topography, which made it difficult for people to travel great distances and thus kept many groups isolated. For example, at least 90 different languages were spoken by California Indians. Housing varied dramatically and usually reflected the local environment, from sturdy redwood structures in the northwest, to homes constructed from bulrushes (tule) in the southern central valley or redwood bark and pine in the foothills.

Although many tribes lived in small, dispersed villages, there were examples of relatively high population density, such as settlements of up to 1,000 people living along the Santa Barbara coast. To develop students’ understanding of how the geography and climate impacted the lives of the California Indians, a teacher might pose a question: **Why did the houses of the California Indians vary so much?** The teacher might identify two regions such as the northwest and the Southern California desert and ask students to examine a variety of maps—including physical, rainfall, and natural resources—and make inferences about the types of homes that might have been built in that area using the maps as evidence. The students can then continue their investigation by reading a variety of available sources to corroborate their interpretation.

Students learn about the social organization, beliefs, and economic activities of California Indians. Tribes were not unified politically; kinship was the most important form of social organization, with many communities organized through patrilineal lineage. Social life for many California Indians centered on the *temescal*,

or sweathouse, where men gathered in the evenings for several hours often with ritual purposes before hunts or ceremonies.

Shamanism, or the belief in spiritual healing, was nearly universal among California Indians, though their uses and specialties varied by region. In the north, for example, shamans were often women; whereas, in other parts of the state, they were usually men. Some shamans specialized as snake doctors and treated rattlesnake bites. Other shamans were known as bear doctors, who dressed themselves in bearskins and claimed to literally transform themselves into a much feared and admired grizzly who sniped at opposing groups. Studying California Native cultures through art can be engaging and helpful for students, but teachers should exercise caution in role-playing, simulations, and drama. These sorts of activities can easily be perceived as insensitive.

Most California Indians practiced hunting and gathering because the natural environment offered a rich abundance of food; few engaged in horticulture. However, the tribes did have an impact on the natural environment. Students study the extent to which early people of California depended on, adapted to, and modified the physical environment through controlled burning to remove underbrush, cultivation and replanting of gathered wild plants, and the use of sea and river resources.

In their study of indigenous peoples, students can consider the complex relationship of humans with the natural environment. A question for students to consider may be derived from Environmental Principle I of the California Education and the Environment Initiative (EEI): **What natural resources are necessary to sustain human life?** Contemporary cities and densely settled areas frequently are located in the same areas as these early American Indian settlements, especially on the coasts where rivers meet the sea. In analyzing how geographic factors have influenced the location of settlements then and now, students have an opportunity to observe how the past and the present may be linked by similar dynamics. (For additional resources, see the California EEI curriculum unit “California Indian Peoples and Management of Natural Resources,” 4.2.1; see appendix G for the Education and the Environment principles and concepts.)

European Exploration and Colonial History

- Why did Europeans come to California?
- How did European explorers change the region?
- How did the region’s geography impact settlement?

In this unit, students learn about the Spanish exploration of the New World and the colonization of New Spain. They review the motives for colonization, including rivalries with other imperial powers such as Britain and Russia, which brought Spanish soldiers and missionaries northward from Mexico City to Alta California. Timelines and maps that illustrate trends and turning points during these years can help students develop a sense of chronology and geography. Timelines can be especially helpful in highlighting significant gaps between the years of initial exploration and later permanent efforts at Spanish colonization.



The stories of Junipero Serra, Juan Crespi, Juan Bautista de Anza, Gaspar de Portolá, and Juan Cabrillo are told as part of this narrative. Students learn about the presence of African and Filipino explorers and soldiers in the earliest Spanish expeditions by sea and land. The participation of Spaniards, Mexicans, Indians from northern Mexico, and Africans in the founding of the Alta California settlements are also noted.

Students can use the stories of individual explorers and settlers to connect to broader historical questions and themes such as the following ones: **Why did Europeans come to California? What was the region like when they arrived?** and **How did they change it?** In mapping the routes and settlements of these diverse explorers, students observe that access to California was difficult because of the physical barriers of mountains, deserts, and ocean currents and the closing of land routes by Indians defending their territories from foreigners.

Missions, Ranchos, and the Mexican War for Independence

- Why did Spain establish missions? And how did they gain control?
- How were people's lives affected by missions?
- How did the region change because of the mission system?

After studying both indigenous life in California and the motives and practices of European explorers to the New World, students investigate what happens when two different cultures intersect: **What impact did this encounter have upon Native peoples, Spanish missionaries and military, the Spanish–Mexican settler population, and California's natural environment?**

To secure the northwestern frontier of New Spain, King Charles III began colonizing California in 1769. While soldiers arrived to defend the territory, Franciscan missionaries came to convert native peoples to Christianity. Missions initially attracted many Indians, who were impressed by the pageantry, material wealth, and abundant food of the Catholic Church. Over time, as Spanish livestock depleted traditional food sources and the presence of the Spanish disrupted Indian village life, many other Indians arrived at the missions seeking a reliable food supply. Once Indians converted to Catholicism, missionaries and *presidio* soldiers conspired to forcibly keep the Indians in residence at the missions. In addition to their agricultural labor at the missions, Indians contracted with *presidio* commanders to build *presidio* fortresses. Cattle ranches and civilian *pueblos* were developed around missions, often built by forced Indian labor. Spanish culture, religion, and economic endeavors—combined with indigenous peoples and practices—all converged to shape the developing society and environment during Spanish-era California.

With so few colonists, Spanish authorities believed they could transform Indian peoples into loyal Spanish subjects by converting them to Christianity, introducing them to Spanish culture and language, and intermarriage. The introduction of Christianity affected native peoples, many of whom combined Catholicism with their own belief systems. Vastly outnumbered by native peoples, missionaries relied on some Indian leaders to help manage the economic, religious, and social activities of the missions. Colonists introduced European plants, agriculture, and a

pastoral economy based mainly on cattle. (This unit of study may allow teaching of the Environmental Principles and Concepts [see appendix G]). Under the guidance of *Fray Junipero Serra*, 54,000 Indians became baptized at the missions where they spent anywhere from two to fifty weeks each year, laboring to sustain the missions.

The historical record of this era remains incomplete due to the limited documentation of Native testimony. However, it is clear that even though missionaries brought agriculture, the Spanish language and culture, and Christianity to the native population, American Indians suffered in many California missions. The death rate was extremely high; during the mission period, the Indian population plummeted from 72,000 to 18,000. This high death rate was due primarily to the introduction of diseases for which the native population did not have immunity, as well as the hardships of forced labor and separation from traditional ways of life. Moreover, the imposition of forced labor and highly structured living arrangements degraded individuals, constrained families, circumscribed native culture, and adversely impacted scores of communities.

Nonetheless, within mission communities, Indian peoples reconstituted their lives using Catholic forms of kinship—the *compadrazgo* (god parentage)—to reinforce their indigenous kinship relations. Because of missionaries' dependence on Indian leaders (*alcaldes*) to manage mission affairs, elders who exerted political authority in their Indian villages often assumed positions of leadership in the missions. Mission orchestras and choirs provided another opportunity for Indian men to gain positions of importance in the missions.

Some mission Indians sought to escape the system by fleeing from the padres, while a few Indians openly revolted and killed missionaries. Sensitizing students to the various ways in which Indians exhibited agency in the mission system provides a more comprehensive view of the era for students. It also allows them to better understand change and continuity over time, as well as cause-and-effect. Students can also gain broader contextual knowledge of missions by learning about how they operated like farms (for example, Mission San Luis Rey) and the roles played by different groups of people in such settings. For example, students can frame their understandings of the mission system by considering questions such as **How did the lives of California Indians change during the mission period? How did they stay the same?**

California’s missions, *presidios*, *haciendas*, and *pueblos* should be taught as an investigation into the many groups of people who were affected by them. Sensitivity and careful planning are needed to bring the history of this period to life. A mission lesson should emphasize the daily lives of the native population, the Spanish military, the Spanish–Mexican settler population, and the missionaries.

The teacher might begin the lesson by asking students **How were people’s lives affected by missions?** The teacher may wish to focus on a specific mission, if it is nearby and can provide resources, or he/she can focus broadly on the impacts throughout the region. Once students have learned that they will investigate the multiple perspectives of people who lived during the mission period, the teacher presents carefully selected primary and secondary sources, as well informational texts written for children that provide context about each of the groups of people.

Teachers may use literature, journals, letters, and additional primary sources that can be drawn from the local community to provide information about missions. These sources can be challenging for all reading levels, so it is important for teachers to use an excerpt and support students reading dense primary-source texts. Teachers can provide vocabulary support and, through literacy strategies, make the sources accessible to all learners.



In selecting sources and directing students’ investigations, teachers should focus on the daily experience of missions rather than on the building structures themselves. Building missions from sugar cubes or popsicle sticks does not help students understand the period and is offensive to many. Instead, students should have access to multiple sources to help them understand the lives of different groups

of people who lived in and around missions, so that students can place them in a comparative context.

Missions were sites of conflict, conquest, and forced labor. Students should consider cultural differences, such as gender roles and religious beliefs, in order to

better understand the dynamics of Native and Spanish interaction. Students should analyze the impact of European diseases upon the indigenous population. And as much as possible, students should be encouraged to view sources that represent how missionaries viewed missions and how natives lived there, and the role of the Spanish–Mexican settler population in facilitating the system.

In addition to examining the missions’ impact on individuals, students should consider the impact on the natural environment. The arrival of the Spanish, along with their imported flora and fauna, catalyzed a change in the region’s ecosystem as well as its economy. What had once been a landscape shaped by hunter–gatherer societies became an area devoted to agriculture and the distribution of goods throughout the Spanish empire. Students can analyze data about crop production and livestock in order to better understand how people used the land and intensified the use of its natural resources. (See California EEI curriculum unit “Cultivating California,” 4.2.6)

The Mexican War for Independence (1810–1821) ultimately resulted in the end of Spanish rule, and with it, the mission system in California. Criticism of the mission system led to a campaign to secularize the missions as early as the late 1700s, when the region was still under Spanish rule. Secularization was never formally instituted, however, until the new Mexican Republic, established in 1823, began to liquidate and redistribute mission lands through land grants to *Californios* in 1834. Native Californians were supposed to receive half of the mission land, but many did not receive the land they were promised.

After independence, Mexico opened California to international commerce. This development attracted merchants, traders, and sailors from the United States and England. During this era, California’s population grew in size and diversity. The Spanish government established only about 20 land grants. During the era of Mexican rule, however, the government distributed about 500 land grants to individuals. A number of European and American immigrants, including John A. Sutter, also acquired land grants from the Mexican government.

The Gold Rush and Statehood

- How did the discovery of gold change California?
- How did California become part of the United States?

■ Why did people come to California?

With awareness of the physical barriers of the California landscape, students survey the travels of Jedediah Smith, James Beckwourth, John C. Fremont, Christopher “Kit” Carson, and early pioneer families such as the Bidwell and Donner parties. Students learn about the hardships of the overland journey. They might identify many of the push-and-pull factors that motivated people in the United States and in other parts of the world to endure the challenges of migration and decide to move to California.

As more American immigrants began to arrive in California in the 1840s, Mexico was struggling with a brewing border dispute along the Rio Grande in Texas. At the same time, United States President James K. Polk desired the rich, fertile lands of California for the United States. Word of the declaration of the Mexican–American War in 1846 was slow in reaching California.

By then, the troubles between American settlers and Mexicans had begun in earnest. A band of rowdy Americans revolted in June 1846 and took over the city of Sonoma and jailed the Mexican governor, Mariano Guadalupe Vallejo. They raised the Bear Flag for the first time in California. Acting on information that the English and Russians were planning to move in, the American Commodore John Drake Sloat anchored in Monterey, the capital of Alta California, and raised the American flag. Sloat and his crew met no resistance from those living in Monterey. Approximately one-third of the northern half of Mexico, including California, became part of the United States after the United States defeated Mexico in the Mexican–American War of 1846–1848.

Unfortunately for Mexico, just as the war was ending, James Marshall discovered a little nugget of gold in California. Students study how the discovery of gold spread throughout the world and affected the multicultural aspects of California’s population. Students can compare the long overland route over dangerous terrain to the faster sea route, either via Panama or around Cape Horn.

Teachers may read aloud excerpts from Richard Henry Dana, Jr.’s *Two Years Before the Mast*. The arrivals of Asians, Latin Americans, and Europeans are included as part of this narrative. Students can also explore how the gender imbalance between women and men in California during the Gold Rush era allowed women who wished to participate in the gold rush to pass as men and led

to a number of men to take on women's roles. To bring this period to life, students can sing the songs and read the literature of the day, including newspapers. They may dramatize a day in the goldfields and compare the life and fortunes of a gold miner with those of traders in the gold towns and merchants in San Francisco.

Students may also read historical fiction such as *Legend of Freedom Hill* by Linda Jacobs Altman and *By the Great Horn Spoon* by Sid Fleischman, which will provide an opportunity to incorporate the CCSS Reading Literature standards and allow students to contrast historical fiction with primary sources, secondary sources, and other informational texts. Students may learn how historical fiction makes the story of history come alive but should learn about the problems of using historical fiction as the sole source of information about a subject or time period.

Students may also read or listen to primary sources that illustrate gender and relationship diversity and engage students' interest in the era, such as Bret Harte's short story "The Poet of Sierra Flat" (1873) or newspaper articles about the life of the stagecoach driver Charley Parkhurst, who was born as a female but lived as a male and drove stagecoach routes in northern and central California for almost 30 years. Stagecoaches were the only way many people could travel long distances, and they served as a vital communication link between isolated communities. Parkhurst was one of the most famous California drivers, having survived multiple robberies while driving (and later killing a thief who tried to rob Parkhurst a second time).

Students also learn about women who helped to build California during these years, such as Bernarda Ruiz, María Angustias de la Guerra, Louise Clapp, Sarah Royce, and Biddy Mason, as well as the participation of different ethnic groups who came to the state during this period, such as those from Asia, Latin America, and Europe, as well the eastern part of the United States.

Students consider how the Gold Rush changed California by bringing sudden wealth to the state; affecting its population, culture, and politics; and instantly transforming San Francisco from a small village in 1847 to a bustling city in 1849. The social upheaval that resulted from the lure of gold and massive immigration caused numerous conflicts among social groups. A mining camp was a site of conflict, as miners of different ethnicities and races fought for access to wealth. American miners fared best, as California introduced a foreign miners tax on

non-Americans. Students can read some of the many stories about the California mining camps and explore the causes and effects of conflict in the camps by expressing their ideas in letters to the editor of an 1850s newspaper, or creating virtual museum exhibits about life in a California mining camp.

Another clear example of conflict during the Gold Rush era and early statehood was the loss of property and autonomy for many of the state’s earlier Mexican and Indian residents. Great violence was perpetrated against many Indian groups who occupied land or resources that new settlers desired. Additional harm came by way of the Indian Indenture Act of 1850, which forced many Indians—mostly Indian youths—into servitude for landowners.

The Gold Rush also caused irreparable environmental destruction through the introduction of hydraulic mining in the 1850s, which clogged and polluted rivers throughout the state, at great cost to the farmers affected downstream. Examining the development of new methods to extract, harvest, and transport gold during this period allows students to see direct interactions between natural systems and human social systems (California EEI curriculum unit “Witnessing the Gold Rush,” 4.3.3; see appendix G for Environmental Principle II).

Grade Four Classroom Example: The Gold Rush (Integrated ELD, ELA/Literacy, and California History–Social Science)

Mr. Duarte’s fourth-grade students have engaged in a variety of experiences to learn about the California Gold Rush. As they investigated the question **How did the discovery of gold change California?**, they read from their history text and other print materials, conducted research on the Internet, presented their findings, wrote scripts and dramatically enacted historic events for families and other students, participated in a simulation in which they assumed the roles of the diverse individuals who populated the region in the mid-1800s, and engaged in numerous whole-group and small-group discussions about the times and the significance of the Gold Rush in California’s history. In particular, students were encouraged to consider the Gold Rush’s impact on the state’s size, diverse population, economic growth, and regional environments.

Example *(continued)*

Today, Mr. Duarte engages the students in an activity in which they explain and summarize their learning through the use of a strategy called Content Links. He provides each student with an 8.5” x 11” piece of paper on which a term they had studied, encountered in their reading, and used in their writing over the past several weeks is printed. The words include both general academic and domain-specific terms, such as *hardship, technique, hazard, profitable, settlement, forty-niner, prospector, squatter, pay dirt, claim jumping, bedrock,* and *boom town*, among others. He distributes the word cards to the students and asks them to think about the word they are holding. What does it mean? How does it relate to the impact of the Gold Rush on California’s economy, population, and/or environment?

To support his English learner (EL) students (who are mostly at the late Emerging and early Expanding levels of English proficiency) and other students, Mr. Duarte encourages the class to take a quick look at their notes and other textual resources for their terms in the context of unit of study. Then Mr. Duarte asks the students to stand up, circulate around the classroom, and explain the word and its relevance to the study of the Gold Rush to several classmates, one at a time. This activity requires the students to articulate their understanding repeatedly, which they likely refine with successive partners, and they hear explanations of several other related terms from the unit of study. In addition, Mr. Duarte anticipates that hearing the related terms will also help the students to expand their understanding about their own terms and that they will add the new terms to their explanations as they move from one partner to another.

The students are then directed to find a classmate whose word connects or links to theirs in some way. For example, the words might be synonyms or antonyms, one might be an example of the other, or both might be examples of some higher-order concept. The goal is for the students to identify some way to connect their word with a classmate’s word. When all of the students find a link, they stand with their partner around the perimeter of the classroom. He then provides the students with a few moments to decide how they will

Example *(continued)*

articulate to the rest of the class how their terms relate. To support his EL students at the Emerging level of English proficiency and any other student who may need this type of support, he provides an open sentence frame (“Our terms are related because ___”). He intentionally uses the words *connect*, *link*, and *related* to model various ways of expressing the same idea.

Mr. Duarte invites the students to share their words, the meanings, and the reason for the link with the whole group. David and Susanna, who hold the terms *pay dirt* and *profitable*, volunteer to start. They explain the meanings of their words in the context of the subject matter and state that there was a link because both terms convey a positive outcome for the miners and that when a miner hits “pay dirt,” it means he will probably have a good profit. Finally, the students discuss how these terms relate to their larger study on the impact of the Gold Rush on California.

As pairs of students share with the whole group their word meanings and the reasons for their connections, Mr. Duarte listens carefully, asks a few clarifying questions, and encourages elaborated explanations. He invites others to listen carefully and build on the comments of each pair. After all pairs have shared their explanations with the group, Mr. Duarte inquires whether any student saw another word among all the words that might be a good link for their word.

Two students enthusiastically comment that they could have easily paired with two or three others in the room, and they tell why. Mr. Duarte then invites the students to “break their current links” and find a new partner. Students again move around the classroom, talking about their words, and articulating connections to the concepts represented by the other words.

Mr. Duarte happily observes that through this activity students not only review terms from the unit but also deepen their understandings of the overall significance of such a dramatic and far-reaching event.

CA HSS Content Standards: 4.3.3, 4.4.2

CA HSS Analysis Skills (K–5): Historical Interpretation 1

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RI.4.4, SL.4.1, L.4.6

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.4.1, 11a, 12a; ELD.PII.4.5

In discussing California statehood, students should consider the link between California's bid to join the Union and the controversy over slavery expansion in the United States. California played an important role in the Compromise of 1850, which signaled Congress' desire to balance slave and nonslave representation in government, but also in many ways foreshadowed the impending crisis of the Civil War. Students may discuss a number of questions related to California's statehood and the nation's Civil War. For example, students might consider, whether gold from California helped the Union win the war, how individual Californians supported the war effort, and the role of the California Brigade in the Battle of Gettysburg. Students might also read historical fiction such as *Legend of Freedom Hill* by Linda Jacobs Altman, which illustrates the situation of escaped slaves in California during the Gold Rush.

Comparisons can also be made between governments during the Spanish and Mexican periods and after California became a state. California's state constitution and the government it created are introduced here and discussed in further detail in the last unit at the end of the course. The 1849 California Constitution established three branches of state government: the executive, which includes the governor and related appointees; the legislative, which includes the state Assembly and Senate; and the judicial, which includes the state Supreme Court and lower courts.

California as an Agricultural and Industrial Power

- How did California grow after it became a state?
- Why did people choose to move to California in the last half of the nineteenth century? And why did some Californians oppose migrants?
- What role did immigrants play in California's economic growth and transportation expansion?
- Why was water important to the growth of California?

The years following 1850 brought a transportation revolution, increased diversity, and agricultural and industrial growth to California. The Pony Express, the Overland Mail Service, and the telegraph service linked California with the East. The completion of the transcontinental railroad in 1869 linked California with the rest of the nation.

With the help of topographic maps and Mary Ann Fraser’s *Ten Mile Day*, students can follow the Chinese workers who forged eastward from Sacramento through the towering Sierra Nevada, digging tunnels and building bridges with daring skill. They then meet the “sledge-and-shovel army” of Irish workers who laid the tracks westward across the Great Plains. Completion of the railroad and newly built seaports increased trade between Asia and eastern cities of the United States. They also brought thousands of new settlers to California, including the Wakamatsu Tea and Silk Colony from Japan.

These new transportation networks brought thousands of new settlers to California. Students can learn about the economic opportunities created by those who supplied the new immigrants with food, clothing, housing, banking, mail, and transportation. They may read about early merchants like Levi Strauss, bankers Henry Wells and William Fargo, and “the big four” railroad tycoons: Collis P. Huntington, Leland Stanford, Charles Crocker, and Mark Hopkins. Students analyze the contributions of Chinese and Japanese laborers in the building of early California’s mining, agricultural, and industrial economies and consider the impact of various anti-Asian exclusion movements. Hostilities toward the large Chinese labor force in California grew during the 1870s, leading to the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 and future laws to segregate Asian Americans and regulate and further restrict Asian immigration. The Gentlemen’s Agreement in 1907, singling out Japanese immigrants, further limited Asian admissions to the United States.

Students examine the various ways that Asian Americans resisted segregation and exclusion while struggling to build a home and identity for themselves in California. In explaining a charged and sensitive topic like exclusion, teachers should emphasize the importance of perspective and historical context. Using multiple primary sources in which students investigate questions of historical significance can engage students and deepen their understanding of a difficult and complex issue. Historical fiction, such as Laurence Yep’s *Dragon Gate*, may also be utilized. To help guide their investigation, students may consider the following questions: **Why did people migrate? Why did some migrants face opposition and prejudice?**

As the state’s population continued to expand at the turn of the century, students examine the special significance of water in a state in which agricultural

wealth depends on cultivating dry regions that have longer growing seasons and warmer weather than much of the rest of the nation. Students study the geography of water, the reclamation of California’s marshlands west of the Sierra Nevada, and the great engineering projects that bring water to the Central Valley and the semiarid south. The invention of the refrigerated railroad car opened eastern markets to California fruit and produce. Students also examine the continuing conflicts over water rights.

As California became home to diverse groups of people, its culture reflected a mixture of influences from Mexico; Central America; South America; eastern, southern, and western Asia; Europe, and Africa. Students can compare the many cultural and economic contributions these diverse populations have brought to California and can make the same comparisons for California today. Students can conduct research by using the resources of local historical societies and libraries to trace the history of their own communities.

Grade Four Classroom Example: Statehood and Immigration to California

During the first half of the school year, students in Gust Zagorites’ fourth-grade classroom have participated in a number of shared inquiries initiated and guided by Mr. Z. The students are now ready to do more self-directed research. To initiate the project, he asks students to explore a variety of resources, including timelines, primary sources, informational books, and Web sites about the contributions of various groups that came to California during and after the Gold Rush. Students are encouraged to take notes, write questions, and think about a topic that they are interested in exploring further.

Mr. Z’s students are then tasked with picking a topic and asking a question of historical significance about that topic. Mr. Z helps them with this task by providing sample questions, such as “Why was this person or group important to California’s growth?,” “How did this person contribute to the state?,” and “How did this person change California?” He provides feedback on those questions that students develop independently.

After students have developed their questions, Mr. Z helps his students collect two or three sources related to the topic, including at least one primary source. He directs his students to collect and document bibliographic

Example *(continued)*

information about the sources as well and think about the number and quality of sources.

As his students read and analyze the sources, Mr. Z asks them to develop an explanation that answers their research question by utilizing information from the multiple sources as evidence. Students then write an informational article, synthesizing the information and creating a visual representation to go along with the article. The articles include both an explanation of the person or group under study (the *who*, *what*, *when*, *where* of the topic), and an explanation of why the person or group under study is important. In other words, how did this place or person connect to the larger history of the state?

As his students complete their individual articles, Mr. Z’s whole class draws from their projects to create an opening “big picture” article, a timeline for the magazine, a table of contents, and a cover of the magazine that captures the theme or themes of the individual articles.

CA HSS Content Standards: 4.3, 4.4

CA HSS Analysis Skills (K-5): Research, Evidence, and Point of View 2, Historical Interpretation 1

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RI.4.3, RI.4.9, W.4.2, W.4.6, W.4.7, W.4.9b

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.4.7, 10a, 10b

California in a Time of Expansion

- How did the state government form? Who held power in the state?
- What was life like for California’s increasingly diverse population at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century?

California’s population and industry expanded in the years after statehood, bringing new challenges and opportunities to the state. In 1879 the state produced a new constitution aimed at reforming some of the problems of corporations that dominated the state (such as arbitrary freight rates imposed by the railroads). This extremely long 1879 state constitution (which the state still has today) established a number of state agencies, provided for independent universities, restricted Chinese labor, eased the farmer’s tax burden, and explicitly granted to women property

ownership rights, among many other things. Despite the intended reforms, corporations—namely, the Southern Pacific Railroad—continued to use their power and money to influence policymakers.

Corruption was rampant in California politics. In response, Californians elected the progressive Hiram Johnson in 1911 and supported such reforms as the initiative, referendum, and recall; bans on gambling, prostitution, and alcohol; the woman suffrage amendment in 1911; and railroad regulation. This era in California history marks an important shift when citizens decided that they have a right and responsibility to directly fix political problems.

Through their studies, students understand the importance of people in supporting and driving this extensive growth and how the state became a magnet for migrants of all types. Teachers may want to introduce the concept of *contingency* (the idea that events in the past were not inevitable or preordained) to students: **Did California’s growth have to happen the way it did? What conditions fostered the state’s rapid expansion?** Students learn about the role of immigrants, including Latino and Filipino Americans, in the farm labor movement. They should also study migrants, most famously portrayed as Great Depression-era Dust Bowl migrants in the literary and journalistic works of John Steinbeck and the photography of Dorothea Lange. In addition, students learn about the role of labor in agriculture and industry through studying teamsters and other labor unions. The work projects of the Great Depression—the Central Valley Project and the Hoover Dam—also created the infrastructure for California industry and growth once the economy began to recover.

Students learn about other important developments in the push-and-pull of California’s civil rights history during this period. During the economic collapse of the Great Depression, government officials and some private groups launched massive efforts to get rid of Mexicans and Filipinos in California, citing federal immigration law, the need to save jobs for “real Americans,” and a desire to reduce welfare costs. The resulting repatriation drives violated individual civil rights. Scholars estimate at least one million Mexican nationals and Mexican Americans were deported from the United States to Mexico; approximately 400,000 of these were from California. Many who were illegally “repatriated” returned home during World War II, joining the armed services and working in the defense industry.

In 2005, the California State Legislature passed Senate Bill 670, the “Apology Act for the 1930s Mexican Repatriation Program,” issuing a public apology for the action and authorizing the creation of a public commemoration site in Los Angeles. In addition, in 1935, Congress passed the Filipino Repatriation Act, which paid for transportation for Filipinos who agreed to return permanently to their home country. Students can compare these Depression-era events to the institution of the Bracero Program in 1942, which brought Mexicans back into California (and other parts of the U.S.) to supply farm labor during World War II.

World War II was a watershed event in California. By the end of the war, California would be the nation’s fastest growing state, and the experience of war would transform the state demographically, economically, socially, and politically. California played a huge role in America’s successful war effort. The number of military bases in the state increased from 16 to 41, more than those of the next five states combined. The defense-related industries became critical to California’s economy, helping to drive other sorts of development such as the manufacturing sector and the science–technology establishment. These jobs drew enormous numbers of migrants from other parts of the country, provided good jobs for women and African Americans, and spurred the creation of expansive suburbs, highways, and shopping complexes.

The state’s growing economy and population caused enormous stress on the environment, leading to serious issues of air and water pollution, loss of farmland, and loss of important wetlands and bay waters through in-fill. Meanwhile, the stresses of war led to acts of prejudice and racism, including the Zoot Suit Riots of 1943 when American servicemen attacked Hispanics in Los Angeles, and the internment of Japanese Americans during World War II.

California in the Postwar Era: Immigration, Technology, and Cities

- How did California grow in the second half of the twentieth century compared to how it had grown for the previous 100 years?
- Who came to California? And what was life like for newly arrived migrants as opposed to people who had lived in the state for many years?

Students in grade four learn about the development of present-day California with its urbanized landscape, commerce, large-scale commercial agriculture, entertainment and communications industries, the aerospace industry in Southern California, and computer technology in the Silicon Valley. Students also consider the important trade links to nations of the Pacific Basin and other parts of the world. Since the beginning of World War II, California changed from an underdeveloped, resource-producing area to an industrial giant.

Students analyze how California's industrial development was strengthened after World War II by the building of an extensive freeway system, which in turn led to the demise of the inter-urban railway system, and extensive suburbs to house the growing population in proximity to urban work centers. The extension of water projects, including canals, dams, reservoirs, and power plants, supported the growing population and its expanding need for electrical power and drinking and irrigation water. Students examine the impact of these engineering projects on California's wild rivers and watersheds and the long-term consequences of California's heavy demand on its groundwater resources. To understand these large-scale shifts in historical context, students can return to broader framing questions from earlier in the year: **Why did people come to California? How did people shape their environments? How and why did the state grow?**

New residents flooded California seeking work during and after World War II, establishing an increasingly heterogeneous population and laying the groundwork for important civil rights activism in the state. For instance, in agricultural labor, students can learn how Larry Itliong, Filipino farmworker labor leader, initiated the Delano Grape Strike. Students can also study how Cesar Chavez, Dolores Huerta, and the United Farm Workers, through nonviolent tactics, educated the general public about the working conditions in agriculture and led the movement to improve the lives of farmworkers.

To extend students' learning and involve them in service connected to Chavez's values, teachers may have students plan a celebration for or participate in a local Cesar Chavez Day (March 31) observance or activities. Students can also study the famous court case *Mendez v. Westminster* (1947), predecessor to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), which banned the segregation of Mexican students; student activism at San Francisco State University and UC Berkeley in the 1960s that forced the recognition of Asian American identity and history; the occupation of

Alcatraz by California Indians in 1969–1971; and the emergence of the nation’s first gay rights organizations in the 1950s. In the 1970s, California gay rights groups fought for the right of gay men and women to teach, and, in the 2000s, for their right to get married, culminating in the 2013 and 2015 U.S. Supreme Court decisions *Hollingsworth v. Perry* and *Obergefell v. Hodges*.

California also developed a public education system, including universities and community colleges, which became a model for the nation. Students can learn about how education has historically opened new opportunities for immigrant youths as well as native-born residents. They analyze how California’s leadership in computer technology, science, the aerospace industry, agricultural research, economic development, business, and industry depend on strong education for all.

Students explore the relationship between California’s economic and population growth in the twentieth century and its geographic location and environmental factors. They determine the push-and-pull factors for California’s dramatic population increase in recent times such as the state’s location in the Pacific Basin, the 1965 Immigration Act, which brought a new wave of Asian immigrants from Korea, India, Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia, in addition to traditional Asian groups of Chinese, Japanese, and Filipinos, the 1980 Refugee Act, the reputation of social and cultural freedom in the cities of San Francisco and Los Angeles, and the state’s historical ability to absorb new laborers in its diversified economy.

Students examine California’s growing trade with nations of the Pacific Basin and analyze how California’s port cities, economic development, and cultural life benefit from this trade. They learn about the contributions of immigrants to California from across the country and globe, such as Dalip Singh Saund, an Indian Sikh immigrant from the Punjab region of South Asia who, in 1957, became the first Asian American to serve in the United States Congress, civil rights activists Cesar Chavez and Dolores Huerta, technology titans Sergey Brin (of Google), and Jerry Yang (of Yahoo), and Harvey Milk, a New Yorker who was elected to the San Francisco Board of Supervisors in 1977 as California’s first openly gay public official.

Students learn of California’s continued and growing popularity among immigrants, outpacing even New York, as it incorporates growing numbers of immigrants from Asia, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, and every other region of the world. As the above examples of success indicate, some immigrants have

found opportunity in their new home, but immigrants have also faced intense opposition. In 1986, almost three-quarters of California voters approved Proposition 63, which established English as the state’s “official language.” In 1994, California voters passed Proposition 187 to deny all social services to undocumented residents. Neither proposition went into effect, but the sentiment behind them created, at times, an unwelcome environment for immigrants to California.

This unit will conclude with an examination of some of the unresolved problems facing California today and the efforts of concerned citizens who are seeking to address these issues.

Local, State, and Federal Governments

- How is the state government organized?
- What does the local government do?
- What power does the State of California have?
- How do ordinary Californians know about their rights and responsibilities in the state and their community?

Throughout the fourth grade, there are opportunities to introduce civic learning and weave it into social studies so that this last unit serves as a culmination rather than simply a stand-alone “civics unit.” For example, as students study the major nations of California Indians, they can learn about tribal and village rules and laws, analyzing the purpose of a particular rule through the lens of culture and religion, to maintain order or safety. As students study the Gold Rush era, they could do a simulation of a mining camp where the miners need some structure to govern their everyday lives. Students may think about ways to solve arguments among miners and set up a camp government with a camp council to make rules and laws, a sheriff to enforce them, and a judge to determine whether a rule or law has been broken, as examples of legislative, executive, and judicial branches.

With that as a foundation, students finish their studies in the fourth grade with a review of the structures, functions, and powers of different levels of government. In the fifth grade, they will study the origins of the U.S. Constitution in depth, but they leave the fourth grade with a clear understanding of what the Constitution is and how it defines the shared powers of federal, state, and local governments. They

also gain an understanding of how the California Constitution works, including its relationship to the U.S. Constitution, and the similarities and differences between state, federal, and local governments, including the roles and responsibilities of each. Students describe the different kinds of governments in California, including the state government structures in Sacramento, but also the governments of local cities and towns, Indian *rancherias* and reservations, counties, and school districts.

Students' understanding of state and local government can be enhanced by visiting local courts, city halls, and the State Capitol. This knowledge is an important foundation for the development of the concepts of civic participation and public service that are explored further at later grade levels. To engage children with local government representatives, teachers may have students conclude the study of California with an in-depth examination of one or more current issues that illustrate the role of state or local government in the daily lives of Californians and, in particular, members of their own community.

Grade Four Classroom Example: Local, State, and Federal Governments

Ms. Landeros' fourth-grade class is concluding its study of California history by investigating local, state, and federal governments. To engage her students in a difficult topic, Ms. Landeros asks the class to consider the following question: **Who decides what you learn in school?**

The goal of this activity is to provide students with access to primary-source documents; to grapple with different pieces of informational text; and to learn that the state, not the federal, government oversees education. Students begin addressing this question by stating their opinions in small groups. Representatives from each group are first asked to write down and then share their answers with the rest of the class. Ms. Landeros writes down their responses, asks them to highlight any patterns or trends they see, and displays the list on the wall.

Next, Ms. Landeros distributes an excerpt (Article 9, Section 1) from the California Constitution and asks groups to highlight words and phrases that offer clues to answer the question (Section 1 highlights the important role of the state legislature in providing for education). Ms. Landeros uses a large chart with three column headings: local government (school district, town, city),

Example *(continued)*

state (California) government, and federal government (United States). The students are asked to discuss with a partner what information would help them answer the investigative question. She then charts the students' answers and evidence from the text under the heading of "state government."

The students then read a short excerpt of rules by their local school district board, a teacher contract, or other local guiding document. Again they highlight text that details any power the board might have over what is taught. Next the students are prompted to discuss what they found, and the information is added to the "local government" section of the chart.

Finally, Ms. Landeros distributes or displays an excerpt from the U.S. Constitution: "Section. 8. The Congress shall have Power To lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts and Excises, to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defence and general Welfare of the United States," and Amendment 10 of the U.S. Constitution.

Ms. Landeros asks her students once again to find places in the text that could answer the question: "Who decides what you learn in school?" Ms. Landeros is prepared to point out that the federal constitution does not specifically address education (if her students do not already recognize this) and to guide their discovery of the fact that education is a state and local power, not federal, which also illustrates the concept of federalism. Before the end of class, students are asked to revisit their answer to the question "Who decides what you learn in school?" They provide evidence from their reading and from the chart that the class has constructed.

The following day, students turn their attention to state government and consider how it works by focusing on a current bill under consideration at the state legislature. Ms. Landeros supports this investigation by providing students with a variety of sources, as appropriate and relevant, such as copies of bills currently pending in the state legislature, and newspaper articles, summaries, or opinion pieces about the bill. Ms. Landeros also invites representatives from local legislative offices to come speak to her class. As

Example *(continued)*

students interact with the written materials and visitors, Ms. Landeros continues to pose questions and provide visuals that help students reflect on how the state works, including the roles of state officials and representatives, and how a bill becomes a law. She also provides differentiated literacy support so that all children can access the content and inform their thinking.

Ms. Landeros' students conclude their study of government in two ways:

1. In groups or individually, students write an essay, taking a position on a particular bill or issue under consideration by explaining the issue to the class, detailing their position and giving at least one reason for their position. Significant structure and support are provided for some students to complete this assignment, such as sentence starters, graphic organizers for paragraph development, and suggested vocabulary.
2. The students have a reflective conversation. What did they learn about how the state government works? What questions do they have?

CA HSS Content Standard: 4.5

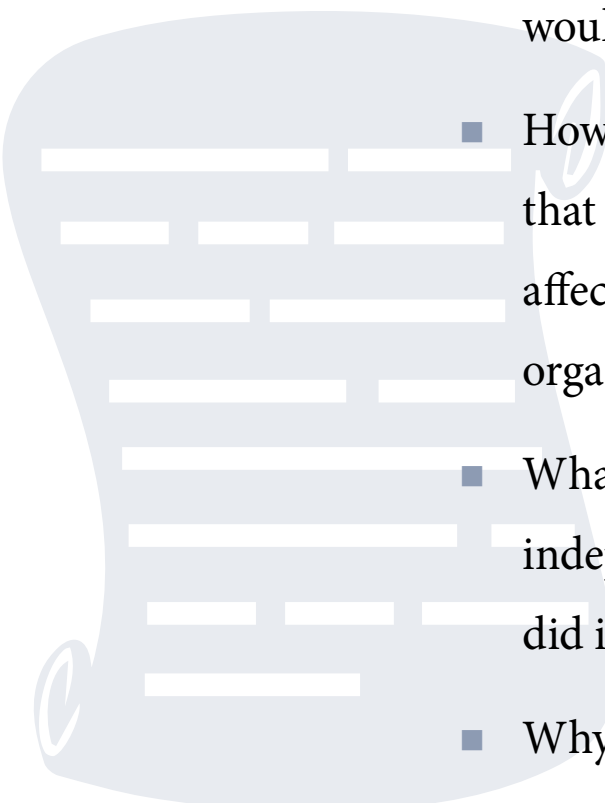
CA HSS Analysis Skills (K-5): Research, Evidence, and Point of View 2

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RI.4.1, RI.4.9, RF.4.4, W.4.1, W.4.4, W.4.7, W.4.9b, SL.4.1, SL.4.2

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.4.1, 2, 6, 10a, 10b, 11; ELD.PII.4.1, 4.2a, 4.2b

CHAPTER 8

United States History and Geography: Making a New Nation

- 
- Why did different groups of people decide to settle in the territory that would become the United States?
 - How did the different regions of the area that would become the United States affect the economy, politics, and social organization of the nation?
 - What did it mean to become an independent United States? And what did it mean to be an American?
 - Why did the nation expand?

The fifth-grade course introduces students to important historical questions throughout the year-long study. The course for grade five presents the story of the development of the nation, with emphasis on the period up to 1800. This course focuses on the creation of a new nation that would be peopled by immigrants from all parts of the globe and governed by institutions influenced by a number of religions, the ideals of the Enlightenment, and concepts of self-government.

Students in the fifth grade continue to develop the civic and economic skills they will need as citizens, especially as they learn about the nation’s foundational documents. Students examine the human and physical geography of the United States by studying past and present-day maps of the United States and identifying connections with geography and the ethnic, linguistic, and religious settlement patterns that shaped the new nation.

The content covered in grade five is expansive, and the discipline-specific skills that are to be taught are equally demanding. To both organize the curriculum and allow students to explore the past in depth, teachers may frame instruction around questions of historical significance. This discipline-specific form of inquiry promotes student engagement, deepens content understanding, and develops critical thinking.

Whenever possible, the past should be examined through the eyes of women, men, and children from a variety of historical groups. Viewing the past from the perspectives of those that lived it is best done through a variety of primary sources. Throughout the year, students should be introduced to sources presented in different formats. They should begin to understand that people in the past had different perspectives; one goal of learning history is to understand why people in the past lived the way they lived. It is also intended for students to begin to understand why the current world is structured the way it is.

The Land and People before Columbus

- How did geography, climate, and proximity to water affect the lives of North American Indians?
- How were different groups of North American Indians organized into systems of governments and confederacies?

- How were family and community structures of North American Indians similar to and different from one another?

In this unit, students examine major pre-Columbian settlements. Teachers can frame students' exploration of pre-contact native people by introducing the following question: **How did geography, climate, and proximity to water affect the lives of North American Indians?** North American Indians were diverse in language, culture, social and political organization, and religious traditions. They adapted to and actively managed and modified their diverse natural environments and local resources. Depending on where they lived, pre-Columbian people subsisted through farming, hunting and gathering, and fishing. Their diets included grain crops, local vegetation (roots, plants, seeds), fish and other seafood, and small and large game.

They built distinct structures that adapted to the need for shelter in the distinct geography and climate of their environments and that suited their lifestyle, whether stationary or nomadic. For example, the Pueblo people of the Southwest desert were and remain an agricultural and a sedentary society; they built cities of stone and adobe and developed irrigation systems. By comparison, many indigenous communities of the Pacific Northwest consisted of skilled fishermen who had settled along the coast. Some tribes of the Great Plains were nomads, while others established permanent villages where they grew a variety of crops. Nearly all Plains tribes hunted bison, and most relied upon the animal as their primary source of food; Woodlands people east of the Mississippi engaged in limited farming and lived in waterside villages seasonally.

How were different groups of North American Indians organized into systems of governments and confederacies? The inhabitants of North America organized varied economies and systems of government. Groups such as the Iroquois, Huron, Cherokee, Navajo, Creek, Hopi, Algonquin, and Lakota (Sioux) established pueblo-city states, tribelets, native bands, confederacies, and nations. Communal councils led by chiefs or elders formed the basis of local governance in many villages or settlements; some included female advisers. Traditional commerce involved exchanging and bartering commodities of regional significance and abundance, including salt, shells, beads, timber, agricultural products, abalone, fish, flint, and fur.

Teachers may have students consider the importance of trading networks as a means of disseminating goods and the value of information such as technology, agricultural practices, and religious beliefs (for example, animism and shamanism). This exercise will also help students grasp the environmental geography of North America by exploring which resources and trade goods originate from which regions and why.



Students may explore the social and cultural diversity of American Indians by addressing this question: **How were family and community structures of North American Indians similar to and different from one another?**

Students learn how American Indians expressed their culture in art, music, dance, religion, and storytelling. They also gain a fuller understanding of how gender roles and family life varied

between different tribes by examining the multiple roles and influence of women in American Indian communities. Students are introduced to the rich legends and literature of American Indian cultures and spiritual traditions about people's relationship to the earth. Finally, students should appreciate the diversity of Native American communities and connect this national story of diverse natives to their fourth-grade studies of California Indians.

Age of Exploration

- Why did Europeans explore?
- What exchanges were established as a result of the age of exploration?
- How did European explorers and natives view each other?

Students begin their study of the period by investigating this question: **Why did Europeans explore?** In this unit, students concentrate on the expeditions of the early explorers and learn about the explorers' European origins, motives, journeys, and the enduring historical significance of their voyages to the Americas. Several important factors contributed to the age of exploration: religious and political

conflict in Western Europe, advances in nautical technology and weaponry, and European competition over access and control of economic resources overseas. The global spread of plants, animals, people, and diseases (Columbian Exchange) beginning in the fifteenth century transformed the world's ecosystems. The exchanges spread new food crops and livestock across the world and initiated the period of European global expansion. The exchanges also had a devastating impact on indigenous populations in the Western Hemisphere, due to the spread of illnesses such as measles and smallpox, for which the native populations had no natural immunity.

Students learn about early exchanges by examining this question: **What exchanges were established as a result of the age of exploration?** European explorers sought trade routes, economic gain, adventure, national recognition, strategic advantages, and people to convert to Christianity. *Pedro's Journal* by Pam Conrad enlivens these journeys for students. The early explorers traveled the globe through innovative use of technological developments acquired from other civilizations: the compass, the astrolabe, and seaworthy ships. Explorers and crews embarked on precarious ventures with unknown outcomes.

Teachers encourage students to imagine the aspirations, concerns, and fears of the explorers and their crews; excerpts from letters that European explorers such as Christopher Columbus wrote to the sponsors of their voyages can help students understand that all historical actors have agendas and perspectives. Studying explorers is an opportunity to deepen students' understanding of contingency in history: the acknowledgment that historical figures frequently acted without knowing the consequences of their actions. For example, **What happened when Europeans encountered indigenous people? How were Europeans received when they returned home with native people, animals, plants, and even gold?** Students may consider how these encounters might have changed if conditions had been different—if, for example, the Europeans had returned home from their voyages with exotic spices and silk.

In the study of the early explorers, students trace and learn the routes of the major land explorers of the United States, the distances traveled, and the Atlantic trade routes that linked Africa, the West Indies, the British colonies, and Europe. Through mapping exercises, students record and analyze the land claims by European explorers from Spain, France, England, Portugal, the Netherlands,

Sweden, and Russia in North and South America on behalf of their monarchs or sponsors. Students can also compare each country's purpose in exploration and colonization, while noting similarities and differences in religious and economic motives.

Cooperation and Conflict in North America

- How did European explorers and settlers interact with American Indians?
- How did American Indians change as a result of the arrival and settlement of European colonists?
- Why did American Indians fight with each other? Why did they fight with European settlers?
- What role did trade play in both cooperation and conflict between and among European settlers?

Students investigate the relationships between natives and Europeans by exploring this question: **How did European explorers and settlers interact with American Indians?** The arrival of Europeans in North America in the late fifteenth century set into motion cross-cultural cooperation and conflict among the American Indians and between the Indian nations and the new settlers. In what the Europeans termed as the New World, they competed with one another and the Indian nations for territorial, economic, and political control. By the seventeenth century, the French had established Nova Scotia and Quebec; the English, Jamestown and Massachusetts Bay Colony; the Spanish, New Spain; and the Netherlands, New Amsterdam.

How did American Indians change as a result of the new settlers? In the territory that would become the United States, individual Indian nations responded differently to European settlement. Some American Indians declared war in defense of their sovereignty. Others remained neutral. Whether in conjunction with each other or through independent compacts and treaties, many of the American Indians negotiated terms for coexistence.

Indian nations cooperated with Europeans and one another in the areas of agriculture, fur trading, military alliances, and cultural interchanges, especially in the Great Lakes region where French traders depended on such relationships for

the success of their mission. Europeans introduced new food crops and domestic livestock that diversified the diets of the American Indians. This exchange dramatically altered the natural environment and introduced diseases that decimated many American Indian tribes.

European explorers and colonists were fascinated by American Indian culture, but condemned most of their traditions and practices as savage because they differed from their own way of life and as devilish because they were not Christian. Historical fiction such as *Encounter* by Jane Yolen or *The Birchbark House* by Louise Erdrich encourages students to consider the two worlds' cultural perceptions and experiences during their first encounters.

For a time, Indian nations and European settlers coexisted. Native peoples served as independent traders and mediators. European settlement brought the American Indian population a more diverse selection of food and introduced new tools for hunting and warfare. This coexistence was short-lived, however. Broken treaties, skirmishes, and massacres increasingly came to characterize the relationship between the groups. Students may consider these questions: **Why did American Indians fight with each other? Why did they fight with European settlers?** American Indian resistance included armed conflict, rejection of European culture and political authority, reappraisal of native spiritual traditions, and the creation of military, political, and economic alliances among American Indian nations and tribes.

Of particular concern to American Indians in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were permanent European settlements and the expansion of commercial farming on native land. The American Indians resisted encroachments to their territories for more than two centuries. Major armed conflicts included the Powhatan Wars in Virginia (1622–1644); the Pequot War (1637) and King Philip's War (1675) in New England; and in Ohio country, Lord Dunmore's War (1774), brought on by Chief Logan's retaliation for the killing of his family.

Students may collect information about how and why Indian wars developed. They can organize this information by noting who was involved in the conflict (for example, British leaders or particular tribes); when the conflict(s) developed; the circumstance of the conflict (whether it related to depleted resources or lack of power, for example); the kind of conflict it became; and the outcome. Once

students have collected and organized this information, they can put it in a comparative context by creating a timeline or map. With this information side by side, students can begin to extract larger meaning and identify parallels in how or why conflicts developed and the consequences of such conflicts.

The presence of the Europeans exacerbated historical tensions among nations. Lucrative trade with Europeans altered traditional inter-Indian trading networks that existed prior to European arrival. Additionally, land disputes among American Indians such as the Iroquois, Huron, and Sioux led to armed warfare (made more violent with the introduction of gunpowder and horses), involved new military alliances with European settlers, and redefined boundaries of political and economic influence. Certain military alliances proved critical. The Iroquois, for example, played a decisive role in the outcome of the French and Indian War (1754–1763), also known as the Seven Years' War. The conflict pitted British forces against French soldiers over control of the upper Ohio River Valley. The Iroquois provided invaluable support and knowledge of native terrain to inform the British military strategy.

Settling the Colonies

- Who moved to and settled in North America? Why did they choose to live where they did?
- Why did English settlers choose to live on the North Atlantic seaboard? What was daily life like for those who settled in the southern colonies? Those who settled in New England?
- Why did Jamestown settlers have a high mortality rate? Why did so many settlers die, and how did they eventually reverse this trend?
- How did people work in the colonies? Why did indentured servitude start, and how did it transition to slavery?
- How did the Middle Colonies differ from New England and the southern colonies in terms of geography, economic activity, religion, social structure/ family life, and government?

Students can begin their studies of North America by examining these questions: **Who moved to and settled in North America? Why did they choose**

to live where they did? A brief overview of French and Spanish colonization in the New World introduces students to the different groups of people who met on the North American continent. Unlike British colonies populated by colonists who made money primarily through agriculture, Spanish and French colonies were, in general, more transient, less focused on profiting from agricultural commodities, and more focused on extracting mineral wealth and hides. These different purposes for the colonies affected the administration and settlement of the British, French, and Spanish colonies. This unit emphasizes the English colonies, where the settlers and colonists shaped the economic and political values and institutions of the new nation. Students chronicle and evaluate how the British colonial period created the basis for the development of political self-government and a market-oriented economic system.

Students can survey the evolution of the 13 colonies by addressing these questions: **Why did English settlers choose to live on the North Atlantic seaboard? What was daily life like for those who settled in the southern colonies rather than in New England?** The original 13 colonies differed regionally in their economic, political, religious, and social development. As students compare and contrast colonies, teachers guide students in considering how geography and climate affected the establishment and organization of each colony. **Why did seaport cities become more prominent in New England and the Middle Colonies, and what effect did this have on commerce in the regions? Why did plantations dominate in the South while family farms flourished in New England?** Students study how geography affected settlement, economic development, and the political organization of the colonies. Religious orientation also contributed to the variation in the colonies' social and political structure.

Southern Colonies

While initial ventures to the mid-Atlantic coast were not intended to establish permanent agricultural communities, over the course of the early 1600s southern colonies developed a highly profitable agricultural-based economy. The 1607 settlement of Jamestown in the Chesapeake Bay region was a risky venture in light of the failure of its predecessors. Students may explore the following questions as they investigate the first colony: **Why did Jamestown settlers have a high**

mortality rate? Why did so many settlers die, and how did they eventually reverse this trend? Virginia’s first immigrants included a small number of lesser gentry and laborers, including indentured servants, who made up the largest segment of the population. At first Virginia was an all-male colony. Even after women began to arrive, the gender ratio remained skewed throughout most of the seventeenth century. This social structure posed significant challenges for a society that saw family as a principal agent of order, economic production, and basic sustenance. For the first several years of Virginia’s existence, the mortality rate remained quite high.

Captain John Smith worked to stabilize the colony by directing the digging of wells, the planting of crops, and the construction of shelter. He also introduced a system of incentives, proclaiming that people who did not work did not eat. John Rolfe’s suggestion of growing and selling tobacco ensured Jamestown’s economic livelihood and led to the formation of the plantation economy. Students can explore the implications of this event. **Why was tobacco grown on large plantations? What type of workforce was required? What was the social life of the plantation?** To develop a deeper understanding of the deprivations endured by settlers, teachers can help their students analyze John Smith’s account in “The Starving Time,” 1609. Teachers may also want to supplement their students’ historical inquiries of Jamestown with Elisa Carbon’s work of historical fiction *Blood on the River: Jamestown 1607*. Archaeological work at the Jamestown site can also aid teachers in instructing students about ongoing historical research.

Students may explore the evolution of the labor system in the colony by framing their studies around these questions: **How did people work in the colonies? Why did indentured servitude start, and how did it transition to slavery?** The first Africans arrived in Jamestown in 1619. In seventeenth-century colonial Virginia, some Africans came as indentured servants, while others had been sold or traded as enslaved labor. A few gained their freedom. Changing economic and labor conditions and racial presumptions of inequity contributed to the tobacco planters’ increasing reliance on slavery as a major source of labor.

Starting with Maryland in 1641 (technically a middle colony), laws spread to southern colonies that codified slavery throughout the Atlantic seaboard. By the 1680s, the institution of slavery was firmly established as part of colonial economies. Students may study maps, ships’ logs, and other primary sources to

clarify the eighteenth-century trans-Atlantic slave trade that linked Africa, the West Indies, the British colonies, and Europe.

Literature such as *To Be a Slave* edited by Julius Lester and Tom Feelings and *Many Thousands Gone* by Virginia Hamilton offers opportunities for teachers to engage students in many different aspects of the institution of slavery. Students can use their growing sense of historical empathy to imagine, discuss, and write about how these young men and women from Africa may have felt: having been stolen from their families; transported across the ocean in a brutal voyage, known as the “Middle Passage,” to a strange land; and then sold into bondage.

This is an appropriate time to reflect on the meaning of slavery both as a legal and economic institution and as an extreme violation of human rights. Students will also learn the different forms of slave resistance—arson, feigning illness, poison, breaking equipment, forming communities, maintaining African traditions and culture, and rebelling or running away. Primary-source documents such as excerpts from slave narratives like Olaudah Equiano’s, historical newspaper ads, handbills, and southern laws concerning the treatment of slaves provide students with direct insights into the condition of slavery.

In their study of Virginia, students understand the importance of the House of Burgesses as the first representative assembly in the European colonies. **How did Virginia’s status as a royal charter and government affect the political rights of the settlers? Who was allowed to vote? Who was excluded?** They also learn the meaning of the *established church* as Anglicans in Virginia understood it. This period is rich in opportunities to deepen students’ understanding of American democracy through role plays and simulations. For example, students may list the basic “rights of Englishmen” claimed by colonists and create brief dramatizations of the ways colonists sought to preserve these rights. Students may also participate in a mock town hall meeting in which they take and defend positions on an issue in eighteenth-century colonial America.

Beyond Virginia, the founding of southern colonies ranged in purpose and organization. Teachers assist students in determining how geography and climate affected the southern colonies’ agricultural production. For example, tobacco cultivation dominated in Maryland; in Georgia and North and South Carolina, the humid, swampy fields were conducive to rice farming.

Life in New England

New England provided a dramatic contrast with the southern colonies. Two groups of Christians sought to live according to their religious beliefs: the separatist Pilgrims, who broke with the Church of England, and the reformist Puritans, who sought to purify the church from within. The following questions can frame students' initial explorations of New England: **Why was New England settled as a religious refuge? How did New England compare to Virginia in terms of economy, political organization, and social groups?**

The story of the Pilgrims begins with their flight from England and religious dissent from the Church of England, their temporary haven in the Netherlands, and their voyage to the New World aboard the *Mayflower*. After an arduous trip, 41 male “saints” organized and joined in signing the Mayflower Compact to “covenant and combine our selves together into a civil body politick.” Led by

William Bradford, the Pilgrims settled Plymouth in 1620. In keeping with the times, they did not ask women to sign.



This is a powerful opportunity to discuss the meaning of self-government, gender norms in society and religion, and the importance of political rights. Teachers may also lead their students in a discussion of the Pilgrims' religious beliefs, oppression in England, and how they differed

from the Puritans'. Nathaniel Phillbrick's historical fiction, *The Mayflower and the Pilgrims' New World*, could supplement students' examination of the Pilgrims.

Upon the settlers' arrival in North America, American Indians initially aided them. Over time, relations between the colonists and American Indians grew violent over land rights and trade alliances. Increasingly outnumbered, outgunned, and ravaged by diseases, the native population declined.

As students examine the era, teachers help them to analyze the work of men, women, and children to get a sense of each family member's function in the colonial home. In a pre-industrial environment, most married men worked on the

family farm and spent more time with the children, especially sons, than in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, when more men spent time working away from home. Women were also actively involved in economic production: not only did they learn, practice, and pass on skills relating to the production of food, clothing, and medicine to the next generation, but they often did farm work and were expected to step into their husbands' roles if they were ill or away from home. Women were also active and influential in their communities and church congregations.

The Puritans had an enduring influence on American literature, education, and attitudes toward life and work. Inspired by religious zeal, Puritans sought to establish “a city upon a hill,” where they might live out their religious ideals. Led by John Winthrop, they founded Boston and within ten years had opened Harvard College and the first common school in Massachusetts. They valued hard work, social obligation, simple living, and self-governing congregations. Their religious views shaped their way of life, clothing, laws, forms of punishment, education practices, gender expectations, and institutions of self-government. Puritans believed that God created women as subordinate companions to men. Women who challenged male authority or who were free from male control (through widowhood, for example), were liable to end up identified with Satan's rebellion against God's authority; four-fifths of those accused of witchcraft in colonial New England were women.

Although they came to Massachusetts to escape religious persecution, the Puritans established a society intolerant of religious dissent and diversity. An examination of the experiences of Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson reveals the Puritans' intolerance of religious dissent and their insistence that women strictly conform to their gender expectations. At the same time, the stories of Hutchinson and Williams are milestones in the development of religious freedom in Connecticut and Rhode Island. Avi's *Finding Providence: The Story of Roger Williams* offers students the perspective of Williams' daughter, Mary.

Teachers may wish to teach a lesson that highlights Puritan society and its lack of tolerance for dissent by focusing on the trials of Williams and Hutchinson. Teachers can ask students to investigate the question **Why did Puritans banish Hutchinson and Williams?** By introducing excerpted trial testimony that highlights how different members of the community viewed the offenders, students

can begin to understand what dissent meant to colonial governments and churches. Students may re-enact one trial or both by having students read testimony, serving as attorneys, and having others serve as jurors. Collectively, the class may develop an answer to the investigation question.

The Middle Colonies

How did the Middle Colonies differ from New England and the southern colonies? The colonies of Maryland, New Amsterdam, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware provided havens for a wide variety of ethnic, linguistic, and religious groups, including English, Dutch, Swedish, German, Irish, Scottish, Catholic, and Jewish settlers. Mapping activities can reveal to students the diversity of these colonies. In identifying the religious, national, and political origins of the colonies, students discover that Catholics established Maryland as a political and religious refuge but became outnumbered by Protestants in search of free land. In Pennsylvania, William Penn founded a Quaker colony that practiced religious tolerance and representative government. Quakers believed that divine truth was revealed not only through the Bible but also through an “inner light” in each human being, regardless of social status, education, or gender. Quakers believed that women could take a leading role as preachers of religious truth, a perspective viewed as ridiculous and dangerous by many contemporaries.

Industrious farmers, fur traders, skilled craftspersons, indentured servants, slaves, merchants, bankers, shipbuilders, and overseas traders made Pennsylvania prosperous. Fertile soil and mild climate enabled the Middle Colonies to thrive and led to the development of New York and Philadelphia as busy seaports. In contrast to the generally homogenous colonies to the south and north, the Middle Colonies developed as more diverse and urban trading centers. It was here—especially in the aftermath of the Seven Years’ War (1754–1763)—that the ideas of the American Revolution were seeded; colonists began to discuss similarities that they shared with one another while noting differences between themselves and the British. Excerpts from Benjamin Franklin’s *Autobiography*, his annual *Poor Richard’s Almanac*, and his story “The Whistle,” as well as Margaret Cousins’ *Ben Franklin of Old Philadelphia*, give students a sense of these times.

The Road to War

- Why did colonists start to rebel against Great Britain?
- Who were the Patriots? What were their grievances?
- What were the goals of the Declaration of Independence?

The events leading to the Revolutionary War may be presented as a dramatic story, but contingency should be continually emphasized. It was not until 1776 that colonists united in their declaration of independence. In the years leading up to the American Revolution, most colonists considered themselves to be British citizens and sought to resolve disputes with the British Empire peacefully. With this in mind, students can investigate the following question: **Why did colonists start to rebel against Great Britain?**

The British efforts to exert more power over the colonies were met with spirited resistance from the American colonists. King George and British legislators felt that the French and Indian War had been fought to protect the colonists. They also believed that the conflict had drained the British treasury and that the colonists should be taxed to cover the costs of the war. Parliament's efforts to assert imperial sovereignty over the colonies and impose taxes because of the debts incurred during the French and Indian War fueled colonists' growing dissatisfaction with Parliament. Those who firmly believed that only the colonial assemblies were empowered to raise taxes were especially incensed.

Students should become familiar with the Stamp Act of 1765 and the colonists' outrage over it; the Townshend Acts that again stirred protest and led to the Boston Massacre; the formation of the Sons of Liberty; the tax on tea that provoked the Boston Tea Party; and the Coercive Acts, designed in part to punish colonists for their destruction of tea.

Despite these struggles, many colonists still perceived themselves as fully British, but resistance against British rule grew, culminating in the convening of the first Continental Congress of 1774 and the Committees of Correspondence, which established communication between the colonies and forged a new national identity based on opposing British policies. Students can connect the events together by addressing these questions: **Who were the Patriots? What were their grievances?**

In discussing the conflict, students may read excerpts from speeches in the Parliament by William Pitt and Edmund Burke, whose pleas for moderation were ignored. Students learn that a third of the colonists remained loyal to King George III, while many others were undecided. For example, John Dickinson of Pennsylvania argued against independence and promoted reconciliation. He maintained that independence would lead to chaos. Philadelphia merchant Thomas Clifford complained: “Independence would assuredly prove unprofitable.” He feared that without British protection, France and Spain would prey upon the colonies.

Students study Thomas Paine’s *Common Sense*, published in January 1776. Paine galvanized support for independence by persuasively arguing that America needed to break free from a government that violated the natural rights of its citizens. “We have it in our power, to begin the world over again . . . the birthday of a new world is at hand,” Paine promised. He also argued for unification of the colonies and for a historically unstable system of representative government. Over 120,000 copies of *Common Sense* sold in the first few months of publication.

Paine’s arguments became the foundation of the Declaration of Independence, drafted by Thomas Jefferson. Students should consider the following question: **What were the goals of the Declaration of Independence?** Influenced by leading Enlightenment thinkers as well as other revolutionaries, the Declaration of Independence listed grievances against King George, outlined a social contract between the government and the governed, and declared independence from Great Britain. Teachers should help students read and understand the Declaration, given its importance to American history and its relevance today. Although written in the eighteenth century, its discussion of natural rights and the relationship between the governed and the government became pillars of American democracy.

To focus student attention on these important concepts, teachers may engage students in structured group projects to consider the implications of selected phrases from the document, including, “created equal,” “inalienable rights,” and “consent of the governed.” In an essay or oral presentation, students may explain one or two of the major ideas expressed in the Declaration of Independence to illustrate the connections to the Enlightenment, or conversely, to investigate how the document condemned Great Britain.

Grade Five Classroom Example: Road to Revolution Unit

Students in Ms. Cheek’s fifth-grade class have just analyzed several paintings that depict events from the American Revolution. Students worked in pairs to note their observations of details in the paintings, make inferences, and list their questions. The students infer from the battle scene that some type of war was going on and from the type of clothing and weapons depicted that it was in the past. Students might ask these questions: What is going on? Who is fighting? What does it look like they are fighting for? When did this happen? Ms. Cheek asks the students to discuss what causes wars and people to fight, and she charts their answers.

Ms. Cheek says the titles of the paintings and dramatically asks, “How did this Revolutionary War happen? What could have possibly occurred that made the colonists want to revolt against their king and country?” She then lets the students know they will initiate an investigation to answer the questions: What led up to the Revolutionary War? What events, people, or ideas were the most important in convincing people to revolt and go to war?

To develop the big picture, students are assigned in pairs to research events, people, and ideas (for example, the Stamp Act, Boston Massacre, the Townshend Acts, the Sons of Liberty, Thomas Paine and the ideas expressed in *Common Sense*) that led up to the war and create a timeline card that summarizes the event and tells why it is important. The students start by utilizing the index in their textbook to locate information about their assigned topic. Then they read the textbook and take notes on a graphic organizer.

Ms. Cheek has created a research center with informational books at a variety of reading levels and several computers with quality, child-friendly Web sites bookmarked. The students are instructed to use a minimum of two informational sources and to synthesize these sources to create a summary. The students revise and edit their summaries before creating a large timeline card with the date and an illustration.

Once the timeline cards are completed, they are placed on a large timeline in the front of the classroom. Students present their card, describing their event

Example *(continued)*

and why it was important, while the other students take notes to create a smaller, foldable timeline for their research notebook. Students are encouraged to complete their individual timelines when they have time over the next few days. After Ms. Cheek and the students discuss their preliminary ideas in relation to their unit questions, she tells the students that they are to continue their investigation by digging a bit deeper into some of the events, ideas, and people on their timeline.

Over the next few weeks, Ms. Cheek guides the students as they study these events, ideas, and people in more detail by analyzing primary and secondary sources and reading children's books, including informational books and historical fiction. The students participate in a simulation, taking on the character and perspective of different social classes: a loyalist and patriot, gentry, middling sort, and slaves. After researching their point of view, the students then participate in a debate about whether to revolt. During these activities and smaller investigations, Ms. Cheek and students regularly return to the class timeline and the big investigative question and discuss their ideas with new evidence recorded in their research notebooks.

The students culminate the unit with a performance task that requires students to write a claim-based essay. The students are asked to evaluate all of the information in their notebook and on their timeline and to choose five to six events, people, or ideas that they think were the most important in convincing people to revolt and go to war. After individually choosing their events and preparing for a discussion, students meet in small groups and discuss their ideas and evidence. Students are then given a chance to revise their ideas before using a graphic organizer or a thinking map to write a draft of their essay. Teachers allow students some time to revise and edit their essays before creating a final draft.

CA HSS Content Standard: 5.6

CA HSS Analysis Skills (K-5): Chronological and Spatial Thinking 1, Historical Interpretation 1, 3

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RI.5.2, RI.5.3, RI.5.6, RI.5.9, W.5.2, W.5.5, W.5.7, W.5.9b, SL.5.1, SL.5.4

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.5.1, 3, 6a, 10b, 11a; ELD.PII.5.2b

The American Revolution

- How did the American Revolution start?
- How was the war fought differently, depending on where the battles took place and who was fighting?
- How were Natives, free blacks, slaves, and women important in the conduct of the war?

Students can begin investigating the roots of war by exploring this question: **How did the American Revolution start?** As the war began with the clashes at Lexington and Concord, the second Continental Congress met in 1775 to begin administering and coordinating the war effort, as well to establish revolutionary governments in the colonies. A veteran of the Seven Years' War, George Washington commanded the Continental Army and fought key battles at Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Valley Forge, and Yorktown. His task was unique in that he was charged with removing the British while fighting a defensive war.

Students can immerse themselves in the major events in the Revolution, including the battles of Bunker Hill and Saratoga and Patrick Henry's appeal to his fellow legislators to support the fight. In their study of the war, students consider the rebels' alliance with France, the “. . . single most important diplomatic success of the colonists . . .” (U.S. Department of State). Although the French shared a common enemy with the colonists (having lost to Britain in the Seven Years' War and their own North American territory through the Treaty of Paris of 1763), they were initially reluctant to support the American colonists' fight against the British. In an appeal led by Benjamin Franklin, the rebels ultimately secured significant support from France in the form of loans, arms and ammunition, uniforms and other supplies, as well as military troops and naval support. This support was integral to the colonists' defeat of the British at Yorktown in 1781.

Students can expand their understanding of the development of the American Revolution by considering the following question: **How was the war fought differently, depending on where the battles took place and who was fighting?** In addition to the conventional style of warfare conducted by the Continental Army, much of the fighting in the colonies was done by local militias that spontaneously took up their own arms and engaged in battles with the British Regulars, known

as Red Coats. In this context, each side courted alliances from American Indians who knew the terrain. Most American Indians ultimately sided with the British; during the Revolution, approximately 1,500 Iroquois fought with British soldiers. The American Indians had the potential for losing vast amounts of land if the colonists won. This fear proved to be prophetic with the passage of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 and, nearly a half century later, with the Trail of Tears, the forceful removal and relocation of American Indians from their homelands. To better understand what was at stake for various members of colonial society, students might consider the following investigative questions: **Who fought at Yorktown, and why were they there?** This enables students to understand the interests that other nations and foreign individuals had in the outcome of the war.

To understand the diversity of experiences during the war, students should address the following question: **How were Natives, free blacks, slaves, and women important in the conduct of the war?** Students also examine the issues at stake for free blacks and slaves, as well as that group's contributions to the war. Thousands of black men fought on both sides of the war. In Virginia, the royal governor Lord Dunmore promised freedom to slaves who fought for the British cause, and in the closing days of the war, he upheld his promise. For many black people, in bondage and free, the Revolutionary War allowed a vision of liberty that was not fully attained. Several years after the war, the northern states abolished slavery, and the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 banned slavery from the new territories north of the Ohio River. The antislavery movement did not, however, abolish slavery in the South, where nine out of ten American slaves lived.

In the spring of 1776, Abigail Adams asked John Adams to “remember the Ladies,” as he and other statesmen contemplated establishing a new nation and delineating the rights of citizens. To understand the role of women in the Revolutionary War, students should examine the Daughters of Liberty, the experiences of women who directly supported the war effort, the unique challenges and opportunities slave women faced, and the changing role of women. The contributions of women traveling with troops included nursing, cooking, laundering, and cleaning. Teachers guide students in discussing the effects of the revolutionary struggle on women by comparing women's pre- and postwar status.

Students can learn about cause and effect by exploring how the Revolutionary War established important roles for mothers, often called Republican Motherhood,

which imparted to women an important civic duty: educating and raising children to inherit the republican form of government and demonstrating their proper roles in civic life.

Even if people did not actively engage in battle, the Revolution forced all individuals living in the colonies to endure extreme economic and personal hardships. Wartime inflation and laws that prohibited the hoarding of goods deprived most families of materials they had been accustomed to purchasing or consuming. To gain a fuller understanding of the era and how the war was experienced on the ground, students can examine the contributions of Abigail Adams, Deborah Sampson, Mercy Otis Warren, Nathan Hale, Haym Salomon, Phillis Wheatley, Mary Ludlow, and Benedict Arnold. By focusing their studies on an individual affected by the Revolution, students can more fully explore one perspective, view primary sources related to him/her, investigate change over time, and make claims of historical significance about how people changed because of the war.

Through the principles set forth in *Common Sense* and the Declaration of Independence, many Americans realized for the first time the contradiction between the ideals of natural rights and representative government on the one hand and slavery on the other hand. To deepen their understanding of this period, students can read biographies of leaders such as George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, and Benjamin Franklin; they might also read Ralph Waldo Emerson’s “Concord Hymn,” Henry Wadsworth Longfellow’s 1863 poem “Paul Revere’s Ride,” and historical fiction such as Esther Forbes’ *Johnny Tremain*, Patricia Clapp’s *I’m Deborah Sampson: A Soldier in the War of the Revolution*, James L. Collier’s *My Brother Sam Is Dead*, Russell Freedman’s *Washington at Valley Forge*, Rosalyn Schanzer’s *George vs. George: The American Revolution as Seen from Both Sides*, Trinka Hakes Noble’s *The Scarlett Stockings Spy*, and Kay Winter’s *Colonial Voices: Hear Them Speak*.



The Development and Significance of the U.S. Constitution

- What were the Articles of Confederation? Why did they ultimately fail?
- How did the Constitutional Convention attempt to balance the interests of all of the states?
- What was the purpose of the preamble to the Constitution?
- What was the Great Compromise? How did the Constitution get ratified with the inclusion of the Bill of Rights?

Students can start their exploration of the new government by examining the following questions: **What were the Articles of Confederation? Why did they ultimately fail?** The Articles of Confederation were the first attempt to create a federal government for the 13 autonomous states that had freed themselves from British rule. The Articles provided a governing structure for the United States during the Revolutionary War, but quickly proved to be inadequate for the needs of the new nation. The Articles, which were finally ratified by all 13 states in 1781, enabled the new country to fight the Revolutionary War, negotiate with foreign powers, and expand to the west. However, the Articles established a weak central government, one that lacked an executive branch and a national judiciary.

Under the Articles, Congress also could not regulate commerce; therefore, states were able to impose barriers to trade with other states. Congress could not even force individual states to contribute to the national treasury. Because a strong central government was lacking and consequently unable to respond to domestic crises, such as Shays' Rebellion in Massachusetts, and enforce a coherent and united foreign policy, national leaders began to call for a new governmental structure.

By the spring of 1787, plans were underway to revise the Articles of Confederation. Although there was general agreement about the failure of the Articles, the debate over the size and scope of the federal government remained. James Madison played an influential role in planning the Constitutional Convention and setting its agenda. Between May and September of 1787, 55 delegates met in Philadelphia to draft the U.S. Constitution. Students learn about

the delegates to better understand the conflicts and compromises that were ultimately embedded in the new Constitution.

Although these delegates were geographically dispersed and held different ideas about government, they shared personal traits and common characteristics that set them apart from other white men with the franchise. The majority, mainly born in the colonies, had fought in the war; 41 had served in the Continental Congress. Although some, such as Benjamin Franklin, were self-taught, most were relatively well educated. Most were wealthy and owned slaves. As a brief activity to survey the framers of the Constitution, students can collect biographical information about each man (including education, geographic area, personal wealth, slave ownership status, and economic wealth).

Students can connect their studies of the Constitutional Convention by investigating the following question:

How did the Constitutional Convention attempt to balance the interests of all of the states? With an understanding of the framers' perspectives, students can participate in mock Constitutional Conventions to consider the document's major compromises. In the Great Compromise, the framers divided the federal government's legislative power between two houses, one which represented all states equally and another in which state population accounted for state representatives. The framers also agreed with the 3/5 compromise: three-fifths of the slave population would be counted in determining states' representation in the national legislature and for imposing property taxes. Lastly, the Northwest Ordinance codified the process for admitting new states.



Grade Five Classroom Example: The Preamble (Integrated ELA/Literacy and Early U.S. History)

In Ms. Brouhard's fifth-grade class, students have been studying the founding of the Republic. Students will now focus closely on the Preamble to the Constitution. Through a close reading of two drafts of the Preamble, students can further develop their ability to compare and contrast arguments and make their own and historical interpretations. In answering the guiding question **What was the purpose of the Preamble?**, students prepare to learn about the rights and responsibilities detailed in the Constitution and the purpose for its structure of government.

After introducing the guiding question, Ms. Brouhard distributes two different copies of the Preamble: one written in August of 1787, and the other (the final) approved by the framers the following month. Students first read both versions independently, annotating any differences between the two drafts. In pairs, students next discuss any changes they noticed between the first draft and the final version and then speculate about the reasons for those changes.

The students then complete a guided sentence deconstruction activity, which is designed to help students see how words and phrases are combined to make meaning and convey information. Students sort the text of the draft Preamble into four categories of grammar: (1) prepositional phrases that illustrate time and relationship; (2) nouns and adjectives that show the students the subject of a sentence; (3) action words, such as verbs and adverbs, to highlight the action taking place; and (4) nouns and adjectives that show who or what is receiving the action.

Example *(continued)*

Prepositional Phrase/Time Marker	Subject	Action	Object of Action
	We the People of the states of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia	do ordain, declare, and establish	the following Constitution
for the government of ourselves and our posterity.			

Next they do the same breakdown of the final Preamble.

Prepositional Phrase/Time Marker	Subject	Action	Object of Action
	We, the people of the United States of America		

Example *(continued)*

in order		to form	a more Perfect Union
		establish	justice
		Insure	domestic tranquility
		Promote	the general welfare
		and secure	the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity
		do ordain and establish	this Constitution
for the United States of America.			

Through this close analysis and follow-up structured discussion activity, Ms. Brouhard helps students understand the idea that the people of the United States created a government to protect the personal and national interests of the people for themselves and future generations.

Next, Ms. Brouhard prepares her students for writing and reinforces new learning. She provides them with structured paraphrase practice using the two Preamble drafts and their sentence deconstruction notes.

After substantial analysis of the two Preambles and practice in paraphrasing the meaning, students then return to the guiding question: **What was the purpose of the Preamble?** Ms. Brouhard first guides her students through a deconstruction of the question to make sure they all understand the task at hand. Then, using sentence frames, she will show them how to use evidence gleaned from the primary sources in order to make their own interpretations.

Example *(continued)*

Source: California History–Social Science Project, University of California, Davis. This example is summarized from a full unit and available for free download, developed as a part of the Teaching Democracy project, a partnership between Cal Humanities (www.calhum.org) and the California History–Social Science Project (CHSSP, <http://chssp.ucdavis.edu>).

Contributors: Jennifer Brouhard, Oakland Unified School District; and Tuyen Tran, Ph.D., CHSSP.

Primary Sources

Draft Preamble to the United States Constitution, August, 1787. Source: Library of Congress, Rare Book and Special Collections Division, Alfred Whital Stern Collection of Lincolniana (<http://hdl.loc.gov/loc.rbc/bdsdcc.c01a1>).

Preamble to the United States Constitution, September 17, 1787. Source: Library of Congress, Rare Book and Special Collections Division, Continental Congress & Constitutional Convention Broadside Collection (<http://hdl.loc.gov/loc.rbc/bdsdcc.c0801>).

CA HSS Content Standard: 5.7

CA HSS Analysis Skills (K-5): Chronological and Spatial Thinking 3, Historical Interpretation 1

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RI.5.1, W.5.1a,b,d, W.5.8, L.5.6

The U.S. Constitution vested the federal government with power divided among three branches, while it also preserved states' and individual rights. Teachers may use the metaphor of a three-legged stool to describe the three branches of government. Students learn about the significance of the Constitution by investigating the following questions: **What was the Great Compromise? How did the Constitution get ratified with the inclusion of the Bill of Rights?** Students also study how state constitutions written after the Revolution influenced the writing of the U.S. Constitution. Students identify the division of power among the executive, legislative, and judicial branches and study powers enumerated to states and citizens. Students may study Article I, Sections 8, 9, and 10 to investigate the economic aspects of the Constitution (for example, the regulation of interstate commerce, congressional power to tax, and enforcement of copyright).

Students also address the debate over ratification and the addition of the Bill of Rights by conducting a simulated congressional hearing in which students take and defend positions that framers of the Constitution debated. The Bill of Rights was originally proposed during the Constitutional Convention, but this proposal was defeated. Federalists who supported the Constitution argued that the Bill of Rights was unnecessary because federal power was already limited and most states already had their own bill of rights. Anti-Federalists ultimately demanded the federal bill of rights be included for ratification of the new Constitution. They considered it the ultimate protection against a much more powerful central government. Students can study the Bill of Rights by working in small groups to create posters focusing on each right. The posters may then be displayed around the school campus. This study lays the foundation for the continued examination of the Constitution in later grade levels. Learning songs that express American ideals, such as “America the Beautiful” and “The Star-Spangled Banner,” can guide students to understand the meaning of the American creed and the spirit of the era.

Life in the Young Republic

- Who came to the United States in the first half of the nineteenth century? Where did they settle? How did they change the country?
- How did westward migration change the country and the experience of being an American?

In this unit, students examine the daily lives of those who built the young republic under the new Constitution. The following questions should frame students’ studies of the era: **Who came to the United States in the first half of the nineteenth century? Where did they settle? How did they change the country?** Between 1789 and 1850, new waves of immigrants arrived from Europe, especially English, Scots–Irish, Irish, and Germans. The Great Irish Famine (1840s) helped to push immigrants to come to the United States during this period. Traveling by overland wagons, canals, flatboats, and steamboats, these newcomers advanced into the fertile Ohio and Mississippi valleys and through the Cumberland Gap to the south. Students may want to listen to or sing the songs of the boatmen and pioneers and read the tall tales of figures such as Mike Fink and Paul Bunyan, read Enid Meadowcroft’s *By Wagon* or historical fiction such as *Dandelions* by Eve Bunting.

Students also learn about the Louisiana Purchase and the expeditions of Lewis and Clark, guided by Sacagawea, and of John C. Fremont. The themes of exploration, emigration, and immigration help students examine the significance of mobility and geography during this period in American history. Stressing the roles played by transportation technologies in this historical drama can make the processes and people under study far more accessible to students learning about a variety of cultures, communities, and environments.

The introduction of the horse on the Great Plains and in the Rocky Mountains may be compared with the inventions of the steamboat and the railroads and how they influenced the development and settlement of the American interior. **How did these new methods of transportation transform people’s lives? How did they reshape their relationships with distance, time, and other communities? How did they change the possibilities for production and consumption?**

Interest in promoting civic virtue among citizens increased with the establishment of a republic. Mothers had the important role of raising their sons to become virtuous and active citizens. To ensure that women could fulfill this new role, the doors of education began to open more widely to women. For example, Benjamin Rush, who signed the Declaration of Independence, co-founded the Young Ladies’ Academy of Philadelphia in 1787, said to be the first all-female academy in the United States.

The New Nation’s Westward Expansion

- What did the West mean for the nation’s politics, economy, social organization, and identity?
- How did westward movement transform indigenous environments and communities?

The American West should be presented as a borderlands region inhabited by diverse and competing populations. Students should investigate the following question as they proceed with their studies of the American West: **What did the West mean for the nation’s politics, economy, social organization, and identity?** A teacher-guided analysis of John Gast’s painting “American Progress” (1872) may introduce students to allegory in art and the concept of Manifest Destiny, despite the fact that the painting was rendered more than 20 years after

the initial concept and application of Manifest Destiny. In this unit, students examine the movement of Natives on the Plains; some moved west, while others moved south and east. The flow of white migration westward began with fur traders and mountain men who made the first westward forays. Many fur traders and mountain men married Native American women who served as liaisons between the two cultures.

Westward migration continued with settlers heading for Texas, Mormon families on their way to the new Zion in Utah, Midwestern farmers moving to western Oregon's fertile valleys, and forty-niners bound for the Mother Lode region of California. These migrants were joined by whalers, New England sailors engaged in the hide and tallow trade in California, and traders of sea otter and seal furs, who sailed their clipper ships around Cape Horn and westward to the Pacific. Migrants from the United States arrived in areas already inhabited and claimed by diverse populations of American Indians, Mexicans, British, and small numbers of Russians and Chileans. They also encountered immigrants from Asia, including China, Japan, Korea, the Philippines, and India, in search of labor in gold mines and farming.

Folklore, photographs (daguerreotypes) of pioneer families, and the journals and diaries of historical actors can help bring this period to life. By studying primary sources and maps to locate overland trails, mountains, and rivers, students gain insight into how natural systems (terrain, rivers, vegetation, and climate) affected the travelers' experiences as they migrated across the country. By identifying the natural regions in the overland trails and analyzing the effects of weather, seasons, and climate, students understand the decisions settlers had to make when choosing which trail to follow and when to depart on their journey. They learn about how life at the end of the overland trails differed from conditions in the eastern states. Students focus on the factors that led people to establish settlements in particular locations, primary among them the availability of natural resources (EEI curriculum unit "Nature and Newcomers," 5.8.4; see appendix G for California Environmental Principle V).

Students might dramatize the experience of emigrants moving west to Oregon by wagon train. Excerpts from children's literature help students understand the organization of expeditions, the scouting of a trail, and the dangers faced by pioneers, which included raging rivers, parched deserts, sandstorms and

snowstorms, and lack of water or medicine. Students may write a journal or create a scrapbook as though they were traveling on the Oregon Trail. Conversely, teachers may divide the students into distinct groups.

Several groups may represent emigrant wagon trains headed for Oregon and/or California, while other groups of students are given the task of imagining the experiences of American Indian communities who live in the regions through which these migrants pass. Students may consider where the trail ran; the influence of geographic terrain, rivers, vegetation, and climate; and life in the territories at the end of these trails. This exercise should introduce new perspectives on westward migration and reframe how students understand these unfolding relationships.

Students can address the following questions: **How does the increased traffic of tens of thousands of emigrants transform indigenous environments and resources? What are the advantages and disadvantages of these migrations for indigenous communities whose territories intersect with these trails and transportation corridors?** Students study the resistance of American Indians to encroachments as well as internecine Indian conflicts, including the competing claims for control of lands and the government's policy of Indian removal. High-quality informational books for children, such as *Trail of Tears* by Joseph Bruchac, may be compared to other texts and primary sources.

Settlement touched diverse groups of people across lines of ethnicity, nationality, race, and gender. Pioneer women played many roles in coping with the rigors of daily life on the frontier. Biographies, journals, and diaries disclose the strength and resourcefulness of pioneer women who helped to farm the land and worked as missionaries, teachers, and entrepreneurs. The autobiographical works of Laura Ingalls Wilder provide a unique perspective on these topics. Some slave women gained their freedom in the West.



Once established by Anglo–American settlers, many western communities and territories proved to be less beholden to eastern traditions, as evidenced by the territory of Wyoming granting women the right to vote in 1869, followed by Utah, Colorado, and Idaho. Mexican settlers also migrated into New Mexico, Texas, and California.

A study of maps and geographic landmarks explains how and when California, Texas, and other western lands became part of the United States. Battles for independence followed Anglo–American settlement in modern-day Texas. The war with Mexico (1846–1848) led to annexation of western lands by the United States. These events provide opportunities to focus on the Hispanic people of California and the Southwest, their distinctive contributions to American culture, and the effects of the events on their lives. Students should come away from their fifth-grade study of U.S. history with an understanding of how the United States emerged, expanded, and transformed into a nation that touched both the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. They must also be able to explain the diverse groups of people whose lives were transformed due to the nation’s growth.

CHAPTER 9

Instructional Practice for Grades Six Through Eight

As described in the Introduction, in addition to providing history–social science content, teachers must emphasize disciplinary and literacy practices—investigation, close reading, analysis of evidence, and argumentative writing. The *History–Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools* (History–Social Science Content Standards), the *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy), and the *California English Language Development Standards* (CA ELD Standards) guide these practices in history–social science. Educators may also want to consider the *College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards* (C3 Framework), published in 2013 by the National Council for the Social Studies. All of these resources emphasize the need for students to think, read, and write in a discipline-specific way. The skills noted below are to be learned through, and applied to, the content standards for grades six through eight. They are also to be assessed with the content standards in these grades.

Disciplinary Thinking and Analysis Skills

The Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills and the C3 Framework address the intellectual skills students should learn and apply when engaged in inquiry (utilizing the individual tools of each discipline to investigate a significant question and marshal relevant evidence in support of their own interpretations) in history–social science courses in grades six through eight. The skills described below are organized according to the four main social science disciplines: civics/government, economics, geography, and history. However, across all of the disciplines students should understand and frame questions of disciplinary significance that can be answered by research and study.

Civics and Government

When studying civics and government, students explore how people participate in the governing of society. In middle school, these skills include students' abilities to explain and distinguish the powers, roles, and responsibilities of citizens, government, and the media. Students should also be able to explain the relevance of individual perspective, civic virtues, and democratic principles and human rights when people address issues and problems in government and civil society. Students analyze ideas and principles that influence social and political systems as well as the powers and limits of those systems. Additionally, students learn how to assess specific rules and laws (both actual and proposed) as means of addressing public problems. Students develop the ability to apply civic virtues and democratic principles in school and community settings. In addition, these civics-related activities can be woven into a variety of classroom content areas:

1. Students analyze rules, laws, and public policies in terms of effectiveness, identified benefits and costs, and weighing and balancing consequences.
2. Students use deliberative discussion, including consideration of multiple points of view, when making decisions or making judgments about political issues or problems.
3. Students construct arguments and take positions on issues by using claims and evidence from multiple sources and identify the strengths and weaknesses of the arguments.

4. Students apply a range of deliberative and democratic procedures to evaluate and plan various actions to address issues and problems in school and community.

Economics

To make effective economic decisions, students need to understand how individuals, businesses, governments, and societies use human, physical, and natural resources. The economic reasoning skills that middle school students need include the ability to explain how economic decisions affect the well-being of individuals, businesses, and society. Students learn how to interpret basic indicators of economic performance and conduct cost–benefit analyses of economic and political issues. They should understand that people voluntarily exchange goods and services when both parties expect to gain as a result of the trade, that markets facilitate the production and exchange of goods and services, that there are benefits and costs of government policies and that those benefits and costs affect individuals and groups differently.

Geography

In studying geography, students explore local characteristics of places and learn about how places connect to each other. Middle-school students’ geographic reasoning skills include the use of maps, satellite images, photographs, and other representations to explain relationships between the locations of places and regions and different environmental and cultural features. Students also explain how the physical and human characteristics of places and regions are connected to human identities and cultures. They analyze how relationships between humans and environments (including human-induced environmental change and changes in technology) affect settlement and movement, diffusion of ideas and cultural practices, and conflict and cooperation. Additionally, middle school students should be able to identify and explain the relationship between the natural environment and economic growth in a given community or region.

History

Historical thinking is a process of chronological reasoning, which means wrestling with issues of causality, connections, significance, perspectives, and

context. The goal is to develop credible arguments about the past based on reasoned interpretation of evidence from a variety of primary and secondary sources in diverse media formats. In middle school, students place events, ideas, and developments in historical context by considering the date, place, and other developments happening at the same time. They evaluate the relevance, credibility, and utility of a historical source based on information such as author, date, place of origin, intended audience, and purpose.

Students analyze the factors that influenced the perspectives of people during different historical eras and how and why the perspectives have changed over time. Students understand and distinguish cause, effect, sequence, and correlation in historical events, including the long- and short-term causal relations. Finally, students detect possible limitations in the historical record and recognize that interpretations of history are subject to change as new information emerges.

Literacy Skills

The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards for grades six through eight represent a big leap for students as they move from the elementary grades to the middle grades in all disciplines. Argument is introduced at grade six. Students move beyond stating reasons and evidence to tracing and evaluating arguments and claims in texts. They also write their own arguments supported by relevant evidence and clear reasoning rather than simply state their own opinions. The CA ELD Standards also introduce argument at grades six through eight, echoing the growing sophistication of the thinking expected at this level.

The reading and writing standards in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy are meant to complement the History–Social Science Content Standards and help students grapple with primary and secondary sources. At the same time, history–social science teachers also use the CA ELD Standards to determine the best way to support their English learners (ELs) in achieving the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the History–Social Science Content Standards and curriculum. The literacy standards for grades six through eight make clear the importance of both content and literacy.

English Language Development

Children and youths who are ELs face the unique challenge of learning English as an additional language¹ at the same time as they are learning history–social science content through English.² This challenge creates a dual responsibility for all K–12 teachers of ELs. The first responsibility is to ensure that all ELs have full access to the intellectually rich history–social science curriculum at their grade level. The second is to ensure that ELs rapidly develop advanced levels of English in history–social science, the type of English that is necessary for success with academic tasks and texts in these disciplines. To fulfill this dual responsibility, California promotes a comprehensive approach to English language development (ELD) as an integral part of a robust instructional program for all ELs. This approach includes *both* integrated ELD *and* designated ELD.³

Integrated ELD	↔	Designated ELD
<p>All teachers with ELs in their classrooms use the CA ELD Standards <i>in tandem with</i> the focal CA CCSS for ELA/ Literacy and other content standards.</p>	↔	<p>A protected time during the regular school day when teachers use the CA ELD Standards as the focal standards in ways that build <i>into</i> and <i>from content instruction</i> in order to develop critical language ELs need for content learning in English.</p>

1. The term *English as an additional language* is used intentionally to signal that an explicit goal in California is for ELs to add English to their linguistic repertoires and maintain and continue to develop proficiency in their primary language(s).
2. Some ELs are enrolled in alternative bilingual programs where they may be exclusively learning history–social science in their primary language or learning history–social science in both their primary language and in English.
3. *Integrated* and *designated* ELD may be unfamiliar terms. These new terms encompass elements of previously used terms, such as *sheltered instruction*, *specially designed academic instruction in English [SDAIE]*, or *dedicated ELD*. It is beyond the scope of the *ELA/ELD Framework* to identify all previously used or existing terms, and readers should read the framework carefully to determine how the new terminology reflects, or differs from, current terms and understandings.

Reading

In grades six through eight, the reading strand of the CCSS presents rigorous concepts of evidence, argumentation, and integration and analysis of multiple sources and perspectives. The reading standards for literacy in history/social studies direct students to cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources. Students are expected to be able to determine central ideas, information, or conclusions in a text and provide summaries of what they have read. Students must be able to describe how information is presented and identify aspects of text that reveal the author’s point of view. They must be able to distinguish facts, reasoned judgments, and opinions or speculation in a text and analyze the relationship between primary and secondary sources on the same topic.

Providing students with significant inquiry-based and text-dependent historical questions can guide students to closely read and analyze primary and secondary documents to meet these standards. Sources such as biographies, speeches, letters, essays, plays, films, and novels both deepen understanding of key historical narratives, ideas, periods, events, and influential actors and provide evidence for students to answer those inquiry questions. Literary and informational texts can be paired in units that encourage collaboration between English language arts and history–social science courses.

The CA ELD Standards intersect with and amplify these CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. English learners in grades six through eight explain ideas, phenomena, processes, and relationships based on close reading of texts, making inferences and drawing conclusions. They evaluate and analyze language choices, explaining how writers and speakers use language to present ideas and claims that are well supported by evidence.

It is important that students who experience difficulty with reading receive support while learning from texts; **teachers should not avoid texts as sources of knowledge with students who find them challenging and rely exclusively on nontext media and experiences. Replacing texts with other sources of information or rewriting them in simpler language—in spite of the intention to ensure access to the curricula—limits students’ skill to independently learn with texts in the future.** In other words, instruction should be provided to enable all students to learn with texts alongside other learning experiences.

Writing

As students advance through the middle school grades, they become increasingly effective at expressing themselves through different genres of writing. In grades six through eight, they build on previous learning to write more complex and cohesive texts of different types for various purposes, continuing to develop and organize their writing in a way that is appropriate to the task, purpose, and audience. They engage in planning, revising, editing, rewriting, or trying a new approach in their writing. They continue to write routinely over extended and shorter time frames for a range of discipline-specific tasks, purposes, and audiences.

In history–social science and the other content areas, students begin writing arguments about discipline-specific content by introducing claims and distinguishing them from opposing claims, supporting claims logically and with relevant and accurate data and evidence, and establishing and maintaining a formal style. They also write informative/explanatory texts, including narration of historical events and processes, using relevant, well-chosen facts and appropriate and varied transitions.

The CA ELD Standards advocate students writing arguments collaboratively and independently in longer and more detailed informational texts. All students, especially ELs, benefit from a focus on making choices about how to use language in their writing for clarity, precision, and variety, adapting their choices to suit the task, purpose, and audience. For example, students learn to express attitudes and opinions or temper statements with nuanced modal expressions and use grade-appropriate general academic words and domain-specific words and phrases. They also develop their understandings about how English works to make meaning via structuring cohesive texts, expanding and enriching ideas, and connecting and condensing ideas in writing. As do all students, ELs in middle school work their way toward full proficiency in English by becoming increasingly conscious about the language choices they make to express their ideas in writing. In other words, they learn to make intentional choices about particular language resources (e.g., cohesive devices, grammatical structures, vocabulary) in order to illustrate their understanding of content.

Research

Opportunities to engage in research contribute to students' history–social science content knowledge. The grade-span skills for building content knowledge through research call for students to conduct short research projects to answer a question and generate additional related, focused questions for further research or that allow for multiple avenues of exploration. These tasks require students to gather relevant information from multiple print and digital sources, assess the credibility of sources, quote or paraphrase data and the conclusions of others to avoid plagiarism, provide basic bibliographic information, use search terms effectively, and follow a standard format for citations. Students also apply grade-level reading and writing skills and standards to conduct this research.

CHAPTER 10

World History and Geography: Ancient Civilizations

- How did the environment influence human migration, ancient ways of life, and the development of societies?
- What were the early human ways of life (hunting and gathering, agriculture, civilizations, urban societies, states, and empires), and how did they change over time?
- How did the major religious and philosophical systems (Judaism, Greek thought, Hinduism, Buddhism, Confucianism) support individuals, rulers, and societies?

■ How did societies interact with each other? How did connections between societies increase over time?

Students in sixth-grade world history and geography classrooms learn about the earliest humans, the development of tools, the foraging way of life, agriculture, and the emergence of civilizations in Mesopotamia, Egypt, ancient Israel, the Indus River valley, China, Mesoamerica, and the Mediterranean basin. Although teachers should keep the focus on ancient events and problems, this course gives students the opportunity to grapple with geography, environmental issues, political systems and power structures, and civic engagement with fundamental ideas about citizenship, freedom, morality, and law, which also exist in the modern world. Students practice history as an interpretive discipline. They read written primary sources and secondary sources, investigate visual primary sources, and learn how to analyze multiple points of view, cite evidence from sources, and make claims in writing and speaking based on that evidence.

Although most of the sixth-grade standards are organized regionally, there are patterns that the teacher may use to connect the regional studies to world history. The patterns are as follows:

- The movement of early humans across continents and their adaptations to the geography and climate of new regions
- The rise of diverse civilizations, characterized by economies of surplus, centralized states, social hierarchies, cities, networks of trade, art and architecture, and systems of writing
- The growth of urban societies and changes in societies (due to social class divisions, slavery, divisions of labor between men and women)
- The development of new political institutions (monarchy, empire, democracy) and new ideas (citizenship, freedom, morality, law)
- The birth and spread of religious and philosophical systems (Judaism, Greek thought, Hinduism, Buddhism, Confucianism), which responded to human needs and supported social norms and power structures

- The development and growth of links between societies through trade, diplomacy, migration, conquest, and the diffusion of goods and ideas

The first section below outlines the development of these themes throughout the world over time and is divided into three chronological periods: Beginnings to 4000 Before Common Era (BCE); 4000–1000 BCE: Kingdoms and Innovations; and 1000 BCE–300 Common Era (CE): An Age of Empires and Interactions. The second section outlines the development of these themes following the regional structure of the existing sixth-grade standards.

Beginnings to 4000 BCE

Modern humans, *Homo sapiens*, are members of the great ape family. About 25 million years ago, a medium-sized primate group split into apes and monkeys; both groups found an ecological niche in trees. Apes did not have tails, relied primarily on their arms for locomotion by swinging in trees (in contrast to monkeys who primarily used four legs for travel). Apes developed a keener sense of vision; monkeys developed a better sense of smell. Subsequently, the ape family branched into two major lines—hominins and what are now usually called apes.

Our early ancestors, the hominins, and chimpanzees, our closest relative, appeared about 6 million years ago. Both were partially bipedal. By 2.5 million years ago, these early hominins had evolved to walking upright. After passing through the australopithecine (southern ape) stage, the hominins eventually gave rise to our genus *Homo* (our first humanlike ancestors), which initially appeared about 2.5 million years ago in Africa. The brain of this new genus was about the same size as that of a chimpanzee but grew steadily through the next million years. There were several species of these early *homo* lines whose population began to grow, though very gradually, after they began to make use of tools more extensively. Our early human ancestors evolved larger brains in response to the survival needs of hunting and gathering in small bands, employed rudimentary stone tools for skinning animals and for weapons (such as spearheads and knives), developed simple clothing and shelter, and used fire opportunistically. Pair-bonding, which allowed for more extensive child rearing, contributed to survival success.

There are various theories of how these hominins evolved. Most scholars suggest that the continued growth of brain size necessitated larger food intake. About two

million years ago, a few of our early human ancestors migrated out of their east African homeland to the rest of that continent and subsequently spread throughout the world—to Europe and as far east as Indonesia and China. The various species of the *homo* line continued to evolve and eventually became the more modern *Homo erectus*, *Neanderthals*, and *Denisovans*. Students may use archaeological evidence, such as the carbon dating of bones, stone tools and weapons, DNA evidence of matrilineal and patrilineal descent, and the examination of food remains and campsites to consider the following questions: **How do we know about these early proto-humans? Why did they succeed in replacing other hominin lines?**

Around 200,000 years ago, our direct human ancestors appeared—modern *Homo sapiens* (the wise man)—who were anatomically the same as modern humans. At that time, there was nothing particularly special about our species compared to the other homo species. We coexisted with several other homo lines who also possessed similar brain sizes, walked upright, used fire, ate a variety of foods, were skilled gatherers, progressed from scavengers to hunters of large animals, and used comparable tools. However, *Homo sapiens* were lighter, less muscled, more adaptable, and kept developing larger brains.

About 70,000 years ago, *Homo sapiens* began a major transformation. The species underwent a cognitive revolution which allowed us to acquire sophisticated language, the ability to abstract, imagine, and plan; and to develop the social skills and myth-making capacity required for group cohesion. These talents permitted *Homo sapiens* to develop more sophisticated tools and inventions, learn from one another, and pass technical, cultural, and organizational knowledge from one generation to the next. *Homo sapiens* also began to act collectively in large groups for foraging, hunting, and defense. These talents allowed our species to learn from experience and adapt more easily to changing conditions. Consequently, modern humans were able to survive the varied and extreme climates found on this planet.

Under one highly regarded explanation, the climate worsened around 160,000 years ago, leaving much of Africa uninhabitable. The numbers of our immediate ancestors declined precipitously, and some sought refuge on the southern coast where they learned to exploit the rich shellfish beds for food. Unlike territory with scattered resources, territory that featured dense collections of resources required a stationary home base and defense against others.

These ancestors evolved a genetically encoded prosocial proclivity: the ability to use sophisticated language and symbols, more advanced conceptual and cognitive capacities, and social lifestyle shifts to encourage sophisticated innovation and cooperation with unrelated individuals. These traits allowed them to better exploit and defend their resource-rich territories against invaders. With their increased brains and ability to cooperate, they became even more inventive. Their development of projectile weaponry, especially when coated with poison, was a revolutionary innovation that allowed for safer hunting. (Neanderthals never discovered bows and arrows, and many were killed getting too close to large animals in the hunt.)

The story of how our now fully human ancestors populated the earth, starting around 70,000 years ago, is fascinating. Although the narrative is generally understood, some details are known, some are controversial, and some are yet to be discovered. Students can consider the impact of population pressure, the availability of untapped hunting grounds, warfare, or even a sense of adventure as they consider the evidence for the migration and various routes taken. **Why did modern humans leave Africa? What happened to all the other hominids in Africa, or the Neanderthals who had evolved from earlier humans in Europe? How did modern humans travel across the hemispheres? How violent or aggressive were these early humans?**

In their investigations, students can consider the fact that as the modern humans dispersed around the world, the other lines became extinct. They can consider how modern humans from Indonesia crossed land bridges and developed the seafaring technology to settle the continent of Australia more than 40,000 years ago. And students may develop their own explanations of how, for 14,000 years, our species had populated both North and South America and every continent except Antarctica (although some islands such as New Zealand and Hawaii were not inhabited until much later).



In all these places, people survived by foraging, hunting, and fishing, and they lived in bands, that is, communities typically numbering no more than a few dozen men, women, and children. World population of our species began to rise but very gradually. Often, these bands were loosely associated with larger groups, such as tribes who had a common language and belief systems. For example, when the British conquered Australia in the eighteenth century, they found 300,000 to 700,000 hunter-gatherers organized into between 200 and 600 tribes (further divided into multiple bands) each with its own language, customs, norms, and belief systems.

Around 10,000 years ago, some humans began to domesticate plants and animals and experiment with farming. Others learned to mine for desired metals and precious stones after smelting was discovered. Their activities led to the development of new ways of life: agriculture in settled villages, trade, and pastoral nomadism. Students investigate why these radical changes began to occur after humans had lived exclusively as gatherers and hunters and still managed to adapt successfully to many climates and climatic changes over hundreds of thousands of years. **Why did some humans start to plant and harvest crops, live in crowded villages, and later build cities, accept the rule of monarchs, and pay taxes? Why did the pace of historical change in certain parts of the world begin to speed up?**

During this period, many technological and social discoveries or inventions occurred by building on the previous breakthroughs, such as the use of fire, cooking, boats, use of tools for hunting, defense, and daily life; and tools to make tools, language, expressions of emotions, the ability to understand what another person was thinking, planning, pair-bonding, cooperation, bands and tribes, clothing, sewing, containers, and art, including pigmentation, music and dance. The new innovations included domestication of animals and farming; smelting of copper, then bronze, then iron; the plow; twisted rope; musical instruments; beer and wine; religion and ancestor worship; more complex boats; and trade allowed for an increasing population and standard of living. Working in small groups, students can explore the impact of these discoveries and innovations by examining one discovery or invention in depth to develop and present a short oral presentation that both explains the innovation and speculates as to its overall significance.

4000–1000 BCE: Kingdoms and Innovations

At the beginning of the period between 4000 and 1000 BCE, the earliest complex urban societies, or civilizations, rose. By the end of this period, there were many urban societies, and their interaction had accelerated. During those three millennia, numerous technical and intellectual innovations appeared, especially in the dense agricultural societies that arose in the Middle East (notably Mesopotamia, Syria, Anatolia, and Persia), the Nile Valley of Africa, the Indus Valley civilization of the northern Indian subcontinent, China, and the lands around the Aegean Sea. By about 2000 BCE, urban societies also began to emerge in the Americas, starting with the Olmec civilization in Mesoamerica and Chavín in South America. Many inventions and ideas fundamental to modern life appeared, including the wheel, writing, more complex metallurgy, codes of law, mathematics, and astronomy. While cities grew in some areas, hunter-gatherers and village farmers remained in other areas. Increased trade occurred. Global population rose at a faster rate than it had before 4000 BCE.

Powerful people (warlords) took control of the tribes in larger areas, and eventually the strongest warlords formed states or city-states with governments headed by kings or, very occasionally, queens, often claiming authority from gods and passing on power to their own descendants. Supported by political elites (nobles, officials, warriors) and priests, these monarchs imposed taxes on ordinary city dwellers and rural people to pay for bureaucracies, armies, irrigation works, and monumental architecture. Writing systems were first invented to serve governments, religions, and merchants, and later became a way of transmitting religious, scientific, and literary ideas. Some of the religions of this era, such as early Hinduism and Judaism, set the stage for later world belief systems.

Migrations continued as farming peoples slowly expanded into tropical Africa and Southeast Asia, North and South America, and the temperate woodlands of Europe. In the steppes of Central Asia, a new way of life and type of society emerged after 4000 BCE. There, communities lived by herding domesticated animals such as sheep, cattle, or horses. Their economy, called *pastoral nomadism*, permitted humans to adapt in larger numbers to climates that were too dry for farming. Pastoral nomads lived mainly on the products of their livestock. They grazed herds over vast areas and came regularly in contact with urban societies, often to trade, sometimes to make war. By the end of this period, urban societies ruled by

monarchies had greatly expanded their control over agricultural regions, but many people still lived in small village, pastoral nomad, and hunter-gatherer societies.

1000 BCE–300 CE: An Age of Empires and Interchange

During these 1,300 years, many patterns of change established in the previous era continued, but at a faster pace. The number of cities multiplied, and states appeared in new forms that were bigger, more complex, and more efficient at coercing people and extracting taxes from them. A new form of state developed—the empire. Among the largest states of that era were the Assyrian and Babylonian Empires centered in Mesopotamia; the Achaemenid, Parthian, and Sasanian Empires in Persia; the Kushan Empire in Central Asia; the Maurya Empire in India; and the kingdom of Kush in the upper Nile River valley. The largest of all were the Roman Empire, which came to embrace the entire Mediterranean Sea region and much of Europe, and the Han Empire in China. At the dawn of the first millennium CE, these two states together ruled a small part of the earth’s land area, but roughly one-half of the world’s population.

A second key development of that era was the establishment of a thicker web of interregional communication and transport, which allowed goods, technologies, and ideas to move long distances. Interlocking networks of roads, such as the Silk Road, and sea-lanes in the Indian Ocean and Mediterranean Sea, connected empires, kingdoms, and regions of the Eastern Hemisphere with one another.

Merchants and other travelers created similar interconnections in Mesoamerica and along South America’s Andean mountain spine. Merchants traveled long distances in caravans and ships to connect farming and urban societies that lay along the rims of seas, deserts, and steppes.

In this period, the religions of Hinduism, Judaism, Buddhism, and Christianity and the philosophies of Confucianism and Greek thought emerged and spread within empires and along trade routes. These religious and philosophical systems changed as they developed, in order to address human needs, support social order, and adapt to different societies. The introduction of money (coins) around the sixth or fifth century BCE facilitated trade. The concept of metal money quickly spread through the ancient world, making its way to Greece, Egypt, Persia, Phoenicia, Carthage, India, China, and Rome.

The following section discusses the development of the above themes following the existing sixth-grade standards. Teachers use the guiding questions to focus on course themes and draw comparisons with other regional units.

Early Humankind and the Development of Human Societies

- How did the environment influence the migrations of early humans? How did early humans adapt to new environments and climate changes?
- How did people live by the gathering and hunting way of life?
- Why did some people develop agriculture and pastoral nomadism? What were the effects of these new ways of life?

In the first unit, students learn about the emergence and migrations of early humans, the gathering and hunting way of life, and the emergence of village agriculture and pastoral nomadism. To frame the topic of the emergence and migrations of early humans, the teacher uses these questions: **How did the environment influence the migrations of early humans? How did early humans adapt to new environments and climate changes?** For millions of years, the genetic ancestors of humans, known as *hominins*, used stone tools and lived on foods found by gathering and hunting. Archaeological evidence shows students that our earliest forebearers evolved in eastern Africa and that small bands of those ancestors migrated into Eurasia about 1.9 million years ago, driven by population gains and increased competition for food. Around 800,000 years ago, early humans discovered how to control fire, allowing them to cook food, keep away predators, and burn areas of land in order to flush out game.

Homo sapiens, that is, anatomically modern humans, evolved in Africa around 200,000 years ago. Modern humans adapted well to new environments, developing increasingly diverse stone and bone tools for collecting and processing food. About 100,000 years ago, our species developed the capacity for language, which accelerated technological change. Spoken language and the evolution of prosocial mental and social structures enabled humans to teach complex skills to each other, cooperate with others, pass ideas to the next generation, and talk about their world and the cosmos.

After leaving Africa 90,000 to 100,000 years ago, humans may have reached Australia 60,000 or more years ago and Europe 40,000 years ago. In the Middle East and Europe, humans encountered Neanderthals, a related hominid species who became extinct about 28,000 years ago. Early humans reached the Americas from Eurasia at least 12,000 years ago, possibly earlier.



Students use maps to identify the patterns of early human migration and settlement that populated the major regions of the world. Reading climate zone maps and studying climate change during the Pleistocene epoch (glacial and interglacial periods) helps students develop an understanding of the effects of climate on the Earth and on the expansion of human settlements. In the California

Education and the Environment Initiative (EEI) curriculum unit “Paleolithic People: Tools, Tasks, and Fire,” 6.1.1, students analyze why humans chose certain migration routes, settled in particular locations, developed lifestyles, cultures, and methods to extract, harvest, and consume natural resources to understand how early humans adapted to the natural systems and environmental cycles in different regions, and how these factors influence the settlement of human communities. Students analyze how human migrants might have adapted to a colder or hotter climate, growth of human population, competition with another hominid species, floods, or droughts.

Although humans made many adaptations to the conditions of their environments, they all lived by the same way of life—hunting and gathering—until about 10,000 years ago. The teacher introduces the first of the ways of life students will study in this course with this framing question: **How did people live by the gathering and hunting way of life?** There was a division of labor between women and men, but they contributed equally to supporting the band. Adult men were more likely to travel away from the camp to forage or hunt, while women, who were likely to be pregnant or have small children to care for, collected edible plants and trapped small animals close to home. Because gatherers and hunters need a large

area to support themselves, bands were small. Social cooperation was important, and there were few social differences between people.

To understand the gathering and hunting way of life and appreciate the linguistic and cognitive advantages of *Homo sapiens*, students analyze primary sources from this long time period before written language. Knowledge of this era depends on evidence from material remains, especially bones and stone tools, and, more recently, from research on human DNA and long-term climatic and geological change. Students may analyze cave paintings from Chauvet, Lascaux, and Altamira, with pairs of students first answering descriptive questions, such as the following: **What colors did the artist use? What kinds of animals are shown in the painting?** and then making an interpretation: **What was important to hunter-gatherer people? What in the painting supports your interpretation? Why do you think the artist painted this?** Student pairs can then share their interpretations, claims, and evidence with the whole class.

Students use academic language to articulate their observations and interpretations to another student and the whole class, supporting the development of oral discourse ability. Students investigate the dramatic changes that took place when some humans began to domesticate plants and animals and settle in one place year-round. Students pursue answers to these questions: **Why did some people develop agriculture and pastoral nomadism? What were the effects of these new ways of life?**

Teachers begin by asking students why a gatherer might start planting seeds. How might a hunter start to tame an animal? Archaeological evidence indicates that in the Middle East, and probably Egypt, foraging bands settled near stands of edible grasses, the genetic ancestors of wheat and other grains. People deliberately began to sow plants that had favorable qualities—for example, varieties that were large, tasty, and easy to cook. In this way, they gradually domesticated those plants. Domesticated plants and animals became increasingly important to human diets regionally and turned people into farmers, that is, *producers* of food rather than simply *collectors* of it.

This huge change introduced a new way of life for humans—village agriculture. They could therefore live in larger settlements and accumulate more material goods than when they foraged for a living. Teachers emphasize that agriculture involved

not only the act of farming but also a whole new way of life based on food production. Improved production meant that not everyone in a village had to spend all of their time securing the food supply. Food surplus also invited conflict with neighboring tribes eager to expand their own reserves.

Another result of village agriculture is the development of tools. Early farmers gradually developed more varied stone tools, such as sickles to cut grain and grindstones to make flour. They used fire to transform clay into durable pottery. They wove wool, cotton, and linen into textiles. Because the early millennia of agriculture involved more sophisticated stone tools, it is known as the *Neolithic*, or New Stone Age.

One of the major effects of the village agricultural way of life was an increase in social differences. In early villages, adult men and women probably worked together to perform many necessary tasks and treated each other with near equality. Because villages likely included several extended families living close together, however, leaders inevitably emerged to guide group decisions and settle personal conflicts. In addition, as soon as some families accumulated more stored food than did others and appointed guards to protect their wealth, the conditions for social inequality appeared. Teachers may ask students to examine differences in the contents of graves that archaeologists have excavated—some graves having jewelry, shells, or other fine materials and some having none of these things—for evidence about social ranking and inequality in early agricultural communities.

Agriculture developed independently in different areas of the world between 12,000 and 5,000 years ago and gradually spread outward from those areas. To make interpretations, students should compare physical and environmental maps with maps of the first sites of food production.

In some areas of the world, such as the steppes of Central Asia, the climate was unfavorable for farming but ideal for supporting herds of domesticated animals, such as sheep, cattle, or horses. In these areas, some people created a new way of life based on the products of their livestock. People were nomadic and did not settle in villages. In fact, they were highly mobile and often came into contact with settled societies, often to trade and sometimes to attack and conquer. By 4000 BCE, humans generally followed three ways of life—gathering and hunting, village agriculture, and pastoral nomadism.

The Early Civilizations of Mesopotamia, Egypt, and Kush

- How did civilizations—complex urban societies—develop in Mesopotamia, Egypt, and Kush?
- What environmental factors helped civilizations grow? What impact did civilizations have on the surrounding environment?
- How did people’s lives change as states and empires took over these areas (increase in social differences, rule by monarchs, laws)?
- From 4000 BCE to 500 BCE, how did contact, trade, and other links grow among the urban societies of Mesopotamia, Egypt, Kush, India, and the eastern Mediterranean?

Between 10,000 and 4000 BCE, farming spread widely across Africa and Eurasia. In the valleys of the Tigris and Euphrates (the Fertile Crescent) and Nile Rivers, people adapted to the rivers’ flood cycles and the related seasonal cycles of plants and animals. Their adaptations allowed them to produce a surplus of food, which led to other changes in their cultures. Students learn that people who lived near the banks of those rivers began to use irrigation techniques to control water and extend farming, despite an increasingly arid climate. A similar process began in the Indus River valley in what is now modern India and modern Pakistan and in the Huang He (Yellow) River valley in northern China some centuries later.

To frame the study of the emergence of civilizations, the teacher uses the following question: **How did civilizations—complex urban societies—develop in Mesopotamia, Egypt, and Kush?** When communities began to intensify farming with new techniques, they were able to produce surplus food. Early farmers increased the size of their farms and used more resources in order to increase their yield. Focusing on the relationships between resource requirements, agricultural production, and population growth, students learn that the population growth near agricultural areas was a first step in the development of larger settlements and cities. The surpluses produced led to the rise of more complex social, economic, and political systems in those valleys.

The civilization of Mesopotamia, located in the valley of the Euphrates and Tigris Rivers (modern Iraq and part of Syria), and Egypt, which stretched along the Nile River, both arose in the fourth millennium BCE. Kush, a civilization in the upper Nile River region south of Egypt emerged in the second millennium BCE. Teachers introduce students to the environmental roots of civilization with these questions: **What environmental factors helped civilizations grow? What impact did civilizations have on the surrounding environment?** All these societies depended on their river locations to build dense agricultural societies. Students first examine maps to identify the environmental factors, such as climate, topography, and flood patterns, that caused these civilizations to rise up



along rivers. The teacher might use either the California EEI curriculum unit “River Systems and Ancient Peoples,” 6.2.1, or “Advances in Ancient Civilizations,” 6.2.2. These lessons emphasize environmental causes and effects and the influence that the rise of civilization along these rivers had on the organization, economies, and belief systems of Mesopotamia and Egypt.

Teachers guide students through the development of each of these three civilizations separately, while frequently pointing out connections, similarities, and differences among the civilizations (and also the Harappa civilization along the Indus River and Chinese civilization along the Huang He [Yellow] River). The following section discusses Mesopotamia first, followed by Egypt, and then by Kush.

In the third millennium BCE, Mesopotamia was divided into kingdoms. Beginning in Sumer, the region of southern Mesopotamia, those early kingdoms were dominated by large walled cities, each enclosing a royal palace and a temple dedicated to the local god, along with densely packed housing for the population. Walls were built around many of these cities in response to aggression by neighboring kingdoms and competing warlords seeking to expand their territory through conquest. By around 3000 BCE, a second cluster of cities arose in northern Mesopotamia and the area of modern-day Syria. Rulers of these cities

claimed to possess authority divinely bestowed by the city's god or goddess. The city-states of Mesopotamia frequently fought one another over resources, but they also formed alliances. At the end of the third millennium, Sargon of Akkad (2270–2215 BCE) managed briefly to forge a unified empire through conquest.

Students also examine the connections between Mesopotamia and other areas by investigating this question: **From 4000 BCE to 500 BCE, how did contact, trade, and other links grow among the urban societies of Mesopotamia, Egypt, Kush, India, and the eastern Mediterranean?** Trade was extensive, not only among the Mesopotamian kingdoms, but also between Mesopotamia and surrounding regions. The land had rich soil that produced abundant crops, but it had no minerals. Merchants imported a red stone called *carneian* from the Indus River valley, a blue stone called *lapis lazuli* from what is now Afghanistan, and silver from Anatolia (modern Turkey), which were used for jewelry and decorations in temples and palaces. From the Elamites on the Iranian plateau, merchants imported wood, copper, lead, silver, and tin. In some periods, trade and diplomatic exchanges took place between Mesopotamia and Egypt.

Teachers introduce students to Mesopotamia's numerous technological and social innovations, including the wheel, the wooden plow, the seed drill, and improved bronze metallurgy, as well as advances in mathematics, astronomical measurement, and law. The cuneiform writing system was essential to the functioning of the legal system and the administrative structure of Mesopotamian kingdoms. The signs were written on clay tablets and could be used to represent phonetically many ancient languages, including Sumerian and Akkadian, the languages of Mesopotamia. Mesopotamians had a complex legal system and written laws, of which Hammurabi's are the best preserved, though not the earliest.

Next students explore the development of Mesopotamia society with this question: **How did people's lives change as states and empires took over this area?** In the Mesopotamian cities and states, a small elite group of political leaders (officials, warriors, "nobles") and priests held the most wealth and power, while the majority of people remained poor farmers, artisans, or slaves. Supported by the elites, kings established dynasties and built large palaces. Social groups were increasingly divided into a true social hierarchy.

Mesopotamia was a patriarchy, and men had more power than women. However, priestesses and noblewomen did have some access to power. For example, Sargon placed his daughter in the powerful position of high priestess of the moon god, starting a tradition that continued in the reigns of subsequent kings. Monarchs' wives sometimes controlled their own estates. In the Mesopotamian cities (and in all civilizations) the increase in social differences was a dramatic change for humans.

Grade Six Classroom Example: Hammurabi's Code

To build student understanding of how human life changed in these early civilizations, Mrs. Stanton organizes a close reading of excerpts from Hammurabi's laws. Knowing that the text will be challenging for English learners, she identifies the key passages in the text, unfamiliar names, academic vocabulary, and the literacy challenges that students will face. After dividing students into groups of four, Mrs. Stanton distributes excerpts containing the first sentence of Hammurabi's prologue and the first six phrases of the second sentence (for all groups) and sets of six laws (different selections for each group that all show differentiated punishments for different classes of people).

Mrs. Stanton then explains that students will analyze this primary source for evidence to answer the question **How did people's lives change under the rule of Hammurabi and the civilization in Mesopotamia?** She reminds students of the egalitarian life of the hunter-gatherers and limited hierarchy of villages.

The students read their texts silently first and then discuss the following questions in their groups: **What is this text about? What crimes do the laws punish?**

For the second reading, Mrs. Stanton guides students through a sentence deconstruction chart of the first sentence, followed by a whole-class discussion of Hammurabi's claims to divine authority as a protector of the people.

For the third reading, the students mark up the text and write annotations in the margins. The teacher then draws a pyramid on the board to illustrate the structure of a social hierarchy.

Example *(continued)*

For the fourth reading, each group analyzes their selection of laws, identifies the social groups, draws a social hierarchy diagram of those groups, and reports to the class orally and in writing. After class discussion, students answer text-dependent questions in a fifth reading. The students then write a summary paragraph about Hammurabi’s Laws, using the following vocabulary words: *monarch, prince, rule, Babylon, Marduk, conquered, righteousness, and social hierarchy.*

CA HSS Content Standard: 6.2.4

CA HSS Analysis Skills (6–8): Research, Evidence, and Point of View 3, Historical Interpretation 1

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RI.6.3, RI.6.10, SL.6.1, SL.6.4, L.6.4, RH.6–8.1, RH.6–8.2, RH.6–8.4, WHST.6–8.2, WHST.6–8.9

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.6.1, 2, 6, 11; ELD.PII.6.1

Next students look at how the states and empires in Mesopotamia changed over time and examine this question: **How did civilizations develop in Mesopotamia?** Over the centuries, the cities of Mesopotamia were divided into multiple states, conquered by invaders, and combined into new states. While it is not possible to teach all the states and groups that ruled over Mesopotamia, it is critical that students understand the importance of the Persian Empire. The names of the empire changed often with changes in the ruling groups (Achaemenids, Seleucids, Parthians, Sasanians), but the Persian Empire maintained its continuity and its domination over Mesopotamia, Persia, and often wide areas of southwestern Asia and Egypt, from c. 500 BCE to c. 630 CE. It was the primary political and cultural presence in western Asia during that period. Because the Persians fought wars with the ancient Greeks, Greek writers often criticized the Persians. However, the Persian ruled over a large empire, from the Aegean Sea to the Indus River, with policies of multicultural tolerance.

After conquest by Alexander the Great, Persia became a Hellenistic state under the Seleucids until the Parthians conquered the area. The Parthians nevertheless maintained some Hellenistic features and trade and diplomatic connections with other Hellenistic states from Carthage to Bactria. Parthian Persia was the main rival of the Roman Empire in the eastern Mediterranean. The Sasanians, who took over in 224 CE, actively promoted Persian nationalism and Zoroastrianism as a

state religion. As the main heir of Mesopotamian civilization, the Persian Empire played as large a role in world history as did the Greeks or Romans.

Teachers point out that Mesopotamia and Egypt (as well as many other early states) were dominated by a combination of religion and kingship. As they study Egypt, students focus on the question **How did civilizations develop in Egypt?** They learn that from 3000 to 1500 BCE, unlike Mesopotamia, Egypt was usually united under a single king. Egyptian kings claimed not only to have divine approval but to be deities themselves. The Egyptians built immense pyramid tombs and grand temples for their rulers. Teachers focus students' attention on the social and political power structures with this question: **How did people's lives change as states and empires took over this area?** The Egyptians prized order (*ma'at*) in all aspects of life, including social rules and even careful preparations for the afterlife. Their social hierarchy was an elaborate structure dominated by small elite groups of political leaders (regional lords, officials, and warriors) and priests. Students consider and identify similarities and differences with Mesopotamia. Students analyze the Egyptian writing system in comparison with Mesopotamian cuneiform. Both the Egyptian and Mesopotamian systems used a combination of signs that represented sounds (phonemes) and ones that signified word or phrase meanings (logograms). The Egyptians, however, used hieroglyphs, with papyrus and stone as writing surfaces rather than clay tablets.

Around 1500 BCE, Egypt entered the era known as the New Kingdom. Kings such as Thutmose III expanded the Egyptian empire far up the Nile River into what is now Sudan, and into the Levant, that is, the coastal region at the eastern end of the Mediterranean. Teachers highlight Queen Hatshepsut (ca. 1479–1458 BCE) and King Ramses II, also known as Ramses the Great (1279–1212 BCE). During Hatshepsut's reign, as throughout the whole New Kingdom, Egyptian art and architecture flourished, and trade with distant lands brought enormous wealth into Egypt. Ramses II's long reign was a time of great prosperity. He fought battles to maintain the Egyptian Empire and built innumerable temples and monuments throughout Egypt.

Students can analyze artistic representations of Hatshepsut, Ramses, and other pharaohs to make interpretations about the divine authority of the pharaoh (how artists represented their power, what qualities a pharaoh should have, and how Egyptian pharaohs were similar to and different from Hammurabi). After the

New Kingdom period, different empires, such as Kush, Persia, and Rome, took over Egypt.

Egypt held long trade connections in Eurasia and Africa. Teachers return to the following question: **From 4000 BCE to 500 BCE, how did contact, trade, and other links grow among the urban societies of Mesopotamia, Egypt, Kush, India, and the eastern Mediterranean?** Representatives of the king sailed up the Nile River to Kush and penetrated the Red Sea coasts to obtain incense, ivory, and ebony wood. To the northeast, they acquired timber from the forests of Lebanon. New Kingdom pharaohs also nurtured ties through treaties and marriage with Middle Eastern states, notably Babylonia (in Mesopotamia), Mittani (in Syria), and the kingdom of the Hittites in Anatolia. Diplomatic envoys and luxury goods circulated among these royal courts, so that they formed the world's first international community of states.

Students may create maps showing the trade routes and products that circulated among Egypt, Mesopotamia, Syria, Anatolia, Persia, and South Asia, as well as in the eastern Mediterranean. Students recognize that the number of states and the intensity of trade connections increased steadily from 1500 BCE to 300 CE.

The teacher transitions to the study of African civilization of Kush with these questions: **What environmental factors helped the Kush civilization grow? What impact did civilizations have on the surrounding environment?** Kush lay in the upper Nile Valley, where rainfall was higher and where farm and cattle land stretched far beyond the banks of the river. Kush had complex relations with Egypt. In some periods, Egyptian pharaohs dominated Kush, taxing the population and extracting goods, particularly gold. After the New Kingdom faded, Kush reasserted its independence though it maintained close contacts with Egypt.

Students then explore the question about the growth of contact, trade, and other links among the urban societies of Mesopotamia, Egypt, Kush, India, and the eastern Mediterranean. Teachers may introduce comparisons between the societies of Kush and Egypt through pictorial representations of the two architectural traditions. For example, kings of Kush built pyramids, although they were smaller than Egypt's structures. In the first millennium BCE, however, Kush developed a distinctive cultural style that included painted pottery, the elephant as an artistic motif, an alphabetic writing system, and a flourishing iron industry.

The similarities between Egypt and Kush and the distinct features of each civilization offer an opportunity for students to analyze how one culture adopts products, styles, and ideas from another culture, but adapts those borrowings to fit its own needs and preferences.



Another way to compare these civilizations is to have students trace how popular goods traded in the Egyptian world were related to the natural resources available in Egypt and Kush. They learn that Egyptian trade influenced the development of laws, policies, and incentives on the use and management of ecosystem goods and services in the eastern Mediterranean and Nile Valley, which had the long-

term effects on the functioning and health of those ecosystems. See California EEI curriculum unit 6.2/6.8, “Egypt and Kush: A Tale of Two Kingdoms.”

In the eighth century BCE, Kush’s ruler took advantage of political weakness in Egypt to conquer it, uniting a huge stretch of the Nile Valley under the twenty-fifth dynasty for nearly a century. Mapping the trade of Kush merchants with the Arabian Peninsula, the Indian Ocean littoral, and equatorial Africa shows students how networks of trade expanded to more areas. The Kush state did not seriously decline until the fourth century CE.

The Ancient Israelites (Hebrews)

- What were the beliefs and religious practices of the ancient Israelites? How did the religious practices of Judaism change and develop over time?
- How did the environment, the history of the Israelites, and their interactions with other societies shape their religion?
- How did early Judaism support individuals, rulers, and societies?

The ancient Israelites, also known as the Hebrew people, emerged in the eastern Mediterranean coastal region about the twelfth century BCE. To begin the unit, the teacher introduces this question: **How did the environment, the history of the Israelites, and their interactions with other societies shape their religion?**

Originally a seminomadic pastoral people living on the Mesopotamian periphery, they organized the kingdom of Israel by the eleventh century. Founding a capital in the city of Jerusalem, they erected a Temple that centralized their religion, terraced the hillsides in their land, and built up an agricultural economy. While their state did not long survive, their religion, which became known as *Judaism*, made an enduring contribution of morality and ethics to Western civilization.

In their study of Judaism as a monotheistic religion, students also have the opportunity to analyze how the religion changed over time. Students focus on these questions: **What were the beliefs and religious practices of the ancient Israelites? How did the religious practices of Judaism change and develop over time?** Although many of main teachings of Judaism, such as a weekly day of rest, observance of law, practice of righteousness and compassion, and belief in one God, originated in the early traditions of the Jews, other early traditions disappeared over time to be replaced by increased emphasis on morality and commitment to study. Judaism, in its ancient form, was largely a patriarchy. It was rare for women to own property, but Jewish law offered women some important rights and protections: to be consulted regarding marriage prospects, to engage in commerce and buy and sell land, and to bring cases to court. They read selected excerpts from the Torah, the first five books of the Hebrew Bible (*Tanakh*), which Christians refer to as the Old Testament.

Judaism was heavily influenced by the environment, the history of the Israelites, and their interactions with other societies. The students return to the question: **How did the environment, the history of the Israelites, and their interactions with other societies shape their religion?** The many farming metaphors in the Torah show the pastoral/agricultural environment. The fragile position of Canaan in the Fertile Crescent between more powerful neighboring states dramatically affected the history of the Israelites. The Exodus from Egypt was an event of great significance to Jewish law and belief, especially the concept of a special relationship or covenant between the Israelites and God. After the Exodus, three successive kings who probably lived in the eleventh and tenth centuries BCE—Saul, David,

and Solomon—united the land of Israel into a state. King David enlarged the Kingdom of Israel, established the capital in Jerusalem, was a poet and musician, and is believed to have written many of the Psalms in the Hebrew Bible. King Solomon extended the Kingdom of Israel through many alliances. He is best known for his wisdom, building the First Temple, and writing parts of the Hebrew Bible. After Solomon’s reign, the unified kingdom split into two: Israel in the north and Judah (from which we get the words *Judaism* and *Jews*) in the south.

In addition to paying attention to change over time, the teacher asks students to consider: **How did early Judaism support individuals, rulers, and societies?** Between the tenth and sixth centuries BCE, Assyria and then Babylonia absorbed all of Mesopotamia, some of Anatolia, and the Levant, including the two Jewish states, into their huge empires. The Babylonians deported many Jews to Mesopotamia, but in 539 BCE, Cyrus the Great, emperor of the new empire of Persia, allowed the exiled Jews to return home. Later their homeland was taken over by both Greek and Roman rulers. In 70 CE, the Roman army destroyed the Jews’ temple in Jerusalem.

As Jews lost their states and spread out into many other lands, their religious practice and community life had to adapt. During the Babylonian period, exiled Jews wrote down and later codified the sacred texts that had previously been orally transmitted. When the Second Temple was destroyed, those texts were carried to new communities and preserved and studied by religious teachers or sages, such as Yohanan ben Zakkai in the first century CE. Ben Zakkai played an important role in the development of Rabbinic (post-Temple) Judaism, ensuring that Jewish tradition would be passed on to younger generations. Many Jews left Judea, dispersing to lands throughout the Middle East, North Africa, and Europe. They carried with them the beliefs, traditions, and laws that served them in constituting new social and economic communities in many lands.

Ancient Greece

- How did the environment of the Greek peninsula and islands, the Anatolian coast, and the surrounding seas affect the development of Greek societies?
- What were the differences in point of view and perspective between the Persians and the Greeks, and between Athenians and Spartans?

- What were the political forms adopted by Greek urban societies? What were the achievements and limitations of Athenian democracy?
- How did Greek thought (a cultural package of mythology, humanistic art, emphasis on reason and intellectual development, and historical, scientific, and literary forms) support individuals, states, and societies?
- How did Greek trade, travel, and colonies, followed by the conquests of Alexander the Great and the spread of Hellenistic culture, affect increasing connections among regions in Afroeurasia?

In this unit, students learn about the ancient Greek world, which was centered on the Aegean Sea, including both the Greek peninsula and the west coast of Anatolia (modern Turkey). They begin with the question **How did the environment of the Greek peninsula and islands, the Anatolian coast, and the surrounding seas affect the development of Greek societies?** An elongated coastline and numerous islands stimulated seaborne trade, as well as easy communication between one community and another. The peninsula's interior of mountains and deep valleys, by contrast, encouraged the independence of small communities and city-states, rather than a unified empire. Several waves of migration through the area brought significant changes to the population and culture. Greeks were oriented toward the sea, dependent on trade to feed themselves, and willing to move and settle colonies.

The ancient Greek world developed on the periphery of the Egyptian and Mesopotamian civilizations. Greek foundations were laid by the Minoan civilization on Crete, and the Mycenaeans on the Greek peninsula. In the eighth century BCE, Greek-speaking people began a major expansion. They developed more productive agriculture, traded olive oil and wine to distant ports, and founded colonies around the Black Sea, on the northern African coast, and in Sicily and southern Italy.

These developments contributed to an increasing sense of shared Greek identity, as well as interchange of ideas and goods with Egyptians, Phoenicians, and other neighboring peoples. Around 800 BCE, the Greek language developed to include a writing system. Shortly afterwards, Homer wrote the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, two foundational epic poems, which imagined a Mycenaean world of fearless warriors who valued public competition and individual glory.

Next teachers introduce the guiding question: **What were the differences in point of view and perspective between the Persians and the Greeks?** The Greek city-states engaged in a pivotal conflict with the Persian (Achaemenid) Empire in the fifth century BCE, and Greek identification of the Persians as their enemies heavily influenced later European and American perceptions. The Persian Achaemenid Empire was centered in present-day Iran and had conquered Mesopotamia, Syria, Egypt, and Anatolia. Its rulers represented themselves as agents of Ahuramazda, the supreme god in the regionally important religion of Zoroastrianism.

The Persians subjugated the Greek city-states of western Anatolia, but they failed in three attempts to invade the Greek peninsula and defeat the Greeks, including those in the cities of Athens and Sparta, the most powerful city-states. Herodotus (ca 484–425 BCE) was a Greek scholar who wrote a vivid narrative of these events in *The Persian Wars*, the first history book. The clear distinction between the Greeks and Persians and the continuing influence of Greek sources (rather than a balance between Greek and Persian sources) give the teacher a good opportunity to teach students about point of view or perspective. Students may use images of the



palace art at Persepolis, particularly the tribute bearers staircase, to see the differences between the way the Greeks represented the Persians and the way the Persians represented themselves.

Because the Greeks experimented with so many different forms of government and wrote so much about politics, this is the ideal point for teachers to focus on government types

and citizenship, with the following questions: **What were the political forms adopted by Greek urban societies? What were the achievements and limitations of Athenian democracy?** In contrast to large empires such as the Persian Achaemenids, the Greeks organized the city-state, or *polis*, with central government authority, control of surrounding farmland, and the concept of citizenship. In most city-states, the earliest rulers were wealthy aristocrats, but they were eventually replaced by tyrants, or personal dictators, and later by oligarchies, that is, small groups of privileged males.

A major exception to this pattern was Athens, where a series of reforms in the sixth century BCE broadened the base of civic participation and paved the way for a limited democratic system in the following century. In political and cultural terms, Athens in the fifth century BCE was a highly innovative city. Students may compare its system of direct democracy with modern representative democracy. In Athens, every adult male citizen could vote on legislation, and citizens were chosen for key offices by lot. These principles ensured that decision making lay mostly in the hands of average citizens. Students may analyze the advantages and limits of this system. For example, women, foreigners, and slaves were excluded from all political participation.

In contrast to democratic Athens, Sparta was nearly the equivalent of a permanent army base, its male citizens obligated to full-time military training and rigorous discipline. To investigate the question **What were the differences in point of view and perspective between Athenians and Spartans?**, students use short quotations from Xenophon’s writing about the Spartans (regarding the training of boys and girls) to contrast with short quotations from *Pericles’s Funeral Oration*, recorded by Thucydides (from the first four sentences of the third paragraph, which address Athenian democracy and self-image, and the fifth paragraph, which contrasts Athenian and Spartan military training.)

Since the sentences in these sources are long and complex, the teacher may have students underline the subjects, circle the verbs, and draw boxes around the complements or objects of the sentence while the teacher points out parallel phrases and clauses and guides students through identifying references. After this literacy activity, the teacher guides students through identifying the perspectives of Xenophon and Pericles. While Xenophon was an Athenian who greatly admired the Spartans, Pericles was the leader of Athens in the Peloponnesian War against Sparta (431–404 BCE). His funeral oration was propaganda designed to build Athenian morale and support for the war.

The teacher then divides the students into groups and assigns text-dependent questions. For each of the primary sources, students write a statement of the author’s perspective and one piece of evidence in the text (such as a loaded word or a statement that favors one side).

Students can also compare the economic systems of Athens and Sparta. Because of their lack of natural resources (infertile soil and rough terrain), neither city-state was able to produce enough food to feed their growing populations. Athens, however, had vast amounts of silver and relied on trade to obtain food for its citizens, while Sparta relied on conquest and slave labor in the conquered territories to obtain its food. Fighting between Greek city-states was chronic and destructive. At that time, Athens ruled large areas of the Aegean basin, but Sparta's victory in the Peloponnesian War brought the Athenian empire to an end. It also ended the classical age of Greece. Conflicts among the city-states contributed to the military conquest of Greece by Philip II of Macedonia.

The cultural achievements of the classical Greeks were numerous. Teachers have students consider the question **How did Greek thought (a cultural package of mythology, humanistic art, emphasis on reason and intellectual development, and historical, scientific, and literary forms) support individuals, states, and societies?** Athens produced philosophers (Socrates, Plato, Aristotle), historians (Herodotus, Thucydides), and orators (Demosthenes, Pericles). It also nurtured drama, both tragedy (Sophocles, Euripides) and comedy (Aristophanes). The Greek art and architecture of the era emphasized naturalistic representations of human forms and buildings of beautiful proportions. The rich tales of Greek mythology influenced all forms of literature and art. Students may consider examples of ways in which Greek culture has had an enduring influence on modern society.

Next students investigate how Greek culture spread in the Hellenistic era, with the following question: **How did Greek trade, travel, and colonies, followed by the conquests of Alexander the Great and the spread of Hellenistic culture, affect increasing connections among regions in Afroeurasia?** Philip II's son, Alexander of Macedonia (ruled 336–323), led a military campaign of unprecedented scope, conquering the Persian Empire, Egypt, Central Asia, and even to the Indus River valley. Following his death, his generals and their sons carved his short-lived empire into separate states.

The following two centuries are known as the Hellenistic period. *Hellenistic* refers to the influence of Greek cultural forms in regions far beyond the Aegean though, in fact, a lively interchange of products and ideas took place in the broad region from the Mediterranean to the Indian subcontinent. Athenian democracy did not survive, but Greek ideas, such as language, sculpture, and city planning,

mingled creatively with the cultural styles of Egypt, Persia, and India. For example, the Egyptian goddess Isis took on a Greek-like identity and came to be venerated widely in the Hellenistic lands. The era also brought innovations in science and mathematics. For example, the principles of geometry came from Euclid, who lived in the Hellenistic Egyptian city of Alexandria. During the Hellenistic period, exchanges of products, ideas, and technologies across Afroeurasia increased greatly and penetrated into many more regions, culminating with connections to China via the Silk Road. Cosmopolitan Hellenistic cities became sites of encounter for people of different cultures, religions, and regions. Eventually, the Hellenistic kingdoms west of Persia succumbed to the greater military power of Rome, which in turn absorbed many aspects of Greek culture.

The Early Civilizations of India

- How did the environment influence the emergence and decline of the Indus civilization?
- How did religions of Ancient India, including, but not limited to early Hinduism, support individuals, rulers, and societies?
- How did the religion of Buddhism support individuals, rulers, and societies?
- During the Indus civilization, the Vedic period, and the Maurya Empire, how did the connections between the Indian subcontinent and other regions of Afroeurasia increase?

In this unit, students learn about societies of ancient India. The region of Ancient India is today sometimes called “South Asia” and encompasses the modern states of Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Maldives, Nepal, India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka. Students begin with the environment: **How did the environment influence the emergence and decline of the Indus civilization?** The earliest civilization, known as Harappan civilization after one of its cities, was centered in the Indus River valley, though its cultural style spread widely from present-day Afghanistan to the upper Ganga plain (Ganges River). The Indus River and its tributaries flow from the Himalaya mountains southward across the plain now called the Punjab, fan out into a delta, and pour into the Arabian Sea. The river valley was much larger than either Mesopotamia or Egypt, and its soil was very rich.

In lessons two and four of the California EEI curriculum unit 6.5.1, “The Rivers and Ancient Empires of China and India,” students locate and describe the physical features of the Indus and Ganges river systems in the Indian subcontinent. Investigating regional seasonal cycles, especially the summer monsoons, students provide examples of how these cycles benefited the permanent settlement of early Indian civilization, helping them to recognize that humans depend on, benefit from, and can alter the cycles that occur in the natural systems where they live.

Arising in the third millennium BCE, the Harappan civilization attained its zenith between about 2600 and 1900 BCE. It was discovered by archaeologists in the 1920s. Digs have revealed that many Harappan cities, including Harappa and Mohenjo-daro, were well planned, with streets laid out in grids and well-engineered sewers. Artifacts include pottery, seals, statues, jewelry, tools, and toys. The seals contain writing that has not yet been deciphered. Some of the statues and figurines, as well as images on the seals, show features that are all present in modern Hinduism, such as a male figure that resembles the Hindu God Shiva in a meditating posture, as well as small clay figures in the posture of the traditional Hindu greeting *namaste*.

Evidence reveals active commerce between the cities of the Harappan civilization as well as foreign trade with Mesopotamia by sea. A flourishing urban civilization developed in India from as early as 3300 BCE along the Indus River. Archaeologists believe this civilization had its greatest stage of expansion from 2600 to 1700 BCE. The economic basis of the civilization was surplus agriculture, though the cities of Mohenjo-daro and Harappa carried on extensive trade. The Harappan civilization steadily declined after 1900 BCE, perhaps because of ecological factors such as seismic events, deforestation, salt buildup in the soil, and persistent drought, including the drying up of the Sarasvati River around 2000 BCE.

Ancient India experienced a Vedic period (ca. 1500–500 BCE), named for the *Vedas* which were composed in Sanskrit. While Sanskrit texts, both religious and secular, continued to be produced in subsequent centuries, texts in Old Tamil also began to appear around 300 BCE, and Tamil literary production flourished during the Sangam period in South India in following centuries. Sanskrit and Tamil texts passed on for generations through a complex oral tradition. In that period, according to many scholars, people speaking Indic languages, which are part of the larger Indo-European family of languages, entered South Asia, probably by way

of Iran. Gradually, Indic languages, including Sanskrit, spread across northern India. They included the ancestors of such modern languages as Hindi, Urdu, and Bengali. The early Indic speakers were most likely animal herders. They may have arrived in India in scattered bands, later intermarrying with populations perhaps ancestral to those who speak Dravidian languages, such as Tamil and Telugu, in southern India and Sri Lanka today. In the same era, nomads who spoke Indo-Iranian languages moved into Persia. Indic, Iranian, and most European languages are related. Another point of view suggests that the language was indigenous to India and spread northward, but it is a minority position.

Later in the Vedic period, new royal and commercial towns arose along the Ganges (aka Ganga), India's second great river system. In this era, Vedic culture emerged as a belief system that combined the beliefs of Indic speakers with those of older populations. Teachers focus students on the question: **How did religions of Ancient India, including, but not limited to early Hinduism, support individuals, rulers, and societies?** *Brahmins*, that is, priestly families, assumed authority over complex devotional rituals, but many important sages, such as Valmiki and Vyasa, were not brahmins.

Ancient Hindu sages (brahmins and others) expounded the idea of the oneness of all living things and of Brahman as the divine principle of being. The Hindu tradition is thus monistic, the idea of reality being a unitary whole. Brahman, an all-pervading divine supreme reality, may be manifested in many ways, including incarnation in the form of Deities.

These Deities are worshiped as distinct personal Gods or Goddesses, such as Vishnu who preserves the world, Shiva who transforms it, and Sarasvati, the Goddess of learning. Students may read a few hymns from the “Bhumi Sukta” excerpted from the Vedas to discover the nature of Vedic hymns. Vedic teachings gradually built up a rich body of spiritual and moral teachings that form a key foundation of Hinduism as it is practiced today.

These teachings were transmitted orally at first, and then later in written texts, the *Upanishads* and, later, the *Bhagavad Gita*. Performance of duties and ceremonies, along with devotion and meditation, became dimensions of the supreme quest to achieve oneness with God. That fulfillment, however, demands obedience to the moral law of the universe, called *dharma*, which also refers to

performance of social duties. Fulfilling dharma is one of the four primary goals of human life, along with *kama* (love), *artha* (wealth) and *moksha* (oneness with God). Success or failure at existing in harmony with dharma determines how many times an individual might be subject to reincarnation, or repeated death and rebirth at either lower or higher positions of moral and ritual purity. Progress toward spiritual realization is governed by *karma*, the principle of cause-and-effect by which human actions, good and bad, affect this and future lives. Many of the central practices of Hinduism today, including home and temple worship, yoga and meditation, rites of passage (*samskaras*), festivals, pilgrimage, respect for saints and gurus, and, above all, a profound acceptance of religious diversity, developed over time.

As in all early civilizations, Indian society witnessed the development of a system of social classes. Ancient Indian society formed into groups, *jatis*, that emphasized birth as the defining criteria. *Jatis* initially shared the same occupation and married only within the group. This system, often termed *caste*, provided social stability and gave an identity to each community. The *Vedas* also describe four main social categories, known as *varnas*: Brahmins (priests), *Kshatriyas* (kings and warriors), *Vaishyas* (merchants, artisans, and farmers), and *Sudras* (peasants and laborers). A person belonged to a particular *varna* not just by professional excellence and good conduct, but primarily by birth. In addition, by 500 CE or earlier, there existed certain communities outside the *jati* system, the *Dalits* (sometimes known as “Untouchables”), who did the most unclean work, such as cremation, disposal of dead animals, and sanitation.

Relations between classes came to be expressed in terms of ritual purity or impurity, higher classes being purer than lower ones. This class system became distinctive over the centuries for being especially complex and formal, involving numerous customs and prohibitions on eating together and intermarrying that kept social and occupational groups distinct from one another in daily life. Over the centuries, the Indian social structure became more rigid, though perhaps not more inflexible than the class divisions in other ancient civilizations.

When Europeans began to visit India in modern times, they used the word “caste” to characterize the social system because of the sharp separation they perceived between groups who did not intermarry and thus did not mix with each other. Caste, however, is a term that social scientists use to describe unbending social structure.

Today many Hindus, in India and in the United States, do not identify themselves as belonging to a caste. Teachers should make clear to students that this was a social and cultural structure as well as a religious belief. As in Mesopotamia and Egypt, priests, rulers, and other elites used religion to justify the social hierarchy. Although ancient India was a patriarchy, women had a right to their personal wealth (especially jewelry, gold, and silver) but little property rights when compared with men, akin to the other ancient kingdoms and societies. They participated in religious ceremonies and festival celebrations, though not as equals. Hinduism is the only major religion in which God is worshipped in female as well as male form.

One text that Hindus rely on for solutions to moral dilemmas is the *Ramayana*, the story of Rama, an incarnation or *avatar* of Vishnu, who goes through many struggles and adventures as he is exiled from his father's kingdom and has to fight a demonic enemy, Ravana. Rama, his wife Sita, and some other characters are challenged by critical moral decisions in this epic work. The teacher may select the scene in which Rama accepts his exile, or the crisis over the broken promise of Sugriva, the monkey king, and then ask students **What is the moral dilemma here? What is the character's *dharma*?** In this way, students can deepen their understanding of Hinduism as they are immersed in one of ancient India's most important literary and religious texts.



Students now turn to the question **How did the religion of Buddhism support individuals, rulers, and societies?** At the end of the Vedic period, about the sixth century BCE, many arose who renounced family life and became wandering teachers of new philosophies of life. Two of the most successful were Siddhartha Gautama, called the *Buddha* (“the awakened one”) and the *Mahavira* (“the great hero”). The religions they taught are Buddhism and Jainism. Buddhism spread widely beyond South Asia, throughout Central, East, and Southeast Asia. Buddhism emerged in the sixth century BCE in the moral teachings of Siddhartha

Gautama, the “Buddha.” Through the story of his life, his Hindu background, and his search for enlightenment, students may learn about his fundamental ideas: suffering, compassion, and mindfulness.

Buddhism teaches that the path to liberation from the wheel of death and rebirth is through the transformation of selfish desires. It teaches that the world is impermanent, that the self is an illusion, and that suffering is rooted in the false belief in the self. Although Buddhism waned in the Indian subcontinent in the late first millennium CE for reasons that scholars continue to puzzle out, vibrant Buddhist communities still thrive in India, Nepal, Bhutan, and Sri Lanka. Buddhist monks, nuns, and merchants also carried their religion to Sri Lanka (Ceylon), Central Asia, China, and Southeast Asia, where many people continue to follow it today. In India, through the teachings of Mahavira, Jainism, a religion that embraced the dharmic idea of *ahimsa*, or nonviolence, paralleled the rise of Buddhism. Jainism promoted the idea of ahimsa (nonviolence to all life), especially in the form of vegetarianism. It has continued to play a role in modern India, notably in Mohandas Gandhi’s ideas of nonviolent disobedience.

A period of prolonged military struggle between the republics and kingdoms of North India culminated in the victory of Chandragupta Maurya and the first large-scale empire of India in 321 BCE, comparable to the Warring States period in China and its first unification under the Qin Dynasty slightly later.

Teachers pose the following question: **During the Maurya Empire, how did the connections between India and other regions of Afroeurasia increase?** Governing a powerful empire with a million-man army, the Maurya dynasty maintained strong diplomatic and trade connections to the Hellenistic states to the west. The Maurya Empire reached its peak under the rule of Chandragupta’s grandson Ashoka (268–232). Beginning his reign with military campaigns, he had a strong change of heart, converted to Buddhism, and devoted the rest of his rule to promoting nonviolence, family harmony, and tolerance among his subjects. The Maurya Empire broke up into small states in the early second century BCE.

The Early Civilizations of China

- How did the environment influence the development of civilization in China?
- How did the philosophical system of Confucianism support individuals, rulers, and societies?
- What factors helped China unify into a single state under the Han Dynasty? What social customs and government policies made the centralized state so powerful?
- How did the establishment of the Silk Road increase trade, the spread of Buddhism, and the connections between China and other regions of Afroeurasia?

In this unit, students study early Chinese civilization, which emerged first in the Huang He (Yellow) River valley with the Shang Dynasty (ca.1750–1040 BCE) and later spread south to the Yangzi River area. Students begin their study with the question: **How did the environment influence the development of civilization in China?** The Huang He could be a capricious river, exposing populations to catastrophic floods. On the other hand, farmers supported dense populations and early cities by cultivating the valley’s *loess*, that is, the light, fertile soil that yielded bountiful grain crops. Through lesson five of California EEI curriculum unit 6.5.1/6.6.1, “The Rivers and Ancient Empires of China and India,” students learn about the importance of ecosystem goods and services to the early Chinese.

Humans and human communities benefit from the dynamic nature of rivers and streams in ways that are essential to human life and to the functioning of our economies and cultures. Building on its agriculture and natural resources, the Shang society made key advances in bronze-working and written language. Some of the evidence about the Shang comes from “oracle bones,” that is, records of divination inscribed on animal bones. The script on the oracle bones is the direct ancestor of modern Chinese characters, a logographic script that differs from the alphabetic systems that developed in other parts of the world.

The Zhou Dynasty (1122–256 BCE), the longest lasting in China’s history, grew much larger than the Shang by subjecting local princes and chiefs of outlying territories to imperial authority. By the eighth century BCE, however, many of these subordinate officers built up their own power bases and pulled away from the center,

partly by perfecting iron technology to make armaments. The Zhou gradually weakened, plunging China into a long period of political instability and dislocation, especially during the Warring States period, which lasted nearly two centuries.

In those times of trouble, the scholar Confucius (551–479 BCE) lived and wrote. His teachings were the basis of the philosophical system of Confucianism, which had a major influence on the development of Chinese government and society. Students focus on the question **How did the philosophical system of Confucianism support individuals, rulers, and societies?** He tried to make sense of the disrupted world he saw, and he proposed ways for individuals and society to achieve order and goodness. By examining selections from the *Analects*, or “sayings” of Confucius, students learn that, as with Socrates and Jesus, his ideas were written down by others at a later time. According to Confucian teachings, people striving to be “good”, practice moderation in conduct and emotion, keep their promises, honor traditional ways, respect elders, and improve themselves through education.

Confucius emphasized ritual, filial piety, and respect for social hierarchy, and promoted the dignity and authenticity of humanity. He encouraged the most educated, talented, and moral men to serve the state by becoming scholar–officials, which later made the government of China stronger. He also, however, instructed women to play entirely subordinate roles to husbands, fathers, and brothers, though some educated Chinese women produced Confucian literary works.

Grade Six Classroom Example: The Impact of Confucianism

To help her students understand the social impact of Confucianism, Ms. Aquino asks them to read “Selections from the Confucian Analects,” available on the Asia for Educators Web site of Columbia University in short excerpts with document-based questions by topic. She has students read and analyze Analects 1.2, 4.16, and 12.2, on filial piety and humaneness, excerpts from the *Classic of Filiality*, and Ban Zhao’s *Admonitions for Women* (the first three paragraphs) written by a woman during the Han Dynasty (all on the Asia for Educators Web site).

Example *(continued)*

Ms. Aquino first introduces the sources and explains the purpose of the reading is to help answer the question: **How did the philosophical system of Confucianism support individuals, rulers, and societies?** Students undertake close readings of each document one at a time. They attempt the first reading alone.

In the second reading, Ms. Aquino provides sentence deconstruction charts to show students the cause-and-effect structure of the compound sentences of these texts. As her students read, Ms. Aquino clarifies that “humaneness” refers to both good individual behavior and social order. Ms. Aquino then asks student pairs to discuss: **What is the relationship between individual good behavior and social order (or the greater good of society)?** Each pair writes down their answer and cites one piece of evidence from the reading to support their answer. Ms. Aquino then has pairs of students share their answers and evidence, and she points out that, to Confucius, nothing was more important to social order than the good behavior of all individuals.

In the third reading, students mark up the text, underline the positive things that a person should do or be, circle the negative things that a person should not do or be, and draw a box around any words they do not understand. After students have gone through the first two texts, Ms. Aquino asks students to share the words that they have underlined while the teacher records those words on the board under the title “Men.” Then she explains that the final text, Ban Zhao’s *Admonitions*, was written by a woman for an audience of women, unlike the first two texts, which were written by men mostly for an audience of men. Students do the above close readings with the Ban Zhao text, and the teacher records the positive attributes they have underlined on the board under the title “Women.” Next student groups fill out a Venn diagram to compare and contrast the positive features for men and those for women. As a group, they decide which are the most important similarities and differences and write a group claim to answer the question: How was the Confucian ideal behavior different for men and women?

Example *(continued)*

To help English learners with academic vocabulary, Ms. Aquino gives them sentence starters as a model, such as “Under Confucianism, men were supposed to _____ and women were supposed to _____. Both had the responsibility to _____” and “To maintain order in society, Confucians believed that both men and women should _____, but only men had the responsibility to _____, while women _____.” Finally, each group cites and analyzes three pieces of evidence (one from each source) on an evidence analysis chart.

CA HSS Content Standards: 6.6.3, 6.6.4

CA HSS Analysis Skills (6–8): Research, Evidence and Point of View 5

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: SL.6.1, L.6.5, L.6.6, RH.6-8.1, RH.6-8.2, WHST.6-8.1, WHST.6-8.7, WHST.6-8.9

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.6.1, 3, 6a, 6b, 10b, 11a; ELD.PII.6.1, 6

Daoism was a second important philosophical tradition begun in this early period. According to Chinese tradition, Laozi (Lao-tzu) was another sage who lived around the same time as Confucius and developed an alternative set of teachings. Daoism emphasized simple living, shunning of ambition, harmony with nature, and the possibility of a blissful afterlife. Teachers should note that the Pinyin romanization system (*Laozi* and *Daoism*) is now more widely used than the Wade-Giles system (*Lao-tzu* and *Taoism*) used in the standards.

Next students turn to Chinese imperial government, with the following questions: **What factors helped China unify into a single state under the Han Dynasty? What social customs and government policies made the centralized state so powerful?** China’s long era of division ended when Shi Huangdi (221–210 BCE), a state builder of great energy, unified China from the Yellow River to the Yangzi River and founded the Qin Dynasty. In less than a dozen years, he laid the foundations of China’s powerful imperial bureaucracy. He imposed peace and regularized laws. He also severely punished anyone who defied him, including Confucian scholars. He uprooted tens of thousands of peasant men and women to build roads, dykes, palaces, the first major phase of the Great Wall, and an enormous tomb for himself. Teachers may introduce students to the excavations of this immense mausoleum, which have yielded a veritable army of life-sized terra cotta soldiers and horses. Shi Huangdi is also well known for employing scholars

to standardize and simplify the Chinese writing system, which provided the empire with a more uniform system of communication.

Shi Huangdi's Qin Dynasty soon fell to the longer-lasting Han Dynasty (206 BCE–220 CE), which unified even more territory and placed central government in the hands of highly educated bureaucrats. Immersed in Confucian teachings, these scholar-officials promoted the idea that peace in society requires people to think and do the right thing as mapped out by tradition. Harmony in the family was seen by Confucians as the key to harmony in the world. Ethical principles should uplift the state. Rulers should govern righteously, because when they do they enjoy the trust of their subjects. The benevolent ruler demonstrates that he possesses divine approval, or the “mandate of heaven,” an idea that first emerged in Zhou Dynasty times. But if the monarch is despotic, he risks losing that mandate, bringing misfortune on his people and justifiable rebellion.

Promotion of Confucianism helped create a strong, stable government and social order in China. All educated men (from the emperor on down) were trained to serve the state and act morally for the good of the people, rather than to seek profit. The highest social rank (under the imperial family) was to be a scholar-official, rather than a warrior, priest, or merchant.

In the first century CE, Han officials governed about 60 million people, the great majority of them productive farmers. Major technological advances of the era include new iron farm tools, the collar harness, the wheelbarrow, silk manufacturing, and the cast-iron plow, which cultivators used to open extensive new rice-growing lands in southern China. Han power declined in the second century CE, as regional warlords increasingly broke away from centralized authority, leading to some 400 years of Chinese disunity. However, the ideal that China should be unified was never lost, and later dynasties modeled themselves after the Han, as they united the whole territory under one centralized state, governed by Confucian principles using scholar-officials, and tried to keep the Mandate of Heaven.

The Han Dynasty also established important connections with other cultures, as students investigate the question **How did the establishment of the Silk Road increase trade, the spread of Buddhism, and the connections between China and other regions of Afroeurasia?** The spread of the Han Empire to the north and

west and concern about nomadic raiders led them to seek contact with societies to the west. At the end of the second century BCE, the Han Chinese Empire and the Parthian Persian Empire exchanged ambassadors. Chinese ambassadors (and merchants) gave gifts of silk cloth to the Parthians, Kushans, and other Central Asian states. Quickly realizing the value of silk, merchants from Persia, the Kushan and Maurya Empires, and other Central Asian states began to trade regularly with Chinese merchants. Caravans of luxury goods regularly traveled the overland trade route, “the Silk Road” (really a number of routes, trails, and roads) that crossed the steppes north of the Himalayas ultimately reaching as far west as Rome. In addition to silk, commodities such as dates, copper, herbs, and ceramics were profitably traded along the “silk roads.” Maritime commerce along the chain of seas that ran from the East China Sea to the Red Sea also developed rapidly in that era.

Students outline the land and sea trade routes on a map, preferably a map of Afroeurasia, so that they can see that connections now spread all the way across the middle of Afroeurasia, from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Ideas also spread along the trade routes. In the climate of insecurity after the fall of the Han Empire, missionaries began spreading Buddhism along the Silk Road to China. Students analyze the style of carvings of Buddhas and paintings from Dunhuang and Yungang, which combine Indian, central Asian, and Chinese artistic influences.

The Development of Rome

- What were the strengths and weaknesses of the Roman Republic? Why did the Roman Republic fall?
- How did the Romans advance the concept of citizenship?
- How did the environment influence the expansion of Rome and its integrated trade networks?
- How did other societies (the Greeks, Hellenistic states, Han China, Parthian Persia) influence and affect the Romans?

The final unit on Rome presents a challenge to teachers because it is also taught in seventh grade. The sixth-grade teacher emphasizes the development of the Roman Republic and the transition to the Roman Empire, focusing on the themes of environment, political systems and citizenship, and increasing trade and

connections between societies. The teacher also uses this unit to draw together major themes from the course by comparing Rome to earlier and contemporaneous societies and provide closure to the course.

The teacher begins with the influences of the Greeks and Hellenistic culture on Rome, with this question: **How did other societies (the Greeks, Hellenistic states, Han China, Parthian Persia) influence and affect the Romans?**

Students probe more deeply into Roman politics with this question: **How did the Romans advance the concept of citizenship?** Citizenship, republican institutions, and the rule of law are major Roman contributions to civics. According to Roman tradition, Vergil's *Aeneid* and the works of the historian Livy, Romulus, a descendant of the Trojan Aeneas, founded the city in 753 BCE. Kings first ruled Rome, but a republic replaced the monarchy in 509 BCE. The Romans adopted a distinct form of democracy, based on the Athenian model, with legislative power resting not with the entire mass of citizens, but with their representatives. Even though the political system experienced many problems as Rome grew in size, Roman culture provided a stable idea of citizenship.

Whereas the ancient Greeks valued competition and individual achievement, the highest virtue to the Romans was duty to their families, to the state, and to the gods. They idealized the virtue of public service, as depicted in the story of Cincinnatus, who (according to Roman sources) was living on a farm when he was chosen to serve as dictator during a hostile invasion in 458 BCE. Cincinnatus gave up his power after the defeat of the enemy to return to his simple life on the farm. His selfless devotion to public service inspired later leaders such as George Washington. Just as Confucian teachings on the ideal of government service strengthened Chinese government and society, the Roman ideal of the duty of a citizen to the state gave considerable stability to the state and social order.

The legend of Cincinnatus also emphasizes that the duty of a Roman to the state was often to fight. The Roman military was large, tough, and powerful. Environmental factors also influenced Rome's expansion, which students analyze with this guiding question: **How did the environment influence the expansion of Rome and its integrated trade networks?** During the Early Republic (509–264 BCE), the Romans took over the entire Italian peninsula, whose fertile valleys and coastal plains produced bountiful harvests of wheat, wine, olive oil, and wool.

Rome defeated its nearby neighbors in a series of wars and partially incorporated them into the young state, which ensured a steady supply of soldiers for the growing army. Expansion around the Mediterranean rim began in the third century BCE, when Rome defeated the maritime state of Carthage in the Punic Wars. By devastating Carthage, Rome gained thousands of square miles of wheat land in Sicily and North Africa, as well as a windfall of Spanish silver. In the decades before and after the turn of the millennium, Rome also conquered the Hellenistic kingdoms of Greece and Egypt.

As Rome grew in size, the republican government that had worked for it as a small city-state became more and more overwhelmed. The teacher introduces the following guiding questions: **What were the strengths and weaknesses of the Roman Republic? Why did the Roman Republic fall?** Rome's constitution distributed power among elected officials, the citizen body, and the oligarchic senate, but in practice decision making lay with the senate, especially with its most influential members. One problem was that only certain elite citizens, called the *patricians*, had access to the senate and thus to political power. Other citizens, called the *plebeians*, challenged the elite patricians in violent conflicts.

Plebeians finally won legal protections against patrician power and access to high political offices. However, as the Roman army conquered the entire Mediterranean basin, massive wealth from trade and spoils, as well as large numbers of slaves, poured into Italy. This increased the divide between wealthy (senators, patricians, and some plebeians) and poor (most plebeians, conquered foreigners, and slaves) and put great strain on the Roman political system.

By the Late Republic (133–31 BCE), political competition between senators became intense and increasingly violent. A succession of ambitious generals used the loyal armies to challenge each other and, increasingly, the authority of the entire senate, which the statesman and author Cicero symbolized. This discord culminated in the dictatorship of Julius Caesar and, under his successor Augustus (31 BCE–14 CE), in the establishment of what was in essence a monarchy and a new ruling dynasty. Augustus refused the title of king and pretended to defer to the senate, but his control over Rome was complete. Rulers afterwards took the title of emperor. For much of the first two centuries CE, the Roman Empire enjoyed political and territorial stability, and the provinces benefited from new roads, a standardized currency, economic growth, and peaceful conditions.

Returning to the question **How did the Romans advance the concept of citizenship?**, students evaluate the Roman Republic. The Roman Republic provided a model for future democratic institutions and the development of civic culture and citizenship in the early U.S. and other modern nations. Students consider ways in which modern writers, artists, and political leaders have appropriated Greek and Roman ideals, values, and cultural forms as worthy models for civil society. Besides borrowed words (*senate* and *capitol*, for example), architectural styles, and rhetorical models, later democratic states were inspired by the heroic civic models of Cincinnatus, the Horatius brothers, and Cicero, who defended the state and its republican institutions even when it was not in their self-interest. The struggle of Roman groups to widen political participation to the plebeians, to control the growing empire without allowing individuals to grow too wealthy or too powerful, and to harness the power of the military leaders to the service of the state also offered sobering examples of how republicanism could be undermined by social conflict, individual self-interest, and military power. The teacher asks students why Romans allowed Julius and then Augustus Caesar to take over the republic. Both were successful military leaders who delivered peace after a long period of civil war. Did the Romans give up freedom for order and peace?

However, even after Rome became an empire, the idea of citizenship remained strong. Wealthy Romans regularly contributed their personal assets to build civic structures, fund entertainment for the general public, and improve city life. The teacher has students analyze visuals from Pompeii of dedication plaques and inscriptions that are evidence of Roman civic contributions. **Why did wealthy Romans pay for these public structures and events? What did citizenship mean to them? How did the Romans advance the concept of citizenship?** Students are invited to identify connections between the Roman example to the responsibilities of students as citizens of the U.S. and to opportunities for service-learning projects.

Students make a social hierarchy pyramid of Roman society and recognize that by the Late Republic, Rome had a huge population of slaves. The teacher has them compare and contrast the social hierarchy of Rome and other earlier societies. Roman fathers had power over their families and dependents. Women who were not enslaved could achieve citizenship, though with several restrictions. They could neither attend the popular assemblies that had certain legislative powers nor serve as elected magistrates. They could, however, make wills, sue for divorce, circulate

openly in public, and hold certain religious offices. Also, wives and mothers in wealthy families sometimes exerted great influence on public decisions. The teacher emphasizes that all the urban societies studied in the course, like most premodern societies, were patriarchies with small, wealthy, and powerful elite groups and very large poor populations who worked at farming. Unlike Han China, however, much of the farming in Rome was done by slaves.

Finally, students investigate the question **How did other societies (the Greeks, Hellenistic states, Han China, Parthian Persia) influence and affect the Romans?** Originally a small farming community on the central west coast of the Italian peninsula, Rome was on the edge of the prosperous eastern Mediterranean sphere dominated by Greeks, Egyptians, and peoples of the Levant. The Roman Republic grew in the Hellenistic environment and drew on the trade, technology, and culture of the Greeks. Through military action, diplomacy, and the practice of granting citizenship to conquered peoples, the Romans were able to unite the entire coastal area around the Mediterranean into a single empire and to extend that empire into Europe. Roman culture absorbed much of the Greek and Hellenistic traditions. Rome's own innovations included the arch, concrete, technologically sophisticated road building, and a body of laws that has had immense influence on legal systems in Europe, the United States, and other parts of the world.

Rome, at its height, was at the center of a web of trade routes by land and sea. Huge plantations, through slave labor, produced grain to feed the population in Roman cities. Uniting the diverse environments of Egypt, North Africa, Syria, Anatolia, Greece, and Europe gave Romans access to vast resources. Roman roads



united the empire, and trade routes by land and sea connected it with eastern Asia. Wealthy Romans dressed in silk imported from China and jewels imported from India.

Students create maps of the trade routes across Afroeurasia that connected the Roman and Han Empires with the Persians and Central Asians who acted as middlemen. The


teacher has student pairs examine a physical map of Afroeurasia and a map of the Roman Empire at its furthest extent. He or she asks the students to predict where the Romans would expand next. Student pairs write down a prediction and give geographical evidence to support it. This analysis shows that the Romans had actually conquered all the desirable land around them, with the exception of Persia. To the north was a cold land of forests and barbarians, to the south and southeast were deserts, to the west, the ocean. The teacher points out that this presented huge problems to Rome, which they will study in seventh grade.

The Romans could not expand to the east because they could not defeat the Persian Empire, first under the Parthians and then under the Sasanians. In the first century BCE, Roman attacked the Parthians from their base in Syria. This resulted in a catastrophic military defeat for Rome and confirmed the Parthian empire as Rome's chief rival for control over Mesopotamia. The Parthian and Sasanian Persian emperors promoted the religion of Zoroastrianism to strengthen the power of their state and build up a national identity. Fighting continued between the two empires along the border in a bitter conflict. However, religious ideas and trade products were exchanged between the two enemies. Many Romans began to follow Mithraism, a religion from Persia and the east. Christianity spread back and forth across the Roman–Persian border.

This page is left blank intentionally.

CHAPTER 11

World History and Geography: Medieval and Early Modern Times

- 
- How did the distant regions of the world become more interconnected through medieval and early modern times?
 - What were the multiple ways people of different cultures interacted at sites of encounter? What were the effects of their interactions?
 - How did the environment and technological innovations affect the expansion of agriculture, cities, and human population? What impact did human expansion have on the environment?

- Why did many states and empires gain more power over people and territories over the course of medieval and early modern times?
- How did major religions (Judaism, Christianity, Islam, Buddhism, Hinduism, and Sikhism) and cultural systems (Confucianism, the Scientific Revolution, and the Enlightenment) develop and change over time? How did they spread to multiple cultures?

The medieval and early modern periods provide students with opportunities to study the rise and fall of empires, the diffusion of religions and languages, and significant movements of people, ideas, and products. During these periods, the regions of the world became more and more interconnected. Although societies were quite distinct from each other, there were more exchanges of people, products, and ideas in each century. For this reason, world history during the medieval and early modern periods can be a bewildering catalog of names, places, and events that impacted individual societies, while the larger patterns that affected the world are lost.

To avoid this, teachers must focus on questions that get at the larger geographic, historical, economic, and civic patterns of the world. To answer these questions, students study content-rich examples and case studies, rather than superficially survey all places, names, and events. Students approach history not only as a body of content (such as events, people, ideas, or historical accounts) to be encountered or mastered, but also as an investigative discipline. They analyze evidence from written and visual primary sources, supplemented by secondary sources, to form historical interpretations. Both in writing and speaking, they cite evidence from textual sources to support their arguments.

The thematic questions listed above relate to the following major changes that took place during medieval and early modern times:

- Long-term growth, despite some temporary dips, in the world’s population beyond any level reached in ancient times. A great increase in agricultural and city-dwelling populations in the world compared with hunters and gatherers, whose numbers steadily declined.
- Technological advances that gave humans power to produce greater amounts of food and manufactured items, allowing the global population to keep rising.
- An increase in the interconnection and encounters between distant regions of the world. Expansion of long-distance seagoing trade, as well as commercial, technological, and cultural exchanges. By the first millennium BCE (Before Common Era), these networks spanned most of Afroeurasia (the huge interconnected landmass that includes Africa, Europe, and Asia). In the Americas, the largest networks were in Mesoamerica and the Andes region of South America. After 1500 CE (Common Era), a global network of intercommunication emerged.
- The rise of more numerous and powerful kingdoms and empires, especially after 1450 CE, when gunpowder weapons became available to rulers.
- Increasing human impact on the natural and physical environment, including the diffusion of plants, animals, and microorganisms to parts of the world where they had previously been unknown.

One of the great historical projects of the last few decades has been to shift from teaching Western civilization, a narrative that put Western Europe at the center of world events in this period, to teaching world history.

Decentering Europe is a complicated process, because themes, periods, narratives, and terminology of historical study was originally built around Europe. For example, the terms *medieval* and *early modern* were invented to divide European history into eras. Neither of the meanings of *medieval*—“middle” or “backward and primitive”—is useful for periodizing world history or the histories of China, South Asia, Southeast Asia, or Mesoamerica. Students can analyze the term *medieval* to uncover its Renaissance and Eurocentric biases, as a good introduction to the concept of history as an interpretative discipline in which historians investigate primary and secondary sources, and make interpretations based on evidence.

Themes and large questions offer cohesion to the world history course, but students also need to investigate sources in depth. For this, a useful concept is the *site of encounter*—a place where people from different cultures meet and exchange products, ideas, and technologies. A site of encounter is a specific place, such as Sicily, Quanzhou, or Tenochtitlán/Mexico City. Students may analyze concrete objects, such as a porcelain vase or the image of a saint, exchanged or made at the site. As students investigate the exchanges that took place and the interactions of merchants, bureaucrats, soldiers, and artisans at the site, they learn to consider not only what was happening in one culture but also how cultures influenced each other. Students also gain fluency in world geography through maps.

Although this framework covers the existing seventh-grade content standards, it reorganizes the units. Each of the new units has investigative questions to guide instruction and concrete examples and case studies for in-depth analysis. The new units are as follows:

1. **The World in 300 CE** (Interconnections in Afroeurasia and Americas)
2. **Rome and Christendom, 300 CE–1200** (Roman Empire, Development and Spread of Christianity, Medieval Europe, and Sicily)
3. **Southwestern Asia, 300–1200: Persia and the World of Islam** (Persia, Umayyad and Abbasid Caliphates, Development and Spread of Islam, Sicily, and Cairo)
4. **South Asia, 300–1200** (Gupta Empire, Spread of Hinduism and Buddhism, Srivijaya)
5. **East Asia, 300–1300: China and Japan** (China during Tang and Song, Spread of Buddhism, Korea and Japan, Quanzhou)
6. **The Americas, 300–1490** (Maya, Aztec, Inca)
7. **West Africa, 900–1400** (Ghana, Mali)
8. **Sites of Encounter in Medieval World, 1150–1490** (Mongols, Majorca, Calicut)
9. **Global Convergence, 1450–1750** (Voyages, Columbian Exchange, Trade Networks, Gunpowder Empires; Colonialism in the Americas and Southeast Asia, Atlantic World)

10. The Impact of Ideas, 1500–1750 (The spread of Religions, Reformation, Renaissance, Scientific Revolution, Enlightenment)

The World in 300 CE

- How interconnected were the distant regions of the world in 300 CE?

This unit serves an introduction to world regions and interconnections as of the year 300 CE. The teacher explains that a central question of the seventh-grade world history course is **How did the distant regions of the world become more interconnected through medieval and early modern times?** In this unit, students will study the interconnections of world cultures in 300 CE. The world's people were fundamentally divided into two regions: Afroeurasia (or the Eastern Hemisphere) and the Americas (or the Western Hemisphere). In the Americas, there were many different cultures. In two areas, Mesoamerica and the area along the Andean mountain spine, states and empires with large cities were supported by advanced agricultural techniques and widespread regional trade. In 300 CE, the Maya were building a powerful culture of city-states, and Teotihuacán in central Mexico was one of the largest cities in the world. These two centers traded with each other. In the Andes region, the state of Tiahuanaco extended its trade networks from modern-day Peru to Chile. While these two regions were probably not in contact with each other, trade routes crossed much of North and South America.

In Afroeurasia, there were many distinct cultures that spoke their own languages, followed distinct customs, and had little contact with other cultures. However, across the center of Afroeurasia, many cultures were connected by trade routes. These trade routes were across land, such as the Silk Road between Central Asia and China, and across seas, such as the Indian Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea. Luxury goods, such as silk from China or frankincense from the Horn of Africa, traveled from merchant to merchant across Afroeurasia from the Atlantic to Pacific Coasts, but the merchants themselves did not travel that far.

A small group of elite people (wealthy, land-owning, ruling, noble, religious leaders) in each of those cultures bought imported luxury products. Besides trade goods, travelers on the trade routes carried ideas and technologies from one culture to other cultures. Missionaries of Buddhism and Christianity spread their

religious ideas. In 300 CE, the regions of Afroeurasia were much more connected to each other than ever before. However, they were not as connected and intertwined as they are today. In 300 CE, the most important influences in each culture came from within that culture, rather than from contacts with the outside world.

Although there were hundreds of different cultures in Afroeurasia, four empires, states, and cultures dominated the center of Afroeurasia: the Roman Empire (Mediterranean region and Europe), the Sasanian Persian Empire (Southwestern Asia), the Gupta Empire (South Asia), and China (East Asia). Students analyze maps that show these empires across Afroeurasia and trace the trade routes (on land and sea) that connected them.



Migrations continued to be important change factors. Along the northern edge of the agricultural regions of China, India, Persia, and Rome, in the steppe grasslands, pastoral nomad societies moved east and west. Some formed mounted warrior armies that attacked the empires of China, India, Persia, and Rome and disrupted commerce on the silk roads and land trade routes across Eurasia. In Oceania, Polynesian explorers used outrigger canoes and navigational expertise to expand their settlement to new islands across the Pacific. In sub-Saharan Africa, Bantu-speaking farmers were expanding southward and founding communities, mixing with or displacing older cattle-herding and foraging populations and expanding town and trade networks.

Between 300 and 600 CE, the disruptions caused by the migrations, attacks, and the decline of some empires (such as Han China, Parthian Persia, and the Western Roman Empire) made these times turbulent for many peoples of the world. The number of big cities declined from an estimated 75 in 100 CE to only 47 by 500 CE. But in other areas of the world, the networks of trade and interconnection expanded. As trade across the Sahara increased, Ghana emerged as a new commercial kingdom along the southern edge of the desert. The routes expanded southward to Aksum in East Africa, which flourished as a center of Indian Ocean trade. In the seventh century, a dynamic period of trade and cultural interchange

took hold across Afroeurasia. Trade and the spread of religious ideas between societies in Afroeurasia increased again.

Rome and Christendom, 300 CE–1200

- How did the environment and technological innovations affect the growth and contraction of the Roman Empire, the Byzantine Empire, and medieval Christendom? What impact did human expansion have on the environment?
- How was Rome a site of encounter?
- How did the Roman Empire gain and maintain power over people and territories?
- How did the religion of Christianity develop and change over time? How did Christianity spread through the empire and to other cultures?
- Did the Roman Empire fall?
- How did the decentralized system of feudalism control people but weaken state power?

This unit builds on the sixth-grade study of Roman civilization. Even if students did not study the Roman Republic in sixth grade, the seventh-grade teacher should not spend time reviewing that phase of Roman history. Instead, the teacher should begin with the question **How did the environment and technological innovations affect the growth and contraction of the Roman Empire?** Rome began on the Italian peninsula and spread around the Mediterranean Sea. At its greatest extent, the empire stretched from Britain to Egypt and from the Atlantic Ocean to Iraq. It united the entire Mediterranean region for the first (and only) time.

Although the Romans did conquer northwestern Europe, they were more at home in the warm, dry climate around the Mediterranean Sea. Geographically, northern Europe lies within the temperate climatic zone that, in ancient and early medieval times, was heavily forested. Atlantic westerly winds bring high rainfall, mostly in winter, to ocean-facing Europe. Deeper into Eurasia, however, these latitudes become drier and colder.

In Mediterranean Europe, mild, rainy winters and hot, dry summers prevail. Beginning in ancient times, farmers converted forests of southern Europe into wheat fields, olive orchards, and vineyards. Farming advanced more slowly in the dense woodlands and marshes of the north. The California Education and the Environment Initiative (EEI) curriculum unit “Managing Nature’s Bounty,” 7.6.3, provides a map of the physical features and natural regions of Europe, and lesson 4 explores the products of different European regions. Students analyze what effect geographic location had on the Roman Empire and on the Germanic peoples who lived in the northern forests beyond the Danube and Rhine Rivers. Students map the extent of the empire and label the most important provinces (Egypt, Spain, Gaul, Greece, Syria) and bodies of water. They also examine Roman buildings and roads to see the application of the two most important Roman technological innovations: the arch and cement. Studying maps of roads, trade routes, and products traded within the empire shows that the Roman Empire was based on a network of cities. Those cities were dependent on trade with other regions of the empire. This is common today, but in the ancient world it was not.

Instead of reviewing the Roman Republic, the teacher begins with the Roman Empire at its height and poses the question **How was Rome a site of encounter?** A *site of encounter* is a place where people of different cultures meet and exchange products, ideas, and technologies. At the site of encounter, new products, ideas, and technologies are often created because of the exchange. Rome was a multicultural empire. Romans spoke Latin, but they conquered Egyptians, Greeks, Syrians, Jews, Celts, and Gauls, people who spoke Greek, Aramaic, Hebrew, and hundreds of other languages and followed dozens of religions. Roman emperors built up the city of Rome to bring together the best from their empire and the world.

By studying Rome as a site of encounter, students explore the character and contributions of Roman civilization at its height. Residents benefited from sophisticated art, architecture, and engineering. For example, the Romans constructed huge aqueducts to bring water to cities from many miles away. Imports of grain and olive oil fed the city of between one and two million people at the height of its growth. The city featured a Colosseum for gladiatorial contests, a race track, theaters, baths (for both bathing and socializing), and elegant forums with markets and law courts.

Many great thinkers and writers, such as Pliny the Elder, Juvenal, Plutarch, and Virgil (or Vergil), lived and wrote during the Roman peace (*Pax Romana*), the two centuries of prosperity that began with the reign of Augustus Caesar (27 BCE–14 CE). However, this prosperity was based on riches from conquest and slave labor on large agricultural estates that provided food and luxuries for the cities. Wealthy Romans also purchased luxuries, such as silk from China, medicines and jewels from India, and animals from sub-Saharan Africa, brought into the empire by merchants on the Silk Road and other Afroeurasian trade routes.

Next, students examine the question **How did the Roman Empire gain and maintain power over people and territories?**

After Augustus, Rome was ruled by an emperor who, in theory, had total power. However, in practice, the power of the emperor was limited by the lack of an effective administration, except in the military. The Roman legions were the source of imperial authority. For civilian

government, the empire relied on attracting local elites (landowners, wealthy and/or powerful people, religious leaders) to become local administrators. Corruption was a huge problem, and military leaders had too much power.

However, the unity of Rome and the power of its culture gave many people a strong reason to support the empire. Roman citizenship was initially given to people from the provinces as a reward for service (for example, to retired auxiliary soldiers). They and their sons then had the right to vote. Gradually, everyone in the provinces gained citizenship, except for slaves. Broadening citizenship was a deliberate policy of certain emperors who believed it would cause more people to support the empire and help it run smoothly. Roman laws also helped solidify the empire. A body of laws was passed down through the centuries and ultimately influenced legal systems in modern states such as France, Italy, and Spain, as well as in Latin American countries.



Grade Seven Classroom Example: The Roman Empire

To understand the Roman perspective on the empire’s power over other people and territories, students do a close reading of an excerpt from Vergil’s *Aeneid* (Book VI, lines 845–853). Mr. Taylor gives students a copy of the excerpt with the following guiding question: **What did the poet Vergil think about the Roman Empire’s power over people and territories?** The handout also has a sentence deconstruction chart for the excerpt and a source analysis template.

For the first reading, the students read the excerpt to themselves and then discuss these questions: **Did Vergil think Roman power was good or bad for the conquered people? What words support your answer?** For the second reading, Mr. Taylor guides the students through a sentence deconstruction chart, pointing out the parallel phrases describing the “others” (the Greeks and Persians) and “you” (the Romans). The students also complete the source analysis template, with information from the textbook or teacher notes. They learn that Vergil was a Roman poet in the first century BCE. His patron was Augustus Caesar, the founder of the Roman Empire.

The historical context for the writing of the *Aeneid* was the beginning of the Roman Empire. In fact, Vergil wrote this poem to glorify the new empire and Augustus as its leader. For the third reading, Mr. Taylor divides the students into pairs. Each pair marks up the text with cognitive markers and annotates it in the margins. He then displays several of the pairs’ annotated texts on the elmo (document projector), explains difficult points, and answers questions. For the fourth reading, students answer text-dependent questions. For the final question, Mr. Taylor calls for an interpretation to answer the guiding question.

CA HSS Content Standard: 7.1.1

CA HSS Analysis Skills (6–8): Research, Evidence, and Point of View 5, Historical Interpretation 1

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.6–8.1, 2, 6, SL.7.1, L5a

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.7.1, 6a

In the late second century, the Romans came up against limits. Roman armies could not defeat the Persian Empire in the east, and there was little reason to expand into the rural communities and forests of northeastern Europe. Deprived

of its income from conquest, Rome still had to defend its frontier on the Rhine and Danube Rivers from the Germanic peoples and its border with the Persian Sasanian Empire in the east. In the third century, the emperors Diocletian and Constantine divided the Roman Empire in two and reformed the empire to focus its resources on military defense. Constantine established a new capital for the Eastern Roman Empire at Byzantium, which he renamed Constantinople.

At this point, the teacher shifts to the development of Christianity. In the early years of the Roman Empire, Christianity began as a sect of Judaism in Judea, a province of the Roman Empire. The teacher focuses on the following questions: **How did the religion of Christianity develop and change over time? How did Christianity spread through the empire and to other cultures?** Through selections from Biblical literature, students will learn about those teachings of Jesus that advocate compassion, justice, and love for others. He taught that God loved all his creation, regardless of status or circumstance, and that humans should reflect that love in relations with one another. Jesus shared the Jewish belief in one God, but he added the promise of eternal salvation to those who believe in him as their savior. The Roman authorities in Judea executed Jesus. But under the leadership of his early followers, notably Paul, a Jewish scholar from Anatolia, Christians took advantage of Roman roads and sea-lanes to travel widely, preaching to both Jews and others.

As missionaries spread Christianity beyond the Jewish community, they abandoned some Jewish customs, such as dietary laws, to make the new religion more accessible to non-Jews. Christian communities multiplied around the Mediterranean, through Persia, and into Central Asia. The church communities welcomed new converts without consideration of their political or social standing, including the urban poor and women. Although ancient Christianity was a patriarchy and all the apostles were men, several women were prominent, especially Mary, mother of Jesus. Until modern times, Christian women had few property rights and were subordinate to men. Upper-class and influential Romans who converted appear to have been predominantly women, and some of them assumed leadership positions. Many Jews did not convert to Christianity, and Judaism and Christianity split into two separate religions.

The Romans had an official state religion (Jupiter, Juno, deified former emperors), but they allowed people they had conquered to follow other religions.

However, after some Jews rebelled against Roman rule, the Romans exiled many Jews from Judea, which led to the *diaspora*, or spreading out, of Jewish communities across Afroeurasia. Christians also got into trouble with Roman authorities because Christians refused to attend the official sacrifices to the Roman gods. The Roman authorities sometimes persecuted Christians and executed them, but at other times, Christians were left alone.

In the fourth century CE, Emperor Constantine legalized the religion of Christianity, and soon after, it became Rome's state religion. Constantine wanted the Christian Church to unify and support the now divided Roman Empire. As it became a state religion, Christianity changed. The bishops who had been leaders of semisecret, persecuted communities were now charged with supporting the Roman Empire. Constantine insisted that the bishops hold a council at Nicaea and agree on one set of Christian beliefs, summarized in the Nicene Creed. Church leaders selected certain texts (gospels and letters) for the official Christian Bible, which was translated into Latin. They organized the Christian Church with a Roman structure and gave their support to Roman authorities. Church leaders then vigorously tried to convert everyone to Christianity. As the Western Roman Empire shrank, Christian bishops often took over the administration and defense of Roman cities.

The teacher points out that all religions change over time. In the historical context of 203 CE, when Christians were sometimes persecuted by the Romans, martyrs were admired and made into saints of the early church. When Christianity became the official religion of the Roman Empire, the religion changed again, and the new emphasis was on obeying Roman authorities, behaving well, and converting nonbelievers to Christianity. The teacher concludes by telling students that they will return to this question about the development and changes in Christianity later in the unit.

Teachers now introduce students to the question **Did the Roman Empire fall?** In 476 CE, the empire in the west disappeared, though the eastern half continued to thrive. As the Byzantine Empire, this Greek-speaking Roman state survived until 1453. Students examine the evidence (from the textbook or teacher notes) and form their own interpretations to answer the guiding question. They examine factors that might have contributed to the collapse of western Rome: declining financial resources, political corruption and insubordinate military groups,

excessive reliance on slave labor, depopulation from epidemics, and worsening frontier assaults, as the Huns migrated westward and pushed waves of Germanic tribes into the empire. By the time the Western Roman Empire ended in 476 CE, it had already shrunk into a small area, a shadow of its former extent.

The teacher may point out that mounted warrior armies from Central Eurasia caused problems for empires and kingdoms in China, India, and Persia as well, and contributed to a decline of trade on the silk roads and other land routes across Eurasia between 300 and 600 CE. The teacher has students meet together in groups to discuss the question and use their notes to make a T-chart of the reasons and evidence that support the position favoring the “fall” of Rome, and the reasons and evidence for the position denying the “fall” of Rome.

Then the groups evaluate the reasons and evidence and formulate a one-sentence interpretation as an answer to the question **Did the Roman Empire fall?** The teacher also explains that if they argue that Rome did not fall, they should choose another word to characterize the end of the Western Roman Empire and the transition to the Byzantine Empire in the east. After student groups prepare their T-charts and write their interpretations, a student volunteer from each group writes the group’s interpretation on the board. Groups share their reasons and evidence for and against, as the teacher records it on a T-chart on the board. Then the teacher and students review and discuss each of the interpretations.

The teacher instructs student groups to review and revise their interpretations, if necessary, and identify the two pieces of evidence that best support their interpretation. The teacher explains that evidence must be specific. After students have selected the evidence in groups, each student writes a paragraph answering the question **Did the Roman Empire fall?** They must include two pieces of evidence. To support English learners, the teacher provides a paragraph frame that starts each sentence with appropriate academic historical language.

Next, students study the Byzantine Empire by seeking an answer to the question **How did the environment and contact with other cultures affect the growth and contraction of the Byzantine Empire?** The Eastern Roman Empire was stronger than the Western portion. It had more people, more cities, greater manufacturing and commerce, more tax revenues, and more effective defenses against mounted

warrior attacks from the north. Its military strength and wealth from the Afroeurasian luxury trade caused a flowering culture in the period between 600 and 1000 CE. The Byzantine Empire, as the eastern lands became known, had strong historical connections to earlier Hellenistic civilization. Its language was Greek, not Latin. This state was highly centralized around its capital of Constantinople and the rule of the emperor and his officials. The Christian church in the Byzantine Empire was closely connected to the emperor and his administration.

The Byzantine Empire continued the Roman Empire's conflicts with the Persians along the eastern frontier. This long conflict weakened both empires and left them vulnerable when Muslim armies attacked in the mid-seventh century. Although Muslim Arabs conquered the Sasanid Empire, the Byzantine Empire survived but lost huge territories in North Africa and western Asia. The Byzantine Empire shrank, but it did not fall until 1453.

In the fourth and fifth centuries, the Western Roman Empire fragmented, causing population to fall, cities to shrink, and agriculture to contract. As the empire shrank, Germanic armies and migrants overran Europe, dividing the region into small, rudimentary kingdoms. The teacher begins to prepare students for the following question: **How did the decentralized system of feudalism control people but weaken state power?** The teacher points out that early medieval kingdoms did not have strong authority. Local leaders and landholders were much more effective rulers of their small territories. In the Middle Ages, all power was local, not centralized in a state. Over the next few centuries, there was little trade, and most cities disappeared.

In the eighth century, a Muslim dynasty founded a strong state in Iberia. Charlemagne (768–814) was an exceptionally strong Christian king, who temporarily united a large part of Europe in the late eighth century and contributed much to the advancement of Latin literacy, learning, and the arts. Students may read excerpts from Einhard's *Life of Charlemagne* to analyze the factors that made Charlemagne's rule so successful.

After Charlemagne, political order was again fragmented by Viking, Magyar, and Muslim invasions. Local power, established in parts of Western Christendom through feudal relations, was the key to defeating the invaders. In feudalism, kings

and powerful regional rulers offered protection and farm estates, or manors, to less powerful knights in return for loyalty and military service. The manors provided the income needed for a knight's horses, armor, and training. Knights, as lords of the manors, also controlled the serfs—peasants who were tied permanently to the manor and obligated to give their lord labor and crops in return for security. Knights, regional lords, and aristocrats gained rights to hand down fiefs to heirs. Mothers and prospective wives often exerted great influence over marriages and family alliances. Gradually, the elite mounted warriors began to be known as nobles.

These nobles wanted to keep control over local areas rather than to give power to the king and central government. Students learn about the conflict between King John and the great nobles in England, who forced the king to grant the Magna Carta. This document guaranteed trial by jury of one's peers and the concept of no taxation without representation. From this root, other medieval developments in England, such as common law and Parliament, gradually limited the king's power and laid the foundations of English constitutional monarchy.

In addition to considering the political aspects of feudalism, students look at these questions: **How did the environment and technological innovations affect the growth of medieval Christendom? What impact did human expansion have on the environment?** In the tenth century, serfs and free peasants employed new technologies, such as the moldboard plow and the horse collar, to cultivate new farmland and boost agricultural production.

Around 1000 CE, these innovations caused an agricultural revolution in Western Christendom, which caused the population to increase, trade to expand, and cities to grow again. In this expansion, many of the forests of northern Europe were cut down, as humans used wood for heating and cooking and cleared land for farming. Lessons 2 and 3 of California EEI curriculum unit “Managing Nature’s Bounty: Feudalism in Medieval Europe,” 7.6.3, analyze how feudal relations and the manor system allocated ecosystem resources, and how physical geography influenced feudal administrative positions and resource management.

As students return to study of Christianity, they return to the question **How did the religion of Christianity develop and change over time?** First, they trace on a map the spread of Christianity across Europe and Afroeurasia (as far east as

Central Asia). In the Middle Ages, people called the Christian parts of Europe *Christendom*, which shows that an important part of their identity was being Christian. Since kings and states were so weak, the Church, whose hierarchy of clerics extended from the Pope down to the village priest, became the largest, most integrated organization in Europe. The Church followed a hierarchy adopted from the Roman Empire. Missionaries spread out to convert Germanic and Slavic peoples to Christianity.

Christianity spread in Central and Eastern Europe, facilitating the formation of states such as Poland in 966. Although most of the conversions were voluntary, some Christian kings forced people to convert to Christianity, as Charlemagne did to the Saxons in early 800s. Wealthy Christians donated land to monasteries, filled with monks and nuns who pledged themselves to live separately from the world. These monks and nuns were the only educated people, and they devoted themselves to copying Roman and Christian texts. Around 900, popes began to assert their control over the church hierarchy, which brought them into conflict with secular monarchs.



Students learn about the split between the Orthodox Church, which acknowledged the leadership of the patriarch of Constantinople, and the Catholic Church, which recognized the authority of the pope in Rome. Churches in Eastern Europe (Russian, Greek, Serbian) followed the Orthodox or Greek Church, since missionaries led by Constantinople had converted their people to Christianity. Because

missionaries led by Rome had converted people in Western, Central, and Northern Europe, these remained in “the Church,” also called the Latin Church and, later, the Roman Catholic Church.

Southwestern Asia, 300–1200: Persia and the World of Islam

- How did the environment affect the development and expansion of the Persian Empire, Muslim empires, and cities? What impact did this expansion have on the environment?
- How did Islam develop and change over time? How did Islam spread to multiple cultures?
- What were the multiple ways people of different cultures interacted at the sites of encounter, such as Baghdad?
- Why was Norman Sicily a site of encounter?
- What were the effects of the exchanges at Cairo?
- How did the Muslim empires and institutions help different regions of Afroeurasia become more interconnected?

This unit examines the geography of Southwestern Asia (including the Middle East), the Persian Sasanian Empire, the emergence and development of Islam, the Umayyad and Abbasid Caliphates, the spread of Islam, and interactions at three sites of encounter: Baghdad in the eighth century, Sicily in the twelfth century, and Cairo in the fourteenth century. The teacher begins with introducing the following questions: **How did the environment affect the development and expansion of the Persian Empire, Muslim empires, and cities? What impact did this expansion have on the environment?** A climatic map of Southwestern Asia shows that much of this area falls within a long belt of dry country that extends from the Sahara Desert to the arid lands of northern China.

In lesson one of California EEI curriculum unit “Arabic Trade Networks,” 7.2.5, students examine the physical features and natural systems of the Arabian Peninsula and the human improvements to farming practices, which increased supplies of food. Across this dry zone, including Arabia, pastoral nomads herded camels and other animals, and oasis cities sheltered farmers, artisans, and merchants. North of the Arabian Peninsula is the lush agricultural land of Mesopotamia and Persia. Here settled farmers had supported an advanced civilization going back to ancient Mesopotamia. A map of the Eastern Hemisphere

also shows students that Southwestern Asia, Persia, Arabia, the Red Sea, and the Persian Gulf were natural channels for land and sea trade in spices, textiles, and many other goods between the Indian Ocean world and the Mediterranean area. These geographic factors put Southwestern Asia and Arab, Persian, and Indian merchants and sailors at the center of the Afroeurasian trade networks, which began to grow dynamically after the seventh century.

The teacher turns briefly to the Persian Sasanian Empire from 300 to 651, when it was conquered by Muslim armies. The teacher reminds students that the Persian Empire (under different names that are not important for the students to memorize) had existed from about 550 BCE and was the heir to the ancient civilization of Mesopotamia. It was the most important state in Southwestern Asia and Rome and the Byzantine Empire's great rival for power in the eastern Mediterranean and western Asia. In the sixth century, the Sasanians ruled an empire that began at the Euphrates River and covered modern Iraq, Iran, Afghanistan, and parts of central Asia. Their ruler was called by the title "King of Kings."

The official religion of Persia was Zoroastrianism, but the Persians practiced religious tolerance. Many Jews and Christians lived in the Persian Empire. Every land trade route across central Eurasia passed through the Persian Empire, and the tax income from the trade made the Persians wealthy. Continued warfare against the Byzantine Empire weakened the Sasanian Persian Empire in the mid-seventh century and contributed to its fall to Muslim armies.

The students now turn to the emergence of the religion of Islam, as they study the questions **How did Islam develop and change over time? How did Islam spread to multiple cultures?** Along with Judaism and Christianity, Islam is an "Abrahamic" religion, that is, a faith built on the ancient monotheism of Abraham. Beginning in 610, Muhammad (570–632 CE), a resident of the small Arabian city of Mecca, preached a new vision of monotheistic faith. According to Muslim tradition, Muhammad, an Arabic-speaking merchant, received revelations from God, which were written down in the *Qur'an*. This message declared that human beings must worship and live by the teachings of the one God and treat one another with equality and justice. Divine salvation will come to the righteous, but those who deny God, *Allah* in Arabic, will suffer damnation. God's commandments require all men and women to live virtuously by submitting to Allah and following the Five Pillars.

Like Christianity, there is an afterlife in Islam; faithful believers are promised paradise after death. Islamic teachings are set forth principally in the *Qur'an* and the *Hadith*, the sayings and actions of Muhammad. These were the foundation for the Shariah, the religious laws governing moral, social, and economic life. Islamic law, for example, rejected the older Arabian view of women as “family property,” declaring that all women and men are entitled to respect and moral self-governance, even though Muslim society, like all agrarian societies of that era, remained patriarchal, that is, dominated politically, socially, and culturally by men.

Muhammad also founded a political state in order to defend the young Muslim community. He led armies of desert tribes to take over all of the Arabian Peninsula. After his death, the leaders of the Muslim community chose one of his followers to be their new leader, with the title *caliph*. The caliphs sent armies northward to conquer part of the Christian Byzantine Empire and all of the Persian Sasanian Empire.

As the Muslim conquests multiplied, the Umayyad Dynasty of caliphs ruled an empire called the Umayyad Caliphate. Muslim armies continued to conquer land until by 750 CE, the Umayyad Caliphate extended from Spain all the way to the valley of the Indus. Muslims often did not force Christians or Jews, “people of the book,” to convert, but some Muslim rulers did force some non-Muslims to convert. Non-Muslims had to pay a special tax to the caliphate. Gradually more and more people in the caliphate converted to Islam, and Arabic, the language of both the conquerors and the *Qur'an*, achieved gradual dominance across much of Southwestern Asia (except in Persia) and North Africa. The Umayyad Caliphate broke into several states after 750, but most of the Middle East remained unified under the caliphs of the Abbasid Dynasty (751–1258) with its capital in Baghdad.

The teacher introduces the new capital of Baghdad as the next site of encounter, with the following question: **What were the multiple ways people of different cultures interacted at sites of encounter, such as Baghdad?** The teacher asks students to think about what they have just studied about the spread of the Muslim Empire as one way people of different cultures interact. That is, Arabs, who were nomadic tribesmen from Arabia, converted to a new religion and, inspired by that religion, fought wars against other cultures. One type of cultural interaction is war. After the conquest, people of other cultures had to live under Umayyad Muslim rule and, if they belonged to another religion, pay special taxes.

This type of cultural interaction is called *coexistence* in communities. Another type is *adoption and adaptation*. Some of these conquered people adopted the new religion for various reasons, such as religious conversion, access to political power, and socioeconomic advantages. As they converted, they changed their names, their social identity, and associated with Muslims in their area rather than with their home group of Jews, Christians, or others. Over time, they adopted more of Arab culture as well. However, as they adopted the Muslim religion and Arab culture, they also adapted religious and cultural practices to accommodate local customs. For example, the custom of secluding elite women inside a special part of the house and allowing them to go out only when their hair and most of their bodies were covered predates the religion of Islam. It was actually a Persian and Mediterranean (and ancient Athenian) custom. Before Islam, Arabian women were not confined to the household. The Persians and Mediterranean people who converted to Islam adapted social practices to include their custom. This is just one example of the cultural adaptation process.

Under the Abbasids, Baghdad grew from an insignificant village to one of the leading cities of the world. The city's culture was a mix of Arab, Persian, Indian, Turkish, and other South Asian and Central Asian cultures. The Abbasids encouraged both the growth of learning and borrowing from Greek, Hellenistic, and Indian science and medicine. They built schools and libraries; translated and preserved Greek philosophic, scientific, and medical texts; and supported scientists who expanded that knowledge.

In Baghdad and other Muslim-ruled cities, Muslim, Christian, and Jewish scholars collaborated to study ancient Greek, Persian, and Indian writings, forging and widely disseminating a more advanced synthesis of philosophical, scientific, mathematical, geographic, artistic, medical, and literary knowledge. To investigate the question **What did the interaction of Arab, Persian, Greek, Hellenistic, and Indian ideas and technologies at Baghdad (and the Abbasid Caliphate) produce?**, students analyze visuals of libraries, schools, and scientific drawings from Muslim manuscripts; the circulation of “Arabic” numerals; and words of Arabic origin (such as *algebra*, *candy*, *mattress*, *rice*). The teacher sets up a gallery walk and provides student groups with a source analysis template. Students use the template to record source information, describe the contents of the visual, and cite evidence from the visual that answers the lesson question. Students share some of their observations

and answers with the whole class, as the teacher lists the products on the board. Then the teacher guides students by developing a one-sentence interpretation that answers the question. The students then return to their groups to discuss the evidence they have gathered. The teacher stresses that they should choose the best two pieces of evidence from their gallery walk. The group chooses two pieces of evidence, and each group member completes an evidence-analysis chart (with columns for evidence, meaning, significance, and source). The teacher displays several group charts on the document projector, clears up any misconceptions, and showcases examples of good evidence choices, analyses, and citations.

After 900, the Abbasid Empire began to fragment into many smaller states. However, the common knowledge of Arabic, the pilgrimage to Mecca, and extensive trade and travel unified the Muslim world. Islam continued to spread, sometimes by conquest, but also by the missionary work of *Sufis* and traveling Muslim merchants. Sufi saints and teachers combined local and Islamic traditions, and inspired common people on the frontier areas of the Muslim world—East Africa, Southeast Asia, and South Asia—to convert.

The teacher now tells students that they will look at Western Christendom and the world of Islam together. By studying the site of encounter in twelfth-century Norman Sicily and using the History Blueprint’s Sites of Encounter in the Medieval World unit, they start with the question **Why was Norman Sicily a site of encounter?** Because of its geographic location, multicultural population, and tolerant rulers, the Norman kingdom of Sicily was a major site of exchange among Muslims, Jews, Latin Roman Christians, and Greek Byzantine Christians in the twelfth century. At the same time, Latin Christian crusaders were battling with Syrian, Arab, Egyptian, and North African Muslim warriors over territory and religious differences. Whereas in the past, historians placed

The History Blueprint is a curriculum developed by the California History–Social Science Project (CHSSP) (<http://chssp.ucdavis.edu>) and designed to increase student literacy and understanding of history. Three units are available as downloads free of charge from the CHSSP’s Web site. Sites of Encounter in the Medieval World is a comprehensive standards-aligned unit for seventh-grade teachers that combines carefully selected and excerpted primary sources, original content, and substantive support for student literacy development. For more information or to download the curriculum, visit <http://chssp.ucdavis.edu/programs/historyblueprint>.

emphasis on religious differences and the Crusades, historians now emphasize the common features of these Mediterranean cultures and the many ways in which Christians, Muslims, and Jews interacted. The Sicily lesson reflects this new approach to world history through the medieval Mediterranean. Rather than directly teaching one interpretation, the teacher presents the primary sources, guides students through analysis of the evidence, and asks students to form their own interpretation to answer the following question: **Was there more trade (with peace and tolerance) or conflict (especially conflict between religious groups)?** Students investigate Al-Idrisi’s world map, excerpts from Geoffrey Malaterra and Ibn Jubayr, documents from the Cairo Geniza and the Venetian archives, lists of trade goods, and visuals of objects created and sold in Sicily, engage in map activities, close readings, a gallery walk, and discussion. Students analyze the content of the lesson in a graphic organizer that also introduces them to the concept of cause-and-effect historical reasoning.

The central position of the Islamic world in Afroeurasia became increasingly important as trade and exchange expanded. Muslim merchants, scholars, and Sufis traveled between the great cities, such as Córdoba, Damascus and Cairo, which produced luxury goods such as steel swords and embroidered silk capes. Students investigate the question **How did the Muslim empires and institutions help different regions of Afroeurasia become more interconnected?** through the



second site of encounter in the History Blueprint lesson: Cairo in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Cairo was at the center of the network of roads, sea routes, and cities that supported trade and pilgrimage in the Islamic world, making it one of the most important trade cities in Afroeurasia.

Students work with the Sites of Encounter in the Medieval World interactive map either online or through the teacher’s projection to make an interpretation about the following question: **What advantages did Cairo have as a trade city?** Either individually or in pairs, students read a secondary informative text titled “Cairo Background Reading,” answer text-dependent questions, and, in a group,

summarize the main ideas of the text in a cause-and-effect graphic organizer around the following question: **What were the effects of the exchanges at Cairo?**

The Islamic world was a network of cities tied together by a common religion, pilgrimage, trade, and intellectual culture. Islamic institutions, such as the pilgrimage (or *hajj*), caravans, *caravanserais*, *funduqs*, *souqs*, *madrassas*, and favorable policies of city and state governments provided major assistance to merchants and travelers. In a gallery walk of primary-source visuals of and text excerpts about these institutions, students gather and analyze evidence by using an evidence-analysis chart.

The same routes also transmitted technologies and food plants. For example, paper-making technology reached the Southwestern Asia from China around the eighth century and spread from there to Europe in the following 300 years. Food plants, including sugarcane, oranges, melons, eggplants, and spinach, were diffused widely along the exchange routes. Lesson three of California EEI curriculum unit “Arabic Trade Networks,” 7.2.5, helps students analyze the circulation of regional products throughout Afroeurasia.

Less positive things also spread along trade routes, such as the bubonic plague. The Black Death of the 1300s killed millions in China and caused the population of Europe and the Muslim world to plummet temporarily by about one-third. In the Cairo lesson, students read primary sources from Ibn Battuta, Agnolo di Tura, and al-Maqrizi describing the impact of the Black Death of 1348–1350 in Europe and the Muslim world.

Using the lesson sources, graphic organizers and evidence-analysis charts, students write an argumentative paragraph on the following question: **Which of the effects of the exchanges at Cairo do you think was the most important?** They make a claim, state their reasons, and support the reasons with evidence from the primary sources. The “Effects Paragraph” assignment has sentence starters for the claim and reasons and an evidence-analysis chart that helps student paraphrase, analyze, and cite evidence. For English learners, there are also sentence frames with appropriate academic and disciplinary language to paraphrase, analyze, and cite the two pieces of evidence. After providing feedback to students on their claims, reasons, and use and analysis of evidence, the teacher concludes by telling students that they will return to the Islamic trade and pilgrimage

network in future units. Muslim merchants eventually traded from China to the Mediterranean, and Jewish merchants also traded freely in the Muslim world. They established communities across Afroeurasia that were connected by family ties and trade connections.

South Asia, 300–1200

- Under the Gupta Empire, how did the environment, cultural and religious changes, and technological innovations affect the people of India?
- How did Indian monks, nuns, merchants, travelers, and empires from what is now modern India and other parts of South Asia spread religious ideas and practices and cultural styles of art and architecture to Central and Southeast Asia?
- How did the religions of Hinduism and Buddhism spread and change over time?

The Gupta monarchs reunified much of the subcontinent in the third century CE, ushering in what some scholars have termed the “Classical Age” of India. As they study the question **Under the Gupta Empire, how did the environment, cultural and religious changes, and technological innovations affect the people of India?**, students learn that the Gupta Dynasty (280–550 CE) presided over a rich period of religious, socioeconomic, educational, literary, and scientific development, including the base-ten numerical system and the concept of zero. The level of interaction in all aspects of life—commercial, cultural, religious—among peoples across various regions of the Indian subcontinent was intensive and widespread during this time period, much more so than in earlier periods. This helped produce a common Indic culture that unified the people of the subcontinent. Buddhist monasteries and Hindu temples and schools spread. Sanskrit became the principal literary language in many regions of the Indian subcontinent.

Enduring contributions from the cultures of what is now modern India and other parts of South Asia to other areas of Afroeurasia include the cotton textile industry, the technology of crystalizing sugar, astronomical treatises, the practice of monasticism, the game of chess, and the art, architecture, and performing arts of the Classical Age. Students analyze maps indicating the extent of the Gupta

Empire and visuals of its achievements in science, math, art (including music such as *Tabla* and dance such as *katthak*, *bharatnatyam*), architecture, and Sanskrit literature.

After the fall of the Gupta Empire, the Indian subcontinent was divided into regional states and kingdoms. The Chola Empire ruled over much of southern India and established maritime commercial trading networks throughout much of the Indian Ocean. The Chola are associated with significant artistic achievement that included the building of monumental Hindu temples and the creation of remarkable sculptures and bronzes.

Building on their previous study of Hinduism in grade six, students study the question **How did Hinduism change over time?** Hinduism continued to evolve with the Bhakti movement, which emphasized personal expression of devotion to God, who had three aspects: Brahma, the creator; Vishnu, the protector; and Siva, the transformer. The Bhakti movement emphasized on social and religious equality and a personal expression of devotion to God in the popular, vernacular languages. The Bhakti movement also critiqued the power held by priestly elites. People of all social groups now had personal access to their own personal deities, whom they could worship with songs, dances, processions, and temple visits. Bhakti grew more popular, thanks to saints such as Meera Bai and Ramananda. Even though India was not unified into one empire or religion, the entire area was developing a cultural unity.

Students next examine this question: **How did Indian monks, nuns, merchants, travelers, and empires from what is now modern India and other parts of South Asia spread religious ideas and practices and cultural styles of art and architecture to Central and Southeast Asia?** During and after the Gupta Empire, trade connections among India and the rest of South Asia and Southeast Asia facilitated the spread of Hindu and Buddhist ideas to Srivijaya, a large trading empire after 600; Java; and the Khmer Empire.

In the Sites of Encounter in the Medieval World lesson six (Calicut, the “Indian and Southeast Asian Art”) activity, students compare art and architecture from India and Southeast Asia. When students have compiled their evidence, the teacher asks them why they think Southeast Asian rulers would adopt religious ideas and artistic styles from Indian kingdoms. After they share their interpretations, the

teacher points out that premodern rulers displayed their power through temples and that the architectural similarities among the temples are evidence of a shared culture of rulership in the region.

Students are invited to make connections among types of influences they can identify in modern-day culture. Students may also be invited to analyze change through compare and contrast—what is the same or different now regarding how cultures influence and are influenced by other cultures. In addition to personal religious motives, Southeast Asian kings could build up their prestige and legitimacy by adopting the cultural, religious, and artistic styles of the powerful and prestigious Indian kingdoms and empires.

Next, students examine the question **How did Buddhism spread and change over time?** Buddhist missionaries and travelers carried Buddhism from the Indian subcontinent to Central Asia and then to China, as well as to Southeast Asia, during this period. At the same time, Christian and Muslim missionaries were also spreading their religions. As it moved outside the Indian subcontinent and became a universal religion, Buddhism changed. In 600 BCE, Buddha was a sage, a wise man; but by 300 CE, his followers were worshipping the Buddha as a god. *Nirvana* changed from “nothingness” or “extinction” to a kind of heaven for believers in the afterlife.

Mahayana Buddhists also added the idea that there were *bodhisattvas*, divine souls who delayed entering nirvana to help others on earth. Either here, or in the China unit, students trace the journey of Xuanzang, who departed from China in 627 CE on a pilgrimage to Buddhist holy sites in present-day Afghanistan, Pakistan, India, and Nepal. He returned home with 527 boxes of Buddhist texts, which he devoted the rest of his life to translating. The building of monasteries along the Silk Road, at Dunhuang, Yungang, and Bamiyan, helped transmit texts, people, and religious ideas through Central to East Asia.

After 1000 CE, Turks from Central Asia, who were recent converts to Islam, began to conquer new territory and expand their boundaries across the Indus River valley to parts of the northern Indian plains. The most powerful of these states was the Delhi Sultanate. Islam became firmly established politically in the north as well as in some coastal towns and parts of the Deccan Plateau, although the majority of the population of South Asia remained Hindu.

There were continual close trade relations and intellectual connections between the cultures of the Indian subcontinent and the Islamic World. To point out a concrete example of cultural transmission, teachers may have students trace the Gupta advances in astronomy and mathematics (particularly the numeral system, which included a place value of ten) to the work of al-Khwarizmi, a Persian mathematician of the ninth century, who applied the base-ten numerical system pioneered in India to the study of *algebra*, a word derived from the Arabic *al-jabr*, meaning “restoration.” As trade grew along the sea routes of the Indian Ocean, India became a major producer of cotton cloth, spices, and other commodities with a volume of exports second only to China.

East Asia, 300–1300: China and Japan

- How did the Tang and Song Dynasties gain and maintain power over people and territories?
- How did the environmental conditions and technological innovations cause the medieval economic revolution? What were the effects of this revolution?
- Why was Quanzhou such an important site of encounter?
- How did Chinese culture, ideas and technologies, and Buddhism influence Korea and Japan?
- What influence did samurai customs and values have on the government and society of medieval Japan?

From 300 to 1300 CE, China had a larger population and economy than any other major region of the world. Students begin their study with the following question: **How did the Tang and Song Dynasties gain and maintain power over people and territories?** After a long period of disunity, the Sui (589–618) and Tang Dynasties (618–907) reunited China. The Tang rulers rebuilt a government modeled on the Han Dynasty. Scholar-officials, trained in Confucianism, advised the emperor and administered the empire. Confucian principles specified that government should operate as a strict hierarchy of authority from the emperor, who enjoyed the “Mandate of Heaven” as long as he ruled justly, down to the local village official.

The Tang had an active foreign policy and spread its influence along the Silk Road to the west, as far as the border of the Abbasid Caliphate. The two empires fought a battle in Central Asia in 751, from which the Chinese retreated. The Tang Dynasty extended influence and cultural pressure on Korea, Japan, and Vietnam.

The Song Dynasty took over in 960. The Song supervised strong cultural and economic growth, with magnificent cities and cultural productions. The *Visual Sourcebook of Chinese Civilization* Web site has visuals and interactive activities to help students analyze primary sources from the Song and other dynasties. The Song instituted an official examination system for scholar-officials, which gave China a civil service bureaucracy many centuries before any other state. China had the strongest and most centralized government in the world. However, the Song struggled militarily against nomadic tribes from the north. One group of nomads overran the Northern Song region and captured the emperor. Survivors of the Song imperial family maintained the Southern Song Empire from 1126 to 1260, when they fell to the Mongols. Under pressure from the loss of the north to “barbarians,” the Southern Song emphasized the superiority of Chinese traditions.

Despite these military problems, China became Afroeurasia’s major economic powerhouse in this period, due to the medieval economic revolution. Students analyze the following questions: **How did the environmental conditions and technological innovations cause the medieval economic revolution? What were the effects of this revolution?** Cause-and-effect graphic organizers help students analyze the many factors that contributed to the Chinese economic revolution that occurred between the seventh and thirteenth centuries. The factors of population growth, expansion of agriculture, urbanization, spread of manufacturing, and technological innovation were both causes and effects of the economic revolution, as each factor intensified the effects of the others.

The economic revolution began with the introduction (from Vietnam) of *champa* rice, a variety that produces two crops per year. Farmers migrated to the Yangzi River valley to take advantage of the increased yield, and the population grew rapidly.

Chinese laborers and merchants extended the empire’s system of canals connecting navigable rivers to about 30,000 miles. The system was financed by state taxes on trade and led to even more trade.

Blast furnaces quadrupled the output of iron and steel in the eleventh century. Availability of steel enabled increased production in other industries. Technicians experimented with gunpowder rockets and bombs. Woodblock printing became a standard industry, and printed books circulated widely.

The hundreds of inventions of the Tang and Song eras included the magnetic compass, advanced kilns for firing porcelain, and wheels for spinning silk. In the California EEI curriculum unit “Genius Across the Centuries,” 7.3.5, students research five important Chinese inventions of this period (tea, the manufacture of paper, woodblock printing, the compass, and gunpowder), examine a map of China’s natural regions, identify the sources of raw materials used in each invention, and evaluate the influence of these Chinese inventions on the natural systems of medieval China.

The teacher invites students to explore the similarity of the agricultural revolution in medieval Christendom at about the same time (ca. 1000). In both cases, improvements in farming technology led the way, and growth in trade, inventions, cities, and population resulted. Both cultures benefited from increased Afroeurasian trade as well.

Students then investigate this question: **Why did Quanzhou become such an important site of encounter?** Located on China’s southeast coast, Quanzhou was a primary destination for Arab, Persian, Indian, and Southeast Asian ships carrying merchants eager to buy China’s famed porcelain and silk. Because of its extensive internal economy and technological advances, China exported more than it imported. Although the land route to China was sometimes difficult to travel, shipping to and from the southeast coast meant that China was never isolated from the outside world. China was also the largest and most centralized state in the medieval world, and government regulations of merchants and foreigners were more thorough. As one of the official trade cities of the Chinese empire, Quanzhou had large foreign communities. In this lesson, students compare the accounts of Ibn Battuta, Marco Polo, and Zhao Rugua about Quanzhou for their multiple points of view on trade and cultural exchange. They write an essay answering the guiding question and citing evidence from the primary sources. Students analyze a concrete example of cross-cultural production in the porcelain vases and flasks made in China for export to the Muslim world and Spain.

Grade Seven Classroom Example: Quanzhou, Site of Encounter (Integrated ELA/Literacy and World History)

In Ms. Hutton’s seventh-grade world history class, students are learning about medieval world history. They do this by touring sites of encounter, or places of exchange, in the medieval world. Quanzhou, located on China’s southeast coast, and one of the largest and busiest ports in the world, is a centerpiece in Ms. Hutton’s classroom. Students in her class have learned how Quanzhou was a prime destination for Arab, Persian, Indian, and Southeast Asian ships carrying merchants eager to buy China’s famed porcelain and silk. As one of the official trade cities of the Chinese empire (which was the largest and most centralized state in the medieval world), Quanzhou had large foreign communities.

As an important part of learning about Quanzhou as a site of encounter, students in Ms. Hutton’s class participate in a guided discussion about the city’s laws, customs, and multicultural coexistence. Students practice Common Core and ELD discussion skills based on excerpts from primary-source documents to answer this discussion question: How did laws and customs help people from different cultures live together in Quanzhou?

First, Ms. Hutton divides the class into groups of three or four. Each student in the group is asked to read one or two primary sources, write a short summary of the document, and highlight evidence that helps answer the discussion question on a graphic organizer. To support students’ interrogation of their sources, she asks them questions like, “Who benefited from this law or custom? Did the law or custom make people feel safe and welcome? Did it keep people from cheating or causing trouble?”

Ms. Hutton then directs her students to explain what they have written with their group. To support student discussion, she provides various discussion starters designed to start the conversation, such as, “My document is about . . .” “This law/custom kept people from cheating by . . .” “This law/custom helped people from different cultures live together because . . .” and “The evidence that supports my idea is . . .” She also provides starters that can be used to respond to conversation, such as, “Tell me more about . . .” “What evidence do you have?” “How did you come to that conclusion?”

Example *(continued)*

After all group members have shared, Ms. Hutton’s students collectively try to formulate an interpretation (or main idea) that answers the discussion question based on all the evidence. She offers additional sentence starters to support this part of the discussion, such as “Document xx does not seem to fit with the other documents, because . . .” “Document xx seems to support the ideas in document xxx . . .” “I agree/disagree with what Carmen said, because . . .” “Does the evidence about your law /custom support the interpretation that . . .” and “Where is the evidence to support this interpretation?”

After each group has formulated an interpretation, Ms. Hutton debriefs the students as a whole class using these questions to lead the discussion: “What is your interpretation, what evidence supports this interpretation, and what evidence contradicts this interpretation?” She circulates through the room during the conversations to evaluate and redirect, if necessary, her students’ ability to make an oral argument in response to the discussion question. As she listens to their conversation, Ms. Hutton considers her students’ ability to marshal relevant evidence in support of their argument, their use of academic language, and their overall understanding of the specific content in this lesson.

This example is summarized from a full unit, *Sites of Encounter in the Medieval World: Quanzhou*, available for free download, developed by the California History–Social Science Project (<http://chssp.ucdavis.edu>) as part of the History Blueprint initiative. Copyright © 2014, Regents of the University of California, Davis campus.

CA HSS Content Standards: 7.2.5, 7.3.4, 7.4.3, 7.8.3

CA HSS Analysis Skills (6–8): Research, Evidence, and Point of View 5

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.6–8.1, 2, 9, WHST.6–8.7, 8, 9, SL.7.1, 2, 3, 4, 6

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.7.3, 6b, 9

Buddhism spread widely and gained many followers in China during the Tang period and began to alter religious life in neighboring Korea and Japan as well. Students return to the question **How did Buddhism spread and change over time?** In China, Buddhist ideas intermingled with those of Daoism, a Chinese religion emphasizing private spirituality, and Confucianism, the belief system that stressed moral and ethical behavior. At its height in the ninth century, Buddhism had 50,000 monasteries in China. As Confucian scholar-officials and Daoist priests

felt threatened by this “foreign religion,” the Tang emperors reversed their earlier acceptance of Buddhism and began to persecute it. One result of this persecution is that Buddhism did not become the official religion of China. Instead, Confucian, Daoist, and Buddhist beliefs and practices fused together in China to form a syncretic popular religion, emphasizing moral living, daily ritual, and dedication to family and community.

Students turn their attention to the following question: **How did Chinese culture, ideas and technologies, and Buddhism influence Korea and Japan?** Under the Tang Dynasty, China expanded its trade and cultural influence to Korea, Japan, and Southeast Asia. At sites of encounter, these societies adopted and adapted Chinese ideas and institutions and combined those with their own ideas and institutions to build distinct civilizations. This is the adoption-and-adaptation form of cultural encounter.

In the fourth century, three kingdoms emerged to rule the Korean population; in 676, one of those kingdoms, Silla, unified the whole peninsula. Silla was closely connected to the Tang Dynasty of China. Korean elites used Chinese as a written language but later devised a phonetic script for the Korean language called *Hangul*. In 936, the Koryo kingdom took over rule in Korea and adopted a civil service exam system similar to that of China. Korean merchants were engaged in trade with Japan and China, and through those networks, to Indian Ocean and Afroeurasian trade networks as well. The Korea Society PowerPoint presentation “Silla Korea and the Silk Road” has images and archaeological evidence that provide opportunities for students to analyze cultural interaction and trade across Eurasia.

In a similar manner, Japan was influenced by China and Korea but adapted outside institutions and ideas to fit its own indigenous culture. Before the sixth century, Japan was an agricultural society ruled by land-holding clan chieftains. Their religion, Shinto, emphasized the influence of the supernatural world and spirits of the ancestors. One clan rose above the others and founded a central state and a dynasty called the Yamato. Those rulers claimed the title of “heavenly sovereign,” or emperor. About 850 CE, the Yamato rulers lost their grip on political affairs, and aristocratic palace families assumed real power. The emperors retained their throne but played mainly a ritual role. The pattern of aristocratic clans warring and succeeding one another as rulers under the sovereignty of a ceremonial but powerless emperor continued into modern times.

Between the third and sixth centuries, when China was politically fragmented, many Chinese and Koreans migrated to Japan seeking refuge or opportunity. Those newcomers introduced many innovations, including advanced metallurgy, writing, silk production, textile manufacture, papermaking, and Buddhism. Japanese tradition links the introduction of Buddhism and beginning of Chinese cultural influence with Prince Shokotu (574–622).

China's immense power under the Tang Dynasty stimulated Japanese interest in Chinese and Korean cultures. Literary scholars, officials, and Buddhist monks traveled to Japan. In turn, Japanese intellectuals went west to seek knowledge, learn Confucian statecraft, and acquire Buddhist texts, some made in Korea with some of the earliest known woodblock printing technology. The Japanese gradually adapted Buddhism to fit older Shinto practices. For example, Shinto nature gods became associated with Buddhist spirits and saints. The Zen school of Buddhism spread widely among laboring men and women.

From about 1000 CE, the Japanese aristocratic class creatively combined Chinese and Korean ideas with Japanese ways to form a new civilization with distinctive institutions, literature, and arts. Japanese officials adopted rules of government derived from imperial China but tailored them to their own smaller population and territory. Scholars developed a writing system that used simplified Chinese characters to represent Japanese sounds. Moreover, several aristocratic women wrote literary works in Japanese. Students may read selections from the *Tale of Genji*, a novel about a courtier's life written by Lady Murasaki Shikibu sometime between 990 and 1012.



Even though China had a great influence on Japan, Japanese government and society developed in its own direction. Students investigate the question **What influence did samurai customs and values have on the government and society of medieval Japan?** Japan had an emperor, but the emperor and his court had no real power. Clans continued to control regional areas of Japan. Important clans fought each other for

more land, power, and control over the weak central government. In the 1180s, the Miramoto clan dominated Japan. They instituted a military government headed by a “great general,” or *shogun*.

The highest social status in the clan and in society belonged to the *samurai*, professional fighters. Most samurai were vassals of clan leaders, or *daimyo*, in a system that was similar to feudal lordship in Christendom at the same time. Samurai were dedicated to a code of courage, honor, and martial skill. To analyze samurai culture, students read *The Tale of the Heike* and view woodblock prints. The Asia for Educators Web site has a short excerpt of this story of samurai warfare, and there are many woodblock prints on the Web, although most date from later periods.

During those centuries, Japan’s agriculture, population, and urbanization continued to expand. Exchanges with China and Korea grew, as merchants traded luxury goods in return for Japanese silver, copper, timber, and steel swords. By 1300, East Asia was an interconnected region dominated economically and culturally by China.

The Americas, 300–1490

- How did the environment affect the expansion of agriculture, population, cities, and empires in Mesoamerica and the Andean region?
- Why did the Maya civilization, the Aztec Empire, and the Inca Empire gain power over people and territories?
- How did Mesoamerican religion develop and change over time?
- Under the Aztecs, why was Tenochtitlán a site of encounter?

To begin their study of civilizations in the Americas, students investigate the following question: **How did the environment affect the expansion of agriculture, population, cities, and empires in Mesoamerica and the Andean region?** One important environmental factor was the separation of the Americas and Afroeurasia after 15,000 BCE. As a result, different ecosystems developed in the Americas than in Afroeurasia. The Americas had no beasts of burden; corn was the major staple rather than rice or wheat.

A second environmental factor is the sheer size and variety of habitats in the Americas. The north–south axis of the Americas extends nearly 11,000 miles, from the frigid Arctic rim to the equatorial rain forests of the Amazon River basin to Tierra Del Fuego at the southern tip of South America. A mountain spine runs nearly the entire length and divides the Americas longitudinally, separating narrow coastal plains on the Pacific Ocean from broad plains on the eastern side that stretch toward the Atlantic Ocean. Several great river systems, especially the Mississippi and the Amazon, have been channels of human communication since ancient times. Thousands of different cultures, speaking many different languages and following different customs, lived on the two continents. Their ways of life varied from gathering and hunting to agrarian–urban states. Lesson two or four of the California EEI curriculum unit “Sun Gods and Jaguar Kings,” 7.7.1, guides students through the landforms and climate zones that formed the environment for the two urbanized regions of the Americas.

Agriculture developed independently in Mesoamerica and the Andean highlands after 3000 BCE. Farming and village settlement spread through those regions and by the second millennium BCE, the Olmec civilization appeared in Mesoamerica and the Chávin civilization in the central Andes. Unlike the land between the Euphrates and Tigris Rivers, the Nile River valley, the Huang He (Yellow) River valley, or the Indus River valley, these civilizations did not develop along great rivers.

The catalyst for developing the Olmec civilization may have been surplus farming produce, population growth, or increasing trade. Connected by exchange of crops and products from the ocean, the lowlands, the highlands, and the rain forest, the Chávin civilization extended across the high Andes range to the lowlands on either side. After the Olmec and Chavín civilizations fell, other civilizations took their place or grew up nearby. The Maya, Aztec, and Inca Empires built on the culture and accomplishments of 2,000 years of previous civilizations.

Between about 200 to 900 CE, the Maya region of southern Mexico, Guatemala, and Belize had more than 50 independent city-states. The students focus on this question: **Why did the Maya civilization gain power over people and territories?** The teacher points out that although the Maya built on a basis of civilizations before them, the Maya city-states as well as the city-states of other contemporary cultures in Mesoamerica built larger and grander buildings; developed advanced

writing, mathematics, and astronomy; and had a more hierarchical and wealthy society. Two factors that enabled the Maya to rise to power were rich agriculture and widespread trade. Among the largest cities were Tikal in Guatemala and Calakmul in Mexico.

Maya societies produced monumental architecture, astronomy observatories, a phonetic writing system that yielded libraries of thousands of books, and a sophisticated calendar system based on a 52-year cycle. These innovations would have given the Maya society strong cultural power, because many neighboring people would have been impressed. Students may compare mathematical systems that developed in Afroeurasia with Maya mathematics, which utilized positional notation, the concept of zero, and a base-20 numerical system.

The monarchs and aristocratic families who ruled these city-states kept order and defended their lands in wars with other city-states. They also performed elaborate religious rituals to conciliate the gods who, Mayans believed, commanded the rain and sun. These rituals included bloodletting by members of the elite and royal families. The elites drew blood from their own bodies to offer to the gods. The Maya also sacrificed enemies captured in battle (instead of killing them on the battlefield). Farmers, artisans, and hunters paid taxes and supplied labor for construction of public temples, palaces, and ceremonial ball courts.

After about 750 CE, the Maya area experienced a period of intensified warfare among city-states, monumental construction diminished, and many Maya cities were abandoned while new ones emerged as new centers of power. Deforestation, erosion, and drought may have contributed to the period of turmoil.

The Aztec Empire emerged in the fifteenth century. Initially, students focus on the following question: **Why did the Aztec Empire gain power over people and territories?** The Aztecs, a people who originally migrated from northern Mexico, owed a strong cultural debt to the Maya, Teotihuacán, and the Toltec cities in Mesoamerica. The Aztecs won their power by warfare. They unified much of central Mexico by defeating all other powerful cities and states. They created a state based on ingenious methods of farming, collection of tribute from conquered peoples, and an extensive network of markets and trade routes.

Next, students investigate the question **How did Mesoamerican religion change over time?** The Aztec practiced ritual sacrifice of war captives, but to a

greater extent than the Maya had. The Aztecs believed that the god of the sun would stop shining and the universe would collapse without a constant supply of human hearts and blood. Comparing Maya and Aztec practices shows students how the Mesoamerican religion changed over time. Students may analyze visuals from Aztec tribute records, the *Florentine Codex*, and other codices made in the early Spanish period. Lesson five of the California EEI curriculum unit “Sun Gods and Jaguar Kings,” 7.7.1, has an activity based on the Aztec tribute records as sources. Ultimately, the resentment of conquered people made the Aztec Empire unstable.

Students also study the question **Under the Aztecs, why was Tenochtitlán a site of encounter?** This is the first part of their study, as they will return to Mexico City as a site of encounter in the Global Convergence unit. Tenochtitlán was built on an island in Lake Texcoco, with three causeways linking it to the mainland. The city was built in circles, with temples and government buildings in an inner square, houses in the outer circles, and floating garden beds on the lake around the city. It was one of the largest cities in the world at that time. Its markets contained vast amounts of a variety of goods from all over Mesoamerica.

Students compare the Aztec Empire with the Inca state that arose in Andean South America by answering the question **Why did the Inca Empire gain power over people and territories?** Like the Aztecs, the Incas built on a series of earlier civilizations, but combined cities and states together into a larger empire than any before in that region. The Inca rulers built a highly centralized political system that included methods of food distribution in times of poor harvests. They also created a network of about 25,000 miles of government-controlled roads that ran along the Andes spine and served military, administrative, and commercial purposes. The Incas did rely on military power, but they also offered important social benefits to the population. In contrast to the Maya, the Incas did not have a writing system, but they used Andean *quipus* (sometimes spelled *khipus*), or sets of colored and knotted strings, to keep complex records. To conclude this unit, teachers may have students meet in groups and prepare graphic organizers comparing power, religion, social customs, agriculture, intellectual developments, and trade in each culture.

West Africa, 900–1400

- How did the environment affect the development and expansion of the Ghana and Mali Empires and the trade networks that connected them to the rest of Afroeurasia?
- Why was Mali a site of encounter? What were the effects of the exchanges at Mali?
- How did Arab/North African and West African perspectives differ on West African kingdoms?

As of 500 CE, groups of farming and animal-herding peoples lived in West Africa, a region with four large zones of climate and vegetation running west to east. Students begin with the question **How did the environment affect the development and expansion of the Ghana and Mali Empires and the trade networks that connected them to the rest of Afroeurasia?** The most northerly belt is the intensely arid Sahara, home to oasis-dwellers and pastoral nomads. Just south of the desert is the semiarid Sahel zone, where cattle and camel herding predominated. Third is the tropical grassland, or *savanna*, which had sufficient rainfall to support farmers and their fields of rice, sorghum, and millet. In the far south is the wet tropical forest. There, settled life depended on cultivation of root crops and other forest foods. In the Sahel and savanna, agriculture and herding supported the growth of regional trade. Tracing a great arc across West Africa, the Niger River provided a natural highway of communication linking different ecological zones. Farming, trade, and early development of iron smelting stimulated town building. The city of Jenne-jeno, built in the early centuries CE, was home to artisans who produced iron tools, copperware, gold jewelry, and fine painted ceramics.

In addition to local markets, West Africa contained rich deposits of gold. Both Muslim and Christian rulers and traders in the Mediterranean region craved African gold, notably for coinage. West African merchants acquired gold from mines in the Sudan and shipped it to towns in the Sahel, where Arab and Berber merchants carried the gold north on trans-Saharan camel caravan routes. Some of this African bullion then flowed into Europe or eastward toward India.

Students use the Sites of Encounter in the Medieval World interactive map to

investigate these environmental factors. Then they read Ibn Battuta’s account of the perilous crossing of the Sahara in an excerpt from the Mali lesson of the Sites of Encounter in the Medieval World unit. They read the text individually first, then meet in groups to discuss and report on one paragraph of the reading, and finally read the text again and answer text-dependent questions.

The centralized state of Ghana emerged around the eighth century in the western part of the Sahel zone. The king of Ghana commanded a large royal household, a hierarchy of officials, and an army of infantry archers. The Ghana Empire had Muslim officials, though the kings probably did not convert.

Ghana slowly crumbled in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, but around 1240, Mali emerged to rule over a large part of the western Sudan. Mali’s rulers accumulated wealth by collecting tribute from African farmers and taxing trans-Saharan trade. The royal court employed staffs of both foreign and native-born Muslims as administrators, and Arabic became the written language of government and diplomacy. Most of the kings and their officials professed Islam and introduced Islamic law, though most of West Africa’s population adhered to their local religions for several more centuries. Timbuktu, a city near the Niger River, rose in the 1300s as a regional center of trade and Islamic learning.

The gold trade across the Sahara involved Ghana and Mali in Afroeurasian trade networks. Students focus on Mali with the questions **Why was Mali a site of encounter? What were the effects of the exchanges at Mali?** Northbound caravans also shipped ivory, ostrich feathers, and slaves captured in raids and wars. Merchants marched these captives, including many women, to the Mediterranean region or Middle East principally to serve in Muslim households. The southbound trade included salt from Saharan mines, a commodity with huge demand in West Africa. Other southbound commodities included copper, horses, and Arabic books. Arabic- and Berber-speaking merchants from North Africa likely introduced Islam to West Africa in the eighth century. They established bonds with Sudanic traders, many of whom converted to the new faith.

Even for those Africans who did not convert to Islam, Muslim culture had a significant impact on West African architecture, education, and languages. The “Sightseeing in Mali” gallery walk activity (from the Sites of Encounter in the Medieval World curriculum) guides students through an analysis of artifacts from

Mali, such as mosques, statues of mounted warriors, an astronomy book, and the university at Timbuktu. The artifacts show that the West Africans adopted Muslim culture but also adapted it to fit their own culture.

In order to probe more deeply into the history of West African kingdoms, students analyze this question: **How did Arab/North African and West African perspectives differ on West African kingdoms?** The “West African and Arab/North African Perspectives” activity contains excerpts from Arab/North African sources by al-Bakri, al-Umari, Ibn Khaldun, and Ibn Battuta, and one West African source—*The Epic of Sundiata*. All of the written sources about the West African kingdoms were written by Arab/North African writers, who thought that West African culture was more primitive than Arab culture. If the historian relies on their evidence alone, he or she would think that Islam and the gold trade were almost the creators of West African states.

Students access a West African perspective in the *Epic of Sundiata (Sunjata)*, a heroic king associated with the rise of Mali. The epic was passed down by *griots* (storytellers) in an oral tradition until the mid-twentieth century, when one version of it was recorded in writing. In the close-reading activity, students learn how to identify perspective as they compare passages. At the conclusion of this lesson, students work with the Sites of Encounter in the Medieval World map to analyze the position of Mali in the Islamic world. They compare that position at the end of a single trade route and within a single trade circle with Cairo’s position at the center of many trade routes and three trade circles. A brief discussion on the differences between the cultural center and the periphery will introduce students to this geographic concept.

Sites of Encounter in the Medieval World, 1150–1490

- How did the Mongol Empire destroy states and increase the interconnection of Afroeurasia?
- What were the effects of the exchanges at Majorca and Calicut?
- How did increasing interconnection and trade, competition between states (and their people), and technological innovations lead to voyages of exploration?

Around the year 1000 in Afroeurasia, technological innovations in agriculture caused massive increases in productivity, population growth, settlement of new lands, and a great expansion of manufacturing, trade, and urbanization. The agricultural revolution between the Tang and Song Dynasties made China the center of industry, as it produced new inventions and luxury products desired throughout Afroeurasia. Innovations spurred a huge expansion of agriculture in Europe, cultivation of new lands, expansion of trade, and a rebirth of manufacturing, trade, urban culture, and education. Networks of commercial, technological and cultural exchange covered most of Afroeurasia. In the center, the Muslim world (now divided into many states) and India prospered as producers of goods such as cotton cloth, spices, and swords, and also as middlemen along the east–west trade routes. Although people rarely traveled from Spain to China, products, technologies, and ideas did. From 1200 to 1490, those networks grew stronger, busier, and tighter.

The attacks and domination of the Mongol Empire had a huge negative effect on states, empires, and many people of Eurasia, but it also greatly extended trade, travel, and exchange between Afroeurasian societies. The teacher introduces the question **How did the Mongol Empire destroy states and increase the interconnection of Afroeurasia?** In the late twelfth century, nomadic warriors from the steppe and deserts north of China, the Mongol tribes (and other Central Asian nomadic tribes), were united by a charismatic leader, Chinggis (Genghis) Khan, who led them to conquests across Eurasia.

At its height, the Mongol Empire was the largest land empire in world history. Even though their numbers were small, Mongols were fierce and highly mobile fighters who terrified the people they conquered. Students examine maps of the Mongol Empire and conquests and compare these with the Sites of Encounter in the Medieval World interactive map, which has physical, religious, political, and other maps of Afroeurasia. After Chinggis Khan’s death, the Mongol Empire split up into four khanates. Chinggis’ grandson, Hulagu Khan, was ruler of the Il-Khanate. Since the Muslim states were divided, individually they were no match for the Mongol warriors. Hulagu conquered Persia, Syria, and part of Anatolia and destroyed the Abbasid Caliphate’s capital of Baghdad.

Although some feared that the Mongols would destroy the Muslim world, the Egyptian Mamluk Sultanate fought the Mongol army and stopped its advance.

Mongols in the Khanate of the Golden Horde overran Russia and attacked Poland and Eastern Europe. The Khanate of the Great Khan went to another grandson, Kubilai Khan, who took over China from the Song Dynasty. Kubilai established the Yuan Dynasty and kept many Chinese customs, but he replaced Confucian scholar-officials with foreign administrators. The Mongols conquered states in Southeast Asia and tried twice to invade Japan in the late thirteenth century, but they failed both times. The domination of the Mongols did not last long; by 100 years after the conquest, three of the four Mongol khanates had fallen from power.

Although the Mongols killed many people and destroyed many cities after a conquest, the Mongols tolerated all religions and protected and promoted trade across Eurasia. Under their protection, the land trade route from China to the Mediterranean re-opened and trade boomed. The Mongols also moved people around throughout their empire, using, for example, Persian and Arab administrators in China, and facilitating the journey of Marco Polo (and many other less-famous people) from Venice to China. The increase in interaction also spread Chinese technologies and ideas into the Muslim and Christian worlds. To understand both the negative and positive effects of the Mongol conquest and empire, student groups do a gallery walk with visuals of a Mongol passport, hunting scroll, gold textile, and a Persian tile with Chinese motifs, and an excerpt from Marco Polo describing the Mongol postal service. Students cite evidence from each primary source on a source analysis template to answer the question **How did the Mongol Empire increase the interconnection of Afroeurasia?**

After the Mongol khanates fell, new states and empires arose. As the Il-Khanate declined, Turkish kingdoms replaced the Mongols. These Turkish warriors originally came from Central Asia and spread into the Muslim world after their conversion to Islam. Combining dedication to religious ideas with the mounted warrior tradition of Central Asia, they took over the settled Muslim lands. In the west, Turkish armies took over most of Anatolia from the Byzantine Empire (a conquest that set off the Crusades). One of the Turkish leaders, Osman, created the Ottoman Empire in 1326. He and his successors conquered all of Anatolia, Greece, and most of the Balkan Peninsula in eastern Europe, before conquering Constantinople in 1453 and bringing the Byzantine Empire to an end. Other Turkish dynasties took over Persia under Safavid rule and parts of the Indian subcontinent under Mughal rule. In China, the native Ming Dynasty

removed the Mongols and returned the administration of China's government to Confucian scholar-officials.

In the remainder of this unit, students will engage with this question: **How did increasing interconnection and trade, competition between states (and their people), and technological innovations lead to voyages of exploration?** Most states and empires supported trade as the rulers and elite groups wanted access to products such as silk from China, Persia, Syria, and Egypt; spices from South and Southeast Asia; cotton cloth from India and Egypt; and gold from West Africa. Kings and their officials also realized that trade made their states strong and increased their tax income. Some used their military power to take over trade centers that belonged to other states or to dominate trade routes.

As trade connections, imperial expansion, and travel increased in Afroeurasia, both conflict and cooperation occurred at sites of encounter. Competition between states for land and resources and between the followers of different religions made many encounters violent. At the same time, people from different cultures found ways to cooperate so that they could trade and coexist.

Of the major regions of Afroeurasia, medieval Christendom had one of the least-developed but also one of the fastest-growing economies. There were few European products that people in Asia and Africa wanted to buy, but there was a large and growing market in Europe for Asian spices, cloth, porcelain, and other goods. Europe had to export silver and gold to pay for these goods. Most of the silver ended up in China. Between about 1000 and 1300 CE, the ships and traders from Venice and Genoa rose to dominate long-distance commerce to Europe from Cairo and other Muslim trade cities in Southwestern Asia and North Africa.

During the same time period, certain states of Western Christendom, notably England, France, Castile, and Aragon, grew stronger and more centralized. The kings of Castile, Aragon, and other Christian kingdoms of Iberia fought against Muslim kingdoms of al-Andalus for both religious and political reasons. As a case study of Christian, Muslim, and Jewish interaction in medieval Iberia, students analyze the site of encounter—Majorca—with the following question: **What were the effects of the exchanges at Majorca?** King James I of Aragon conquered this island off the eastern coast of the Iberian Peninsula from its Muslim Almohad rulers in 1229. Students read excerpts from King James's *Autobiography* in a

guided activity that teaches them how to cite evidence. They learn that he was motivated in part by Majorca's position as a trading and shipping center for the western Mediterranean and the Maghribi ports, which controlled the gold trade from Mali. Catalan merchants urged King James to take over Majorca because they wanted to gain access to those markets.

On the Majorcan base and elsewhere in Iberia, Catalans, Genoese, Iberian Jews, Iberian Muslims (Moors), and Portuguese developed maps, such as the Catalan Atlas, ships, and navigational technology that gave Mediterranean shippers access to the Atlantic Ocean. The Catalan Atlas reproductions that are online allow students to closely examine this early map of Afroeurasia to identify its improved features, such as accurate coastlines and a compass rose. In a gallery walk, they analyze objects such as the lateen sail and the astrolabe (adopted from the Islamic world), the compass (invented in China), and visuals of medieval ships to identify the technological improvements. These examples demonstrate the synthesis of creative energies that a site of encounter often produces.

Using this technology, Catalans and Portuguese began exploring the African coast (looking for a different route to the goldfields of West Africa). However, the Iberian Christian kingdoms' increasing intolerance of Jews and Muslims ended that multicultural society by 1500. Jews, a large portion of the Spanish population, were forced to convert to Catholicism or flee Spain in 1492; Muslim converts were expelled in 1609.

In the "Investigative Reporting on Intolerance," student groups read excerpts from al-Idrisi, Benjamin of Tudela, Ramon Llull, or King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella. Then the student group designs and acts out an investigative report (as for TV news or a cell phone I-Report). Each student in the group plays a role in the report, which may be videotaped, recorded on a cell phone, or acted out live. All reports are shown to the class, and students record specific information and evidence on a chart. The teacher concludes by pointing out that England, France, and other states also persecuted and expelled Jews in this period. Fleeing persecution, many European Jews migrated to Poland, where the government gave them security and rights, to Russia, and elsewhere in Eastern Europe.

Next, the students switch to a site of encounter in India, Calicut, a major trade center of the Indian Ocean trading network. As they explore the question **What**

were the effects of the exchanges at Calicut?, students learn about both the fifteenth-century Indian Ocean trade and the advent of the Portuguese in 1498. In the “What’s So Hot about Spices?” activity, students examine written and visual primary sources about popular spices, where they were grown, and how they were used as flavorings, medicines, and perfumes. Using the Sites of Encounter in the Medieval World map, students study the Indian Ocean monsoon patterns and tables of medieval sailing seasons to determine the effects on ships, merchants, and sailors.

Ships from many states visited Calicut, including Chinese junks and the huge fleets led by Admiral Zheng He. Between 1405 and 1433, the Ming emperor sent out enormous fleets of hundreds of ships on seven major voyages to trade and collect tribute in the Indian Ocean, advancing as far west as the Red Sea and East Africa. Although the Ming emperors did not send out any more naval fleets after 1433, trade continued.

In the “Analyzing Perspectives on Calicut and Trade” group activity, students read primary sources written by Arab travelers, Jewish merchants, Persian ambassadors, Chinese officers and explorers, and Portuguese explorers. Each group member chooses an equal share of the sources, which he or she reads aloud to the group and then guides a discussion, as everyone else fills out a source analysis chart.

Students use the evidence to write an essay on the question **What were the effects of the exchanges at Calicut?** The lesson has the writing prompt, instructions for evidence use, an effects organization chart, an evidence-analysis chart, an essay frame, and a grading rubric. The teacher selects from these resources the ones that will best support English learners and struggling writers.

To conclude, the teacher returns to the central question: **How did increasing interconnection and trade, competition between states (and their people), and technological innovations lead to voyages of exploration?** He or she asks students to identify examples of each of these causes from Majorca and Calicut. Comparison of the voyages of Zheng He with those of Columbus and/or Da Gama makes a good transition to the next unit.

Global Convergence, 1450–1750

- What impact did human expansion in the voyages of exploration have on the environment, trade networks, and global interconnection?
- What were the causes of colonialism? What were the effects of colonialism on the colonized people?
- What were the effects of exchanges at Tenochtitlán/Mexico City in the sixteenth through eighteenth centuries?
- Was slavery always racial?
- How did the gunpowder empires (Ming/Manchu China, Mughal India, Safavid Persia, Ottoman Empire, Russia, Spain, later France and England) extend their power over people and territories?

This unit begins with the question **What impact did human expansion in the voyages of exploration have on the environment, trade networks, and global interconnection?** In the last unit, students investigated the state of Afroeurasian trade and power before the voyages of exploration and the technological developments in ships and navigation that enabled the European voyages. They examined the Chinese voyages of exploration led by Zheng He and the initial Portuguese voyages around Africa to India and Calicut. Now they turn to the Spanish and Portuguese voyages across the Atlantic begun by Columbus. As a result of these voyages, new oceanic routes connected nearly every inhabited part of the world. The early modern period witnessed greater global connection and exchange, as European conquests and encounters in the Americas linked both hemispheres in significant ways.

People, plants, and animals were introduced to places where they had previously been unknown. This “Columbian Exchange” led to profound changes in economies, diets, social organization, and, in the Americas, to a massive devastation of Native American populations because of exposure to new disease microorganisms originating in Afroeurasia. The Columbian Exchange marks the important biological exchange of disease, flora, and fauna between both hemispheres.

Students investigate the transfers of American crops such as maize, potatoes, and manioc to Afroeurasia, as well as addictive substances such as tobacco and

chocolate. From Afroeurasia, the Americas acquired horses, cows, pigs, and sheep. Introduction of new staple crops helped increase the population in much of Afroeurasia, and the imported animals and plants transformed the landscapes of the Americas. The Columbian Exchange also occurred across the Pacific Ocean: American crops transplanted to China grew the Chinese economy, while the chili pepper sent to Southeast Asia affected food preparation, the economy, and culture.

The diffusion of Afroeurasian diseases to the Americas had catastrophic demographic consequences. The mortality of as much as 90 percent of the Native American population allowed European newcomers to conquer territories in the Americas. Migration by Europeans and forced migration of Africans to the Americas led to a radically different population mix and the emergence of new hybrid populations and cultures. Africans who were enslaved and forced to migrate outnumbered Europeans in the Americas until the nineteenth century. The loss of so many people caused severe economic and demographic disruption in tropical Africa. The effects of the Columbian Exchange were profound environmental change and huge human population shifts.

European voyages to the Americas and the Indian Ocean transformed world trade networks. The Spanish extracted precious metals, gold, and especially silver, while the Portuguese, Dutch, French, and English extracted raw materials, such as lumber and furs, from their American colonies and shipped them to Afroeurasia. Europeans set up plantations to grow cash crops that were exported to Afroeurasia. The result was a massive influx of wealth into Europe.

However, Asia remained the world's most productive center of agriculture and manufacturing until near the end of this era. Chinese products were so highly desired in the European market that a substantial portion of the silver taken from the New World ended up in China as payment for Chinese products exported to Europe. European states and merchants also took over the shipping of products around the world's oceans and seas, gradually replacing the merchant fleets of other regions. These European states frequently battled with each other to dominate shipping routes, trade cities, and lands with desirable resources.

The Portuguese battled Indian, Arab, and Southeast Asian shippers in the Indian Ocean, but the Portuguese themselves were soon attacked and replaced by the Dutch, who took over the spice islands of Southeast Asia. French and English

fleets and pirates battled Spanish fleets in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. Ocean trade expanded and became more militarized as the Europeans took over shipping. Students analyze maps to see how the more important voyages of exploration led to the development of global trading patterns and the location of European colonies by 1750.

Next, students investigate the following questions: **What were the causes of colonialism? What were the effects of colonialism on the colonized people?** It is important for students to recognize that the Europeans did not take over China, India, Africa, and most of Asia until the nineteenth century. For this entire period, therefore, the major Afroeurasian centers—China, India, and the Islamic World—were too strong for Europeans to conquer. In lands where states were not as strong, Europeans established colonies. European armies used gunpowder weapons to defeat local resistance. Europeans became the government rulers and officials and changed the laws. They also took desirable land away from the native owners and gave it to Europeans. Often the Europeans used the land to grow tropical commercial crops for sale in Afroeurasia. Sometimes the European government and army forced the native people to work for the Europeans as well.

Finally, European Christian missionaries spread through the colonies, trying to convert local people to Christianity. Some states, such as Spain and Portugal, supported these missionaries and helped to force local people to change their religion; other states, such as the Netherlands, did not pay much attention to missionary activities. The teacher uses a guided discussion format to address the question **Why did the Europeans use colonialism to interact with Native Americans and some Southeast Asians?** Students brainstorm possible motives of Europeans and weigh the relative importance of power, wealth, competition with other European states, and religion, using a discussion guide with sentence starters modeling academic language. As a group, students rank the possible motives and explain their reasons, and each student individually writes a one-sentence interpretation (argument or claim) answering the question. The teacher emphasizes that although many states had conquered sites of encounter in the past, colonialism was a new form of interaction between cultures that was unequal and exploitative.

In addition to conquering areas where there were divisions among many states, such as Sumatra, Java, Malaysia, and the Philippines, or where there were no states,

such as the Caribbean islands, Spanish conquerors took over both the Aztec and Inca empires in the early sixteenth century. Students assess explanations of historians for defeat of those empires at the hands of small numbers of Europeans.

Two key factors aided European military efforts. The first was the introduction of infectious diseases, such as smallpox and measles, which were endemic in Africa and Eurasia, but against which American Indian populations lacked even partial immunities. These diseases began to ravage societies in both North and South America shortly after the Spanish invasions got underway. The second factor was Spanish success at allying with local groups, notably the Tlaxcalans, who wished to free themselves from Aztec rule. In the California EEI curriculum unit “Broken Jade and Tarnished Gold,” 7.7.3, students learn that the Spanish needed the natural resources of the region, with a goal of sustaining their own economic and political systems in the “Old World.” They explore many human social factors, including greed, religious fervor, and disease, that left the Spanish in control of vast lands in Central and South America, eventually propelling the empire to expand into the lands to the north, including California.

Grade Seven Classroom Example: The Spanish Conquest of Mexico

To assess the impact of the Spanish conquest, Mr. Brown’s students return to the question **What were effects of exchanges at Tenochtitlán/Mexico City in the sixteenth through eighteenth centuries?** The students begin by analyzing images of the conquest and interactions between Spanish and Aztecs/Mexica, which can be found in the image exercises in the “Conquest of Mexico” materials at the American Historical Association’s *Teaching and Learning in a Digital Age* Web site.

After Mr. Brown explains how to analyze perspective or point of view, student pairs research the source of the images and identify evidence of exchanges, effects of exchanges, and perspective. As they share their evidence, Mr. Brown guides and refines their understanding of perspective or point of view. Next they engage in a close reading of excerpts from accounts of the conquest and its early impact from the Letters of Cortés, the *True History* of Díaz del Castillo, *Broken Spears*, the *Florentine Codex*, and the *Short Account of the Destruction of the Indies* by De Las Casas. (Excerpts in English and Spanish from all of these works are readily available on the Web, except for

Example *(continued)*

Broken Spears, a collection of Aztec writings about the conquest that was originally written in Nahuatl and recently edited and translated into English.)

Sometimes Mr. Brown has all students read every document; other times he divides the documents between student groups. (The most effective division would have students read one Spanish account and one Aztec account that addressed the same event or topic.)

Each student reads the document individually at first and then discusses the question **What is this reading about?** with a partner. In the second reading, students fill out a sentence deconstruction chart that breaks down the most crucial sentence or sentences of the text, complete a worksheet that helps them identify unfamiliar vocabulary in context, and then answer text-dependent questions. For the third reading, the students mark up and annotate the text, using cognitive markers (for exchanges, effects of exchanges, loaded words, evidence of perspective or point of view, questions).

After reading all the documents, students meet in groups, identify the exchanges and effects of exchanges, and cite evidence for each on an effects analysis graphic organizer. As Mr. Brown displays the graphic organizer of several groups on the document projector, he helps students group together common exchanges, state their points in academic language, and understand any unclear points. Students investigate examples of the hybrid nature of Colonial Latin America and assess the contributions of native peoples to the cultural, economic, and social practices of the region by 1750. (Two concrete examples of this are the building of the Mexico City cathedral on the location of the central pyramid, as well as other changes to the spatial geography of Mexico City, and the Virgin of Guadalupe. Seventeenth-century Dutch, English, and French conquest and colonization in the Caribbean and North America are introduced and can be compared with developments in Latin America.)

CA HSS Content Standards: 7.7.3, 7.11.2

CA HSS Analysis Skills (6–8): Chronological and Spatial Thinking 3, Research, Evidence, and Point of View 5

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.6–8.1, 2, SL.7.1, 4, L4a

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.7.1, 6a, 6b, 12a; ELD.P.II.7.12a

Next, students investigate the transport of African slaves to the Americas and the creation of racialized slavery with the following question: **Was slavery always racial?** The teacher refers to examples of slavery in the ancient and medieval world, such as Rome, where slaves belonged to all ethnic groups and were usually captives in war. In the medieval Mediterranean, Christians and Muslims enslaved captives who did not belong to their own religions. However, slavery was not necessarily for life, and the children of slaves were not always slaves themselves.

In the Americas and what the trade circuit scholars call the “Atlantic World,” European slave-traders imported kidnapped Africans to work on plantations and mines in response to shortages of labor in the Americas. Since relatively few Europeans wished to migrate to the Americas to perform grueling labor in tropical climates, European planters and mine operators turned to western Africa to acquire large numbers of enslaved men and women and thereby have the labor for large-scale capitalist enterprises in the Americas.

Teachers may also highlight the role played by African leaders, such as Queen Nzinga from Angola, in this increasingly global exchange. In the Americas, slavery became racialized, and Europeans began to cultivate the idea that Africans were lesser people who were supposed to be enslaved. Students analyze visuals of the Middle Passage and maps of the Atlantic World trade routes and the numbers of slaves who were transported to the Caribbean and Brazil, which vastly outnumbered those who were transported to the 13 colonies. Attention to these points will prepare students for studying colonial economies and slavery in grade eight. Africans took part in the world economy in ways that profited rulers and traders but caused misery for millions. The forced removal of millions of people also had severe economic and demographic consequences in tropical Africa.

The final question of this unit is **How did the gunpowder empires (Ming/Manchu China, Mughal India, Safavid Persia, Ottoman Empire, Russia, Spain, later France and England) extend their power over people and territories?** Wide-scale use of gunpowder technology—cannon and firearms—transformed warfare and armies. Since these weapons were so expensive, only states could afford them. Gunpowder technology revolutionized warfare and enabled the power of the central state or empire to expand greatly. With firearms, state armies could dominate internal rivals and decimate larger armies that had no firearms. As a result, some states built large gunpowder empires by using the power of the new

technology. These gunpowder empires, which included Spain, Russia, Ming China, the Mughal Empire in India, the Safavids in Persia, and the Ottoman Empire, were able to dominate weaker polities and expand their territories.

In England, France, Japan under the Tokugawa Shogunate, and many other smaller states, rulers used the power of their armies to deprive feudal lords of their local power and centralize authority in their own hands. As a result, states became more centralized and governments grew stronger. Gunpowder empires and states used their armies to attack other states as well. For example, in the sixteenth century, Ottoman armies attacked the Austrian Empire, Hungary, and Poland. French and English armies and navies fought wars against the Spanish and Austrian Habsburg empires.

The Impact of Ideas, 1500–1750

- How did the Reformation divide the Christian Church, millions of people, and European states?
- How did world religions change and spread during the early modern period?
- What were the effects of the Renaissance and the Scientific Revolution?
- Why were natural rights, the social contract, and other ideas of the Enlightenment revolutionary?

This unit investigates religious, cultural, and intellectual changes in the period from 1500 to 1750. Students see the impact of new information flowing into Europe from the “discoveries” in the Americas as a more critical factor in reshaping European thought than the cultural movement of the Renaissance. While the Reformation was a critically important development in Christianity, other world religions continued to change and spread in this period as well. To reflect this new historiography, this unit focuses on two strands—religion and cultural and intellectual developments—both in the world context. Rewriting of this unit also addresses the problem of teaching abstract concepts to seventh-graders in May and June. It streamlines the content to focus on the most important developments and recommends activities that will engage students as well as challenge them.

To introduce the Reformation, the teacher reminds students that there was only one Church in Western Europe, headed by the Pope in Rome, but that there were other Christian churches elsewhere, such as the Orthodox churches. In the 1500s, Roman Christianity split into multiple denominations. Students will focus on the question **How did the Reformation divide the Christian Church, millions of people, and European states?** By the early sixteenth century, criticism of the clerical and institutional practices of the Catholic Church (e.g., the selling of indulgences and corruption by the clergy) was extensive. Martin Luther not only criticized these practices, but also fundamental doctrines such as the validity of five of the seven sacraments and the need for clergy and for good works to achieve salvation. He created a new theology in which Christian religious practice was guided strictly by knowledge from the Bible alone and salvation was justified by “faith alone.” Students can analyze Martin Luther’s account of his tower experience, using the excerpt, sentence deconstruction chart, and analysis chart on the Blueprint for History blogpost “Martin Luther Primary Source and CCSS Activity.”

A generation later, John Calvin argued for *predestination*, whereby those elected by God were certain of salvation. The distinctions between Lutheranism and Calvinism were significant and led to many separate denominations within Protestantism. Students examine a diagram showing how modern Christian churches descended from these original splits in Protestantism. The Catholic Reformation, in response to Protestantism, transformed the Roman Church as well, especially in its practices. All churches stressed education, understanding of doctrine, and social discipline for laypeople.

The Reformation had dramatic effects on European people. All of the new denominations, Catholic and Protestant, were intolerant of each other and would not allow believers from another denomination to coexist with their believers. Mobs of ordinary people sometimes fought over religious differences. The rulers of states chose one denomination and required all the people living in the state to belong to that denomination. For example, if Calvinists found themselves living in a Lutheran state, they had to either hide their belief or move to another country. The threat of Protestantism added more fuel to the already growing religious persecution in Spain, which had expelled the Jews in 1492. Between 1500 and 1614, Spain expelled all Muslims and persecuted converts and dissenters in the Spanish Inquisition.

Spanish identity became associated with Roman Catholic belief and a strong sense of the Spanish mission to protect and spread Catholicism. This zeal showed also in the strenuous and successful efforts of the Spanish to convert the local people in their Latin American colonies and the Philippines. Protestant states were also intolerant and executed Catholics and members of other Protestant denominations. In addition, state authorities executed 50,000 people, three-fourths of them women, as witches who had sworn loyalty to the devil.

Whereas the Catholic Church insisted that priests and nuns remain celibate (unmarried), the new Protestant churches permitted their clergy to marry. In a few radical Protestant sects, women sometimes became leaders in church organization and propagation. However, male clergy, both Catholic and Protestant, generally agreed that even though men and women are equal in the sight of God, women should bow to the will of their fathers and husbands in religious and intellectual matters.

Religious differences shaped European divisions for the rest of the early modern era. Most of northwestern Europe—such as England, the Netherlands, the northern German lands, and Scandinavia—became Protestant, while most of southwestern Europe, such as France, Spain, the southern German lands, and Italy, remained loyal to Rome. Religious differences led to wars between Spain and England, the revolt of the Netherlands, the Huguenot civil wars in France, and the Thirty Years War in Germany, which ended in 1648. By that time, after 150 years

of religious warfare, many Europeans were calling for religious tolerance to bring an end to religious violence.

Students now turn to the question **How did world religions change and spread during the early modern period?** The expansion of global communications facilitated the further expansion of major world religions, notably Christianity in the Americas

and Southeast Asia, Islam around the Indian Ocean rim, and Theravada Buddhism from Sri Lanka to Southeast Asia. The Christian Reformation played a significant role in motivating colonization of the Americas. European missionaries, especially



Catholic missionary orders, spread reformed Christianity in Africa and Asia during the early modern period.

A new world religion, Sikhism, was founded in 1469 in South Asia. Sikhism was founded by Guru Nanak, a social reformer who challenged the authority of the Brahmins and the caste order. Students learn about the Sikh Scripture (*Guru Granth Sahib*), articles of faith, the turban, and Sikh history. Guru Nanak taught that all human beings are equal and can realize the divine within them without any human intermediaries or priests. Sikhs believe that each individual can realize the divine on his or her own through devotion to God, truthful living, and service to humanity. The three basic principles of Sikhism are honest living, sharing with the needy, and praying to one God.

With the addition of Sikhism, there were now four major religions of indigenous origin. While relations between people of different religions were often peaceful, generally, most Muslim rulers persecuted Sikhs as well as Hindus and Jains. Other Mughal rulers, most notably Akbar, encouraged and accelerated the blending of Hindu and Islamic beliefs as well as architectural and artistic forms.

Religious enthusiasm and challenge to orthodoxy in the early modern period were not unique to Europe. In China, the philosopher Wang Yangming (1472–1529) initiated a reform of neo-Confucian teaching and practice, which he found dogmatic and snobbish. He argued that ordinary women and men have the capacity to lead honest lives and know good from evil without learning Confucian texts and performing ceremonies. In Iran, the Safavid Dynasty gave support to the Shi'a branch of Islam, thereby challenging Sunni authority. For another example of adoption and adaptation, students may analyze art and texts from Java to see how the journey of nine Sufi saints led to a synthesis of local animism, Hinduism, and Islam.

On a global scale, religious change in the early modern period tended to promote more personal forms of practice at the expense of the power of entrenched religious institutions and clerics. Religions continued to spread as people sought ways to understand the changes happening around them.

The teacher makes the transition to the question **What were the effects of the Renaissance and the Scientific Revolution?** by telling students that they will study next the development and spread of other sets of ideas besides religious ones. The

Renaissance was a cultural and intellectual movement that began in the Italian city-states in the mid-fourteenth century and spread across Europe by the sixteenth century.

The Italian Peninsula witnessed significant urbanization and the formation of prosperous independent city-states such as Venice, Genoa, Florence, and Milan. With wealth generated from trade and industry and inspiration from the commercial and political rivalry with one another, these city-states experienced a remarkable burst of creativity that produced the artistic and literary advances of the Renaissance.

Through extensive contact with Byzantine and Islamic scholars, a considerable body of Greco–Roman knowledge was rediscovered. This revival of classical learning was named *humanism*. Humanists studied history, moral philosophy, poetry, rhetoric, and grammar—subjects they thought should be the key elements of an enlightened education. Humanism facilitated considerable achievements in literature, such as the works of Dante Alighieri, Machiavelli, and William Shakespeare, and in the arts, such the painting and sculpture of Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo di Buonarroti Simoni.

Students investigate artistic techniques of the Renaissance, such as perspective and realistic portraits, and architectural masterpieces, such as the Sistine Chapel. After 1455, the printing press, using movable metal type, and the availability of manufactured paper disseminated humanism and Italian Renaissance learning to other parts of Europe and beyond. In Northern Europe, humanist interest in the origin and development of languages inspired the creation of new and more exacting Greek and Latin versions of the New Testament as well as vernacular translations of the Bible. This emphasis on exact reading of the Christian scriptures was an important influence upon early Protestant thinkers.

Humanism played a continuing role in advancing science, mathematics, and engineering techniques, as well as the understanding of human anatomy and astronomy. Discoveries led to a Scientific Revolution in early modern Europe. The long-term origins of the Scientific Revolution were rooted in the historical connections with Greco–Roman rationalism; Jewish, Christian, and Muslim science; and Renaissance humanism.

European exploration and colonization in this period also stimulated a desire for intellectual understanding of the human and natural world. New information, new plants, and new animals from the Americas, which were not mentioned in the Bible nor by Aristotle and other ancient Greek authorities, led many to challenge traditional Christian and classical ideas about the universe. Scientists replaced reliance on classical authorities with the methodologies of the Scientific Revolution: empiricism, scientific observation, mathematical proof, and experimental science. They created what is known today as the *scientific method*.

A number of significant inventions and instruments of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries—the telescope, microscope, thermometer, and barometer—furthered scientific knowledge and understanding. There were significant scientific theories in astronomy and physics, including those associated with Nicolaus Copernicus, Johannes Kepler, Sir Isaac Newton, and Galileo Galilei (a physicist and astronomer who was charged with heresy by the Catholic Church for his public support of Copernicus’ theory that the earth revolved around the sun; he spent his final days under house arrest).

By the eighteenth century, scientific thinking and rational thought in Europe were reconciled with religious ideas and practice, as scientists justified their studies as identifying the patterns of the natural world to discover the plan of the divine. Many people accepted the concept that the universe operates according to natural laws, which human reason can discover and explain. The development of a culture of scientific inquiry in Europe was associated with its autonomous universities in some countries. In these institutions, scholars received some legal protection and were relatively free to study and argue what they pleased. Gradually, European scientific knowledge began to inform military, agricultural, and metallurgical technologies. By the early eighteenth century, this culture of scientific inquiry was diffused beyond Europe through the establishment of universities in Mexico, Peru, and North America.

The teacher sets up a gallery walk of major inventions and discoveries of the Scientific Revolution and gives students a source analysis chart that includes the following questions: **What were the effects of the Scientific Revolution? What modern ideas or technologies came from this invention or discovery?** When students have completed the gallery walk, the teacher leads a discussion of the effects of the Scientific Revolution and lists effects on the board as students identify them.

Newton's recognition that nature was understandable, predictable, and bound by natural laws proved an important inspiration to John Locke and other early thinkers associated with the Enlightenment, who argued that such laws and understandings were applicable to the human and moral world as well. The Enlightenment emerged from the Scientific Revolution and the political and social conditions of the eighteenth century.

Students focus on the question **Why were natural rights, the social contract, and other ideas of the Enlightenment revolutionary?** Beginning in the late seventeenth century, philosophers began to employ the use of reason and scientific methods to scrutinize previously accepted political and social doctrines. Enlightenment thinkers such as John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Charles-Louis Montesquieu, and Thomas Jefferson proposed religious tolerance, equal rights of all before the law, and the *social contract*. The teacher focuses on the social contract, as it provides the necessary bridge to grade eight.

After explaining the three fundamental concepts, the teacher assigns a project: students may write a story, draw a visual, or act out the three ideas of the social contract. Students work alone on stories or visuals, but they form small groups for the acting option. The students may also engage in a service-learning project that emphasizes the importance of the responsibility of citizens in a democracy. If the people are the basis of the state, and the state has been upholding the rights of the people, then they must act to protect the state and other citizens, participate in state institutions, such as jury duty and voting, and help ensure rights for all.

CHAPTER 12

United States History and Geography: Growth and Conflict

- What did freedom mean to the nation’s founders, and how did it change over time?
- How and why did the United States expand?
- Who is considered an American?

The eighth-grade course of study begins with an intensive review of the major ideas, issues, and events that shaped the founding of the nation. In their study of this era, students will view American history through the lens of people who were trying—and are still trying—to fulfill the promise of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. Throughout their eighth-grade United States history and geography course, students will confront the themes of freedom, equality, and liberty and their changing definitions over time. This course will explore the geography of place, movement, and region, starting with the Atlantic seaboard and then American westward expansion and economic development, the Civil War and Reconstruction, and finally, industrialization.

Covering parts of three centuries, the historical content outlined in this chapter is both substantial and substantive, which poses a significant challenge for teachers with limited time for in-depth study. This challenge is addressed through the organization of this chapter into five large sections, which incorporate guiding questions that can help students understand how individual events and people make up a larger narrative explanation of America’s past.

As students learn American history from the late 1700s through the end of the nineteenth century, they will develop reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills that will enhance their understanding of the content. As in earlier grades, students should be taught that history is an investigative discipline, one that is continually reshaped based on primary-source research and on new perspectives that can be uncovered. Students should be encouraged to read multiple primary and secondary sources; to understand multiple perspectives; and to learn about how some things change over time and others tend not to. They should appreciate that each historical era has its own context, and it is up to the student of history to make sense of the past on these terms by asking questions about it.

The Development of American Constitutional Democracy

- Why was there an American Revolution?
- How did the American Revolution develop the concept of natural rights?
- What were the legacies of the American Revolution?

Roots of the American Revolution

The study of American history begins with a selective review of how the nation was constructed; informed by what students remember from their fifth-grade study of early American history, which included consideration of the colonial period; the American Revolution; and the Early Republic. Students may begin their eighth-grade studies with a brief review of the significant developments of the colonial era; the creation of a colonial economy based on agriculture, commerce, and small-scale manufacturing; and the persistence of regional differences in the British north Atlantic colonies.

Considering the question **Why was there an American Revolution?** guides students' review of the period. Students may begin with a survey of the major events and ideas leading to the American War for Independence that they studied in fifth grade. They could build an online timeline that includes basic descriptions of events as well as written analyses of each event's significance.

Students may consider, for example, the Great Awakening, which affected many Americans. In emotional sermons, ministers offered a more egalitarian relationship between believers and their God that appealed to many races and classes. Excerpts from primary-source documents such as sermons by George Whitefield and Jonathan Edwards demonstrate for students how the Great Awakening influenced the development of revolutionary fervor and morality.

Students also consider the impact of the Seven Years' War—known in the colonies as the French and Indian War—on the colonists' feelings toward the British crown. Prior to the war, American colonists lived in relative isolation from British soldiers and were generally content with British rule. After the war, the colonists became increasingly resentful of the continued presence of British troops (including soldiers who exhibited what some colonists considered to be coarse behavior)—a daily reminder of their mother colony in their homeland.

The colonists were even more angry with the British government's attempts to collect revenue from the colonies to help pay for the war and the Crown's prohibition against colonial expansion to the west. Students may want to investigate specifically why British actions were considered unreasonable by the colonists and how the imposition of British law came to be viewed as increasingly oppressive.

Both the continued presence of the British military and the imposition of new taxes fueled colonial resentment and helped establish the new American consciousness. This new American identity expanded with the growth of more densely populated and diverse cities, like Philadelphia and Boston, where colonists started to notice how their economic, political, and even social interests with one



another seemed more aligned than their interests with Great Britain. Men such as Thomas Paine wrote about these developments, and soon organizations such as the Committees of Correspondence communicated them throughout the colonies.

Principles of the American Revolution

On July 4, 1776, delegates at the second Continental Congress signed the Declaration of Independence, officially asserting the colonies' separation from Great Britain. Students may engage in an activity in which they compare the first and second (or final) drafts of the preambles of the Declaration of Independence. Doing a close reading and sentence deconstruction of this important preamble will highlight for students that the differences between the first and second drafts were intended to unify the colonies as one new nation in opposition to Great Britain.

Students may also fully explore the grievances against Great Britain, tracing the broad principle of natural rights threaded throughout it. They consider the question **How did the American Revolution develop the concept of natural rights?** Students can analyze what Thomas Jefferson meant when he wrote “all men are created equal” and “endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights.” To deepen student understanding of these foundational arguments, teachers employ classroom debates and town hall meeting activities where students define and defend the arguments of the framers.

Once students understand the principles of the American Revolution as outlined in the Declaration of Independence, they briefly survey the major turning points in the war, its key leaders, people that fought in it, and how the war touched the lives of nearly everyone in the colonies. They trace the roles of key leaders in the war and explore how they went on to lead the new nation: George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, James Madison, and Alexander Hamilton. They may revisit fifth-grade studies of how the principles of the American Revolution (especially natural rights of freedom and the opportunity for democracy) motivated African Americans—both free and unfree—to try to secure those rights for all by their service in the war itself.

The American colonial struggle for independence occurred in a global context. The following questions can help students consider the perspectives of those who did not serve in either the Continental or British army: **How and why did Indians**

participate in the American Revolution? How did the alliances and treaties made by American Indians affect their relationships with both the patriots and the British? How did American calls for independence inspire other nations, such as France and the French colony of Haiti? Students learn about both the significance of the American Revolution to other nations and also the pivotal role of other nations in affecting the course of the war.

Legacies of the American Revolution

With the American victory over the British, the new nation struggled to define how the principles on which the Revolution was fought would become law and be applied to the new nation. The following question can frame students' understanding of the aftermath of the Revolution: **What were the legacies of the American Revolution?** Students learn that many historical documents and ideas influenced the framers of the Constitution in attempts to translate the American Revolution's principles to reality. For example, students may review the context by synthesizing the major ideas of the Enlightenment and the origins of constitutional and self-government in the Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights of 1689, the Mayflower Compact, the Virginia House of Burgesses, and New England town hall meetings.

Students should also learn about the challenges and multiple attempts to form a stable government; the Articles of Confederation, for example, taught leaders in America the importance of a centralized government. The Articles of Confederation were the first attempt to create a federal government for the 13 autonomous states that had freed themselves from British rule.

The Articles provided a governing structure for the United States during the Revolutionary War, but they quickly proved to be inadequate for the needs of the new nation. The Articles, which were finally ratified by all 13 states in 1781, enabled the new country to fight the Revolutionary War, negotiate with foreign powers, and expand to the west.

However, the Articles established a weak central government, one that lacked an executive branch and a national judiciary. Under the Articles, Congress also could not regulate commerce or even force the individual states to contribute to the national treasury. Given the absence of a strong, central government and, as a

result, its inability to respond to domestic crises, such as Shays' Rebellion in Massachusetts, and enforce a coherent and united foreign policy, national leaders began to call for a new governmental structure.

Because of their experience, the framers aimed to create a government that was neither too strong (because it might turn into despotism, or at the very least look too similar to the British monarchy) or too weak (as the Articles of Confederation proved to be).

To understand the process by which the Constitution was created (through speeches, discussions, debate, and drafts), students may read different documents



and engage in a variety of activities to bring these important conventions to life. For one, students may study the men who attended the Constitutional Conventions. They select one framer to study in depth. As part of the study, students may be assigned a biography and/or they may identify two or three primary sources produced by him; collect evidence from the sources; chart information about his background,

education, wealth, and values that he brought to the convention; and make claims about how his background influenced the positions he would take at the Constitutional Conventions. In addition to learning about the Constitutional Convention through the eyes of the framers, students can read, discuss, and analyze excerpts from the document written at the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia.

Students should consider topics that divided the Founding Fathers and examine the compromises adopted to produce a unifying document. Several compromises preserved the institution of slavery: namely, the three-fifths rule of representation, the slave importation clause, and the fugitive-slave clause. Students may explore quantitative information about where slaves lived and the work they did to determine why slave-holding provisions were so important to Southern delegates. Students can also wrestle with a question faced by some Founding Fathers: How could the nation's ideals of freedom, liberty, and democracy be adopted alongside

slavery? With careful guidance from the teacher, students can speculate on the question **What were the long-term costs of slavery, both to people of African descent and to the nation at large?** In addition, students discuss the status of women in this era, particularly relating to voting and the ownership of property. Although political rights for women were not advocated by the Founding Fathers, some women, such as Abigail Adams, wrote explicitly about how women’s interests, especially as mothers, needed to be considered by male leaders.

Beyond learning about the process by which the Constitution was created, students recognize the great achievements of the Constitution: (1) it created a republican form of government based on the consent of the governed—a bold, new experiment; (2) it established a government that has survived more than 200 years by a delicate balancing of power and interests through a system of checks and balances based on the separation of powers into three branches of government, and a Bill of Rights designed to protect individual liberties from federal government overreach; and (3) it provided an amendment process to adapt the Constitution to the needs of a changing society.

Students study how the Constitution provided for the participation of citizens in the political process. However, teachers should also place special emphasis on who was actually allowed to participate during this period in United States history. Explaining the role of property ownership in voter and office-holding requirements can familiarize students with the limits of republican government during this period. Understanding those limits will prepare students for their study of efforts to expand citizenship rights in the years to come. Web sites such as icivics.org, constitutioncenter.org, or congress.gov contain activities, games, and film clips that appropriately describe the enduring significance of the Constitution and the law-making process.

In addition to their examination of the Constitution itself, students consider the civil liberties outlined in the Bill of Rights by analyzing both the historical context for their inclusion as well as current implications of their adoption. As Thomas Jefferson noted in a letter to James Madison in 1787, “[A] bill of rights is what the people are entitled to against every government on earth, general or particular, and what no just government should refuse.” Students first consider why the Bill of Rights was added to the Constitution, studying the debate between the Federalists (who believed the protections were already included in the Constitution itself), and

the Anti-Federalists (who opposed ratification of the Constitution without inclusion of a specific list of guaranteed protections of individual rights).

Students then study the impact of the colonial experience on the drafting of the Bill of Rights in order to understand why these freedoms were so important to citizens of the new republic, from its broad emphasis on religious and political freedom to more specific protections, such as the prohibition against quartering of troops. Finally, students consider how these liberties have come to be defined in practice over time, starting with *Marbury v. Madison*'s establishment of the judiciary's role in protection of liberties and, in more current decisions on a variety of topics that reinforce student understanding of the individual rights, engage them in topics of real interest, and deepen their appreciation for the Bill of Rights' relevance in modern day.

Envisioning a New America

- How much power should the federal government have, and what should the government do?
- How did the government change during the Early Republic?
- Was the Louisiana Purchase constitutional?
- What was life like in the Early Republic?

In this unit, students consider the people, events, and ideas that shaped America in the period between ratification of the Constitution in 1788 and into the early 1800s. The new nation's leaders—like Washington, Adams, Jefferson, Madison, and Hamilton—faced enormous challenges in trying to determine the political structure of the country. John Adams, for example, argued, “Our Constitution was made only for a moral and religious people,” a sentiment echoed in George Washington's “Farewell Address.”

The conflicts between two views of how the newly independent country should move forward, articulated most vocally and explicitly by the ideological adversaries Alexander Hamilton and Thomas Jefferson, resulted in the emergence of a two-party system (Federalists and Democratic-Republicans, respectively). These two parties had differing views on foreign policy, economic policy (the National Bank and infrastructure such as canals, roads, and land grants for education), and

the interpretation of the Constitution. Students can analyze these different perspectives by considering **How much power should the federal government have**, and **What should the government do?**

An in-depth comparison of both Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton can offer students insight into the administration of the first president, George Washington; demonstrate that success in this new republic was not at all assured; explain the development of a two-party system; and provide a better understanding of a fundamental tension that continues to influence American politics. Washington selected both Jefferson and Hamilton as members of his original cabinet—Jefferson as the first Secretary of State and Hamilton as Secretary of the Treasury. Although both were dedicated to the success of his administration and the country itself, they often advised the first president to ignore the counsel of the other man and became personal adversaries. An instance of the animosity occurred in 1792, when Jefferson told Washington that Hamilton’s allies in Congress were a “corrupt squadron,” whose “ultimate object . . . is to prepare the way for a change, from the present republican form of government, to that of a monarchy, of which the English constitution is to be the model” (National Archives and Records Administration). Through a careful examination of selected sentences from a variety of primary sources, such as Jefferson’s letter to Washington, Alexander Hamilton’s Report on the Public Credit (the sentence that begins with “To justify and preserve their confidence . . .” is most helpful in communicating his central claim), or Thomas Jefferson’s Kentucky Resolutions that condemned the excess of the Alien and Sedition Acts (the sentence that begins with “Resolved, that the several states composing the United States of America, are not united on the principle of unlimited submission . . .” is most helpful in communicating his central claim), or Hamilton’s notes for a speech proposing a plan of government at the Federal Convention of June 1787 (the section that starts with “The general government must, in this case, not only have a strong soul, but *strong organs* by which that soul is to operate . . .” [National Archives and Records Administration] makes a strong argument), students can begin to make sense of this complicated debate about the role of government and at the same time gain insight into a very nasty and public feud between the two founders.

To support student comprehension of these difficult and dense primary-source texts, teachers will need to employ a variety of literacy-support strategies to define

unfamiliar vocabulary in context, identify the thesis of a written argument, and evaluate evidence in support of a claim. The inclusion of relevant secondary sources or text will likely support this effort. These debates provide early context for the meaning of *federalism* and help students address the question **How did the government change during the Early Republic?**

Using shadow outlines of Hamilton and Jefferson’s profiles, students can design a “historical head” to distinguish between the two founders’ perspectives on the role of the government—how Jefferson prioritized the needs of the agrarian economy, while Hamilton promoted commerce and manufacturing, for example. These “historical heads” can also illuminate differences of opinion on the strength of the federal government, as compared with state and local governments, the protection of individual rights, the establishment of a national bank and what to do about public debt, and later support for infrastructure development, such as canals, roads, and land for schools. (“Historical head” strategy is adapted from the California History–Social Science Project, University of California, Davis.)

In addition to these internal divisions within the government, the United States had to confront more fundamental challenges to its authority and legitimacy, such as Shays’ Rebellion and the Whiskey Rebellion. Many leaders in the new nation also felt they had to demonstrate the nation’s viability on the international stage, and in 1812 it fought an unpopular war with Great Britain and confirmed U.S. sovereignty.

Students can also learn about the ideals and aspirations of the people of the Early American Republic through a lens of demand for natural resources, a context for understanding the country’s physical landscapes, political divisions, and the resulting pressures that led to territorial expansion. This approach challenges them to consider the complications involved in westward expansion and begin to recognize many consequences of that growth (Principle II of the California Education and the Environment Initiative [EEI]; see appendix G).

They learn what happens as the country doubled in size while struggling with issues of debt and political control of what appeared to many as nearly limitless natural resources. (See the California EEI curriculum unit “Land, Politics, and Expansion in the Early Republic”; 8.4.1.) The United States paid \$15 million to France for the purchase of the Louisiana territory.

Students explore the constitutionality of this action, noting that even Jefferson himself argued, “The General Government has no powers but such as the Constitution gives it . . . it has not given it power of holding foreign territory, and still less of incorporating it into the Union. An amendment of the Constitution seems necessary for this.” Students can relate this issue back to a debate over strict versus loose construction interpretation of the Constitution as they consider the question **Was the Louisiana Purchase constitutional?**

Territorial expansion and its consequences proved to be an ongoing source of conflict and debate for the new nation. The passage of the Northwest Ordinance established a process for adding new states to the country and placed a limit on the spread of slavery, but this expansion also brought Americans into increased conflict with American Indian nations. The Ordinance stated, “The utmost good faith shall always be observed towards the Indians,” yet students learn that the reality was often very different.

Students may discuss the belief of the nation’s founders that the survival of a republican government depends on an educated people. They analyze the connection between education and republican ideals symbolized in the Northwest Ordinance and in Jefferson’s dictum: “If a nation expects to be ignorant and free, in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be.” Students may survey the types of education received in church schools, dame schools, and at home. Preparing editorials for period newspapers, classroom debates, and classroom speeches encourages students to consider the variety of educational systems in a democratic republic.

Students also examine the economic and social lives of ordinary people in the new nation, including farmers, merchants, laborers, and traders; women; African Americans, both slave and free; and American Indians. Reading excerpts from works by James Fenimore Cooper, Washington Irving, Olaudah Equiano, and Abigail Adams may provide students with insights. In addition, studying the writing, music, and art of this era will help bring this period alive and establish the origins of American identity. Surveying the evolution of the educational system and the lives of ordinary people prepares students to answer this question: **What was life like in the Early Republic?**

The Divergent Paths of the American People: 1800–1850

- How did individual regions of the United States become both more similar and more different?
- What was family life like in each region?
- How did work change between 1800 and 1850?
- What was the impact of slavery on American politics, regional economies, family life, and culture?
- What did the frontier mean to the nation in the first half of the nineteenth century?

This unit explores the nation’s regional development in the Northeast, South, and West. Each region encompassed a distinct geography, economic focus, and demographic composition. Students can compare the regions in terms of commercial development, sources of wealth, natural resources, political agendas, religious and ethnic diversity, infrastructure, population density, and eventually slavery, including the debate over the Free Soil movement. However, the growth of the market economy and the faster movement of people, commerce, and information increasingly connected each region of the nation to the others. Thus, although the regions appeared to be developing separate characteristics, in fact the nation was becoming increasingly interdependent and connected in the first half of the nineteenth century.

The interconnectedness was made possible by the *market revolution*, which is a term developed by historians to describe the transition in economic systems from a pre-industrial subsistence economy to a market-oriented society that made capitalism a part of people’s daily lives. As an umbrella term, the market revolution describes not just the important economic changes, but the technological and transportation changes that affected politics and society. It made possible advances in transportation such as turnpikes, steamboats, canals, and railroads. Significant advances in communication through the telegraph allowed more widespread availability of newspapers.

Eventually, the market revolution led to debates over the role that the government should play in supporting these advances; through controversial land

subsidies and financing of projects, the government became more involved in creating a national infrastructure as the nineteenth century progressed. In the years to come, these debates would become more pointed, as some Americans argued for increasing government involvement and expenditure to support the common good, while others advocated a more limited role for the government and greater emphasis upon individual effort.

Throughout this regional study, students should be encouraged to view historical events empathetically as though they were there, working in places such as mines, cotton fields, and mills. Historical empathy will support students as they work to address broad questions of historical significance, including this one: **How did individual regions of the United States become both more similar and more different?**

The Northeast. The industrial revolution in the Northeast affected the structure of life inside the region, but it also had important consequences for the nation as a whole. As the family economy gave way to industrial production, the roles of women and men changed. Middle-class women devoted themselves to the home and family, while men went out to work. An ideology of separate spheres conceptualized women and men as fundamentally different. As a result, men and women formed close bonds with one another inside their separate spheres while also expected to marry and raise a family. Students should engage with the question **What was family life like in the Northeast?** This question encourages students to consider change over time, cause-and-effect, and historical context in developing a well-reasoned answer.

Inventions between 1790 and 1850 transformed manufacturing, transportation, mining, communications, agriculture, and the economy and profoundly affected how people lived and worked. *Industrialization*, an umbrella term that describes all of the changes listed above, touched nearly every component of American life. Mechanized production in shops, mills, and factories replaced skilled craftspersons, a process depicted by Charles Dickens in his *American Notes* and in the letters written by young women who left home to work in the mills of Lowell, Massachusetts. These women organized strikes and labor organizations to petition against wage cuts and appealed to the state legislature for shorter hours.

Teachers may use historical fiction, such as *Lyddie* by Katherine Paterson, to illustrate the working lives of mill women and to help address this question: **How did work change in the first half of the nineteenth century?** This was a period of dramatic urbanization, as immigrants flocked to the cities, drawn by the “pull” factor of economic opportunity. The Great Irish Famine may be studied as an example of a “push” factor that affected the flow of immigrants to the United States. At the same time, the small African American population in the Northeast moved toward freedom, as the American Revolution initiated a long process of emancipation and indenture in this region. African Americans continued to occupy circumscribed social, economic, and political positions but created institutions to advance their rights and develop their communities. One example is the African Methodist Episcopal Church founded by Richard Allen, Absalom Jones, and others in 1816.

Periods of boom-and-bust created both progress and poverty. In response to the strains brought about by rapid industrialization, an age of reform began in which attempts were made to make life more bearable for the less fortunate and to expand opportunities for many. Students explore the significance of Charles Finney as the most famous leader of the Second Great Awakening, inspiring religious zeal, social reforms, such as equal education for women and African Americans, and eventually, support for the abolitionist movement. As more Americans grew concerned about people who were considered to be “downtrodden,” they turned their reform impulses from churches and philanthropies to other sectors of society.

Students may explore campaigns to reform hospitals, mental institutions, and prisons by studying the reformers, those considered in need of reform, and the methods by which reform was initiated. To make this topic more personal, students can study the work of Dorothea Dix and consider the following question that addresses change over time and causality: **How did Americans help people in need?** Other impulses for reform may be found in transcendentalism and individualism, as represented by the writings of Ralph Waldo Emerson, Henry David Thoreau, Herman Melville, Louisa May Alcott, Nathaniel Hawthorne, and Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.

In addition to learning about reform through philosophy, health, and religion, students can learn about nineteenth-century reform through education. Students can study what life was like for young people in the 1830s in order to appreciate

Horace Mann’s crusade for free public education for all, as well as the argument for public investment in education, both in the nineteenth century and today.

Grade Eight Classroom Example: The Civic Purpose of Public Education

In Mr. Lopez’s eighth-grade history class, students read and analyze excerpts from primary-source documents explaining the social and civic purposes of public education. Mr. Lopez begins the class by explaining to students that they will consider the question **Why go to school?** As a brief opening activity, Mr. Lopez asks students to discuss their personal answers to this first question and then to attempt to address it for people in the nineteenth century. As students complete the activity, Mr. Lopez charts on the board many common answers, including but not limited to literacy, economic benefits, an informed electorate, and child care.

Next, Mr. Lopez introduces the idea of compulsory education in the nineteenth century by showing them examples of typical schoolbooks from the era. He highlights elocution exercises, moral lessons, and orations (for example, *The Columbian Orator*). He also provides students with an explanation of the question **Why go to school?** from two leading nineteenth-century intellectuals: Benjamin Rush and Catherine Beecher.

Using selected sentences from Rush’s “Of the Mode of Education Proper in a Republic,” and Beecher’s *A Treatise on Domestic Economy* (chapter 1), students consider two radically different answers to the question. Working in pairs for a few minutes in preparation for a whole-class discussion, students write on charts the similarities and differences between the justification for education of the nineteenth century and those of more recent educational systems. They also discuss the perspectives of both authors by considering their personal backgrounds, the purpose of the document itself, and its intended audience. Although short, these excerpts are dense and filled with archaic language.

To ensure student comprehension, Mr. Lopez works carefully with his students to help them understand how common terms may often have multiple meanings. For example, he has student groups look up the multiple meanings of the word *interest* and then displays the following excerpt from the Beecher reading on the elmo: “The proper education of a man decides the welfare of an

Example *(continued)*

individual; but educate a woman, and the **interests** of the whole family are secured.” Mr. Lopez then asks each student group the meaning they believe best fits the context of the sentence. After all the groups report and explain their reasoning, Mr. Lopez reveals or confirms the correct meaning for this context.

Next he distributes a reference-analysis chart that pinpoints the subtle references to religion and philosophy in the two documents. He uses a Think-Pair-Share strategy to work through the chart with students. Finally, he models for students a breakdown of the rhetorical structure that Rush uses to make his argument. He has student groups break down Beecher’s rhetorical structure with the help of a graphic organizer tailored to the chosen excerpt.

Mr. Lopez then asks students to discuss the following question in pairs, using evidence from the chart: Why did Benjamin Rush believe it was important to go to school? Why did Catherine Beecher believe it was important to go to school? How did their individual perspective affect their answers? As students discuss, Mr. Lopez circulates throughout the groups to make sure that students’ answers are supported by relevant evidence and encourages them to think about how this answer might be similar or different if it were answered today.

As a culminating activity, Mr. Lopez asks students to assume the perspective of one of the two nineteenth-century authors in order to write a short critique of the other. Students then use their discussion notes to explain (in a few paragraphs) how their selected author’s views align with and differ from the other author, all in response to the question **Why go to school?**

CA HSS Content Standard: 8.6.5

CA HSS Analysis Skills (6–8): Research, Evidence, and Point of View 5

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.6–8.1, 2, 4, 6, WHST.6–8.1, 7, 9, SL.8.1, L.8.4a

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.8.1, 6a, 8, 11a

Out of these far-reaching reform movements of the nineteenth century, Americans became increasingly interested in discussing the status of women. Students may begin with a brief review of the legal and economic status of women and learn about the major impetus given to the women’s rights movement by

leaders such as Susan B. Anthony and Elizabeth Cady Stanton. They should read and discuss the Seneca Falls Declaration of Sentiments and compare it with the Declaration of Independence by revisiting the important questions **What did freedom mean, and how did it change over time?** Noting the intersections between previously studied reform movements, the women’s rights movement, and the abolitionist movement, students can study the efforts of educators such as Catharine Beecher, Emma Willard, and Mary Lyon to establish schools and colleges for women. Students may examine the relationship of these events to contemporary issues by considering the following question: **Why do periods of reform arise at certain historical moments?**

As a link to the next region of study, students may explore the interdependence between the slave South and the industrial North. During the American Revolution, Northern states had begun a slow process of emancipation while their Southern counterparts, with the invention of the cotton gin, became increasingly tied to a slave-based economy. Eli Whitney, a teacher and tinkerer from New England with an education from Yale, was working on a Georgia plantation when he invented his famous machine that increased the productivity of slave labor. Despite the fact that slavery was by and large a Southern institution, Northern and Western business leaders and national economic institutions continued to derive their own wealth from the nation’s use of slavery to extract raw materials.

Slave labor produced the cotton and raw materials that enabled Northern manufacturers, financiers, and other business interests to thrive. This, in turn, spurred a new consumer culture in individual families, connected to the slave-based economy. These topics can help students address the question **How did the country become more connected in the first half of the nineteenth century?**

The South. During these years, the South diverged dramatically from the Northeast and the West. Its plantation economy depended on a system of slave labor to harvest such cash crops as cotton, rice, sugarcane, and tobacco. The invention of the cotton gin allowed for a dramatic expansion of plantation agriculture across the region. African American slavery, the “peculiar institution” of the South, had marked effects on the region’s political, social, economic, and cultural development. Increasingly at odds with the rest of the nation, the South was unable to share in the popularity of democratic politics of the Jacksonian era or in the reform campaigns of the 1840s. Its system of public education lagged far behind the rest of the nation.

Students learn about the institution of slavery in the South in its historical context. They review their seventh-grade studies of West African civilizations before the coming of the Europeans and compare the American system of chattel slavery, which considered people as property, with slavery in other societies.

Students discuss the role that race and gender played in the constructing of the enslaved as in need of civilization and thereby rationalizing slavery; the daily lives of enslaved men and women on plantations and small farms, including the varied family structures they adopted; the economic and social realities of slave auctions that led to the separation of nuclear families and encouraged broad kinship bonds;



the centrality of sexual violence to the system of slavery; and the myriad laws: from the outlawing of literacy to restrictions on freedom gained through emancipation or purchase that marked the lives of American slaves.

Amidst the confining world of slavery, the enslaved asserted their humanity in developing a distinct African American culture through

retaining and adapting their traditional customs on American soil. This culture included less restrictive norms around gender and sexuality that supported the formation of alternative family structures within enslaved communities.

Students can connect this information about the slave society by considering the following questions: **What were slaves' lives like? How did slave families live in ways that were similar to and different from nonslave families?** Although organized revolt was rare, enslaved men and women resisted their bondage in informal and individual ways. Breaking tools, working slowly, feigning illness, and even learning to read and write represented skirmishes in an unacknowledged conflict between the enslaved and the enslaver. When armed revolts were uncovered (Gabriel Prosser in 1800 and Denmark Vesey in 1822) or manifested (the Stono Rebellion in 1739 and Nat Turner in 1831), white Southerners punished the individual perpetrators and often passed more severe laws. Students explore the effects of slave revolt and rebellion upon local and state legislation and relations between enslaved African Americans and free, white Southerners.

To provide a more comprehensive understanding of the antebellum South, students study the lives of plantation owners and other white Southerners; the more than 100,000 free African Americans in the South; as well as the laws, such as the fugitive slave laws of 1793 and 1850, that curbed their freedom and economic opportunity. Students also compare the situations of free African Americans in the South and in the North and note that freedom from slavery did not necessarily lead to acceptance and equality.

Students examine the national abolitionist movement that arose during the nineteenth century. Although the abolitionist movement is quite popular with students seeking to connect these early activists to rights movements of the next century, it is extremely important that students learn about abolitionists in their own contexts. Abolitionists were considered the most radical reformists by both Southerners and Northerners; their arguments about the immorality of slavery were never popular with the vast majority of Americans.

Only by studying remarkable abolitionists such as Theodore Weld, William Lloyd Garrison, Angelina and Sarah Grimke, Wendell Phillips, and John Brown can students begin to understand the historical context of slavery. Despite repeated threats, attacks, and bounties on their heads, abolitionists wrote news articles and editorials, spoke publicly, boycotted slave-made goods, housed fugitive slaves, and, in the case of John Brown, planned armed conflict.

African Americans, free and enslaved, also actively challenged the existence of slavery, both as individuals and through fraternal organizations, churches, and newspapers. African-American abolitionists, including Frederick Douglass, Sojourner Truth, Harriett Jacobs, Charles Remond, Harriet Tubman, and Robert Purvis risked their lives to speak at public gatherings, pen news articles, petition Congress, and assist in the underground movement to help rescue escaping slaves.

Excerpts from Frederick Douglass's *What the Black Man Wants*, David Walker's *Appeal*, Harriet Beecher Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, and Fanny Kemble's *Journal of Residence on a Georgia Plantation*, as well as excerpts from slave narratives and abolitionist tracts of this period, will bring these people and events alive for students and enable them to address the following questions: **How did people work to end slavery**, and **What opposition did they face?**

Grade Eight Classroom Example: The Antislavery Movement (Integrated ELD in U.S. History–Social Science)

In history class, students are learning about the origins of slavery in the U.S., its consequences, and its abolition. They learn how Frederick Douglass, an African-American writer and political activist who was born a slave in 1818, escaped to freedom and began to promote the antislavery cause in the nineteenth century. Throughout the 1840s and 1850s, he traveled across the North delivering abolitionist lectures, writing anti-slavery articles, and publishing his autobiography about his time in slavery and in freedom.

In 1855, Douglass gave a speech to the Rochester Ladies' Anti-Slavery Society. Mrs. Wilson, the history teacher, has carefully selected significant excerpts from Douglass's speech as well as other relevant primary sources in order to help her students understand the abolitionist argument in the years leading up to the Civil War and to answer the following guiding question: **Why did Frederick Douglass believe the United States should abolish slavery?** Mr. Lopez, the school's ELD specialist, has consulted with Mrs. Wilson to help students understand Douglass's writing, which contains challenging vocabulary, complicated organization, and abstract ideas. The following quotation from Douglass's speech in Rochester is characteristic of the language students will encounter:

The slave is bound to mankind, by the powerful and inextricable network of human brotherhood. His voice is the voice of a man, and his cry is the cry of a man in distress, and a man must cease to be a man before he can become insensible to that cry. It is the righteousness of the cause—the humanity of the cause—which constitutes its potency.

Recognizing that their EL students, who are all at the Bridging level of English language proficiency, need support in understanding this complex language in order to develop sophisticated understandings of the content, for designated ELD time, Mrs. Wilson and Mr. Lopez collaboratively design lessons to meet these needs. They also recognize that the other students in the history class, many of whom are former ELs and standard English learners, would benefit from strategic attention to language analysis. The teachers decide

Example *(continued)*

to co-teach a series of integrated ELD lessons for the entire history class. They distribute copies of the quoted passage and read the excerpt aloud while students silently read along.

Next, Mr. Lopez asks the students to work in pairs to identify words or phrases in the short passage that are unfamiliar, abstract, or confusing. He already anticipated what some of these words will be (e.g., *inextricable*, *potency*) and has prepared student-friendly explanations in advance. After about a minute, he pulls the class together, displays on a chart the words identified by the class, and offers brief explanations, which the students note in the margins of their individual copies. Since some of the words are cognates in Spanish, and many of the students are bilingual in Spanish and English, he calls their attention to those words and provides the Spanish cognate. He also clarifies that the words *man* and *men* in the excerpt are meant to represent all of humanity, not just literally the males.

Mrs. Wilson and Mr. Lopez then guide the students through a detailed sentence-deconstruction activity, in which they model how to code words and phrases according to how they function to make meaning. In particular, the teachers encourage students to clearly identify words that serve as reference devices—substitutes and pronouns that refer to people, concepts, and events in other parts of the excerpt or in their previous discussions about the antebellum era. After modeling and explaining how to conduct this type of analysis on a different chunk of text, the teachers ask students to work in pairs to practice doing the same analysis on the excerpt from Douglass’s speech at Rochester. Below is an example of the whole-group debrief, following their pair work:

Text	Analysis (What do the bolded terms in the text refer to?)
The slave is bound to mankind , by the powerful and inextricable network of human brotherhood.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • men and women in slavery • all people, humanity

Example (continued)

His voice is the voice of a man ,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the slave’s voice • all people, humanity
and his cry is the cry of a man in distress ,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the slave’s cry or call for help • <i>man</i> and <i>mankind</i>—all people, humanity in distress
and a man must cease to be a man before he can become insensible to that cry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • slave owners or people who support or do not fight against slavery • the cry of the slave in distress, but also all people in distress
It is the righteousness of the cause—the humanity of the cause—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • linking the <i>righteousness</i> and <i>humanity</i> of the cause with how powerful it is (potency) • the cause is the abolition of slavery • the righteousness and humanity of the cause is what makes it or causes it to be powerful
which constitutes its potency .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the power or potency of the cause (abolition of slavery)

As Mr. Lopez leads the class to complete the chart together, drawing from similar charts they had completed in pairs, he asks them to suggest where he should draw arrows to connect the referring words to their antecedents. Throughout this discussion, there is considerable negotiating as students grapple with the meanings in the text and attempt to persuade their peers about their interpretations of those meanings. During discussion about the text, Mr. Lopez prompts students to provide evidence to support their claims. In addition to unpacking the literal meanings of words and phrases, Mr. Lopez asks students to discuss in triads the following question:

Example *(continued)*

“Why did Douglass repeatedly use the word ‘the man’ to describe slave men and women?”

After lively small-group discussions and then a whole-group debrief, students are encouraged to develop their own interpretations by using evidence from the text as well as their previous study of the antebellum era. Some students believe that Douglass wanted to remind the white ruling class that men and women in bondage were human, and he hoped to connect the suffering of slaves to humanity’s struggles.

Others suggest that Douglass was using the same rhetorical tool as the Founding Fathers, who often used the term *man* to encompass everyone. Some students argue that since women did not have the same rights as men in 1855, Douglass targeted male citizens—those who could vote and make laws.

During the whole-group discussion, Mrs. Wilson and Mr. Lopez pose questions to help students fully grasp Douglass’ use of imagery (e.g., a man in distress, his cry) as a tool for persuading his listeners. The class then deconstructs other sections of the text in order to develop even more nuanced understandings of Douglass’ writing and ideas. After examining a few other excerpts from the speech, the teachers ask the students to discuss and then write about the guiding question:

Why did Frederick Douglass believe the United States should abolish slavery?

Mr. Lopez and Mrs. Wilson find that having students grapple simultaneously with basic comprehension of short excerpts and larger questions about Douglass’s intent supports deeper understandings about the social significance of Douglass’s speech and provides students with strategies for approaching other complex informational and historical texts.

Sources and Resources

- Example adapted from The California History–Social Science Project, University of California, Davis.

Example *(continued)*

Primary Source: Frederick Douglass. “The Anti-Slavery Movement.” Rochester Ladies’ Anti-Slavery Society (Rochester, New York, 1855). *Source:* Library of Congress, Manuscript/Mixed Material Division (<http://www.loc.gov/item/mfd000384>).

CA HSS Content Standards: 8.7.2, 8.9, 8.9.1, 2, 4, 6

CA HSS Analysis Skills (6–8): Research, Evidence, and Point of View 5, Historical Interpretation 1

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.6–8.1, 2, 4, 6, 8-10

CA ELD Standards (Bridging): ELD.PI.8.1, 6a, 6b, 8, 11a; ELD.PII.8.2a

The West. The West, whose boundaries, margins, and center shifted rapidly and dramatically during this period, deeply influenced the politics, economy, mores, and culture of the nation. It opened domestic markets for seaboard merchants; it offered new frontiers for immigrants and discontented Easterners; it allowed significant alterations in gender norms; and it inspired a folklore of individualism and rugged frontier life that has dramatically influenced the national self-image and sense of the American past.

Students should continue to grapple with questions of regional identity: **What did the frontier mean to the nation? How did the nation’s regions develop similarly and differently in the first half of the twentieth century? How did family life develop in each region?** The West was a changing region over this period as the country expanded, from the territory opened by the Northwest Ordinance, to the vast lands of the Louisiana Purchase, to the southwestern territories taken from Mexico. The peoples of the West reflected the diversity of the region: American Indians, Mexicans, Asians, and American emigrants and immigrants of various racial and ethnic backgrounds. As Americans moved west, they interacted with established societies: both indigenous and those created by earlier colonizers. Students study how the term *the frontier* affected American settlement and development in the West.

The election of Andrew Jackson in 1828 reflected the steady expansion of white male suffrage, symbolized the shift of political power to the West, and opened a new era of political democracy in the United States. President Jackson was a symbol of his age. Jacksonian democracy should be analyzed in terms of its supporters—farmers with small holdings, artisans, laborers, and middle-class

businessmen. It should also be examined for its limitations. As an example, Andrew Jackson was a slaveholder who also pressed for the removal of Native Americans, even disregarding a Supreme Court decision on the matter (*Johnson v. M'Intosh*, 1823).

In studying Jackson's presidency, students consider his spoils system, veto of the National Bank, policy of Indian removal, and opposition to the Supreme Court. Students may consider the question **How did Andrew Jackson change the country?** Students may also consider Andrew Jackson's legacy in order to evaluate his reputation as a hero to common people. During this time, Alexis de Tocqueville, a French nobleman, visited the United States to identify the general principles of American democracy. Students may compare his description of national character in the 1830s as recorded in *Democracy in America* with American life during the Revolution or with today.

Students review the story of the acquisition, exploration, and settlement of the trans-Mississippi West, from the Louisiana Purchase in 1803 to the admission of California as a state in 1850. This period was marked by a strong spirit of nationalism, as Americans moved westward in search of economic opportunity, abundant natural resources, and, for some, religious freedom.

The success and speed with which the young nation expanded westward contributed to the perspective that Americans had a special purpose and divine right to populate the North American continent. This idea became known as Manifest Destiny and inspired an imperial ideology that infused American attitudes of racial and political superiority toward American Indians and the Republic of Mexico.

Students may consider the question **How did Manifest Destiny contribute to American expansion?** To deepen their understanding of the changing political and economic geography and settlement of this immense land, teachers may have students read from the journals of the Lewis and Clark expedition (to the Northwest). Students



can describe the lives of fur trappers and their impact on knowledge of the geography of the West; they can map the explorations of trailblazers such as Zebulon Pike, Jedediah Smith, Christopher “Kit” Carson, James Pierson Beckwourth, and John C. Fremont. Student may discuss the searing accounts of the removal of Indians and the Cherokees’ “Trail of Tears.” Students can interpret maps and documents related to the long sea voyages, including around Cape Horn of South America and overland treks that opened the West.

Teachers include discussions about the role of the great rivers, the struggles over water rights in the development of the West, and the effect of geography on shaping the different ways that people settled and developed western regions. Students learn that as settlers began their westward journey in the nineteenth century, water played a vital role in determining the location of settlements. They can participate in a role-playing activity to explore the influence of rivers on development and settlement patterns and discover that the management of this essential resource took on a different form from that of the eastern states, where supplies were adequate to meet demand. Students recognize that the limited availability of water in the West drove many political, legal, and economic decisions about water management. (For Environmental Principle V, see appendix G; EEI curriculum unit “Struggles with Water,” 8.8.4.)

Grade Eight Classroom Example: Western Expansion

Ms. Ramsberg encourages her students to examine multiple perspectives as they study change over time in the settlement of the American West. One class activity that deepens student understanding of the ways that Americans discussed westward expansion is through consideration of this question: **How did leading American thinkers (such as artists, intellectuals, and religious and government leaders) justify America’s westward expansion in the nineteenth century?** Ms. Ramsberg explains that this activity is more about how people thought about their country than it is about how the country itself looked. She tells students that they will examine several primary sources to obtain a variety of perspectives on this question: (1) a letter from John Quincy Adams to his father, John Adams, in 1811 (both Adamses served as U.S. presidents); (2) an excerpt from columnist John O’Sullivan’s essay “Annexation,” which advocated Texas’ admission into the Union; (3) a copy of

Example *(continued)*

American Progress, an 1872 painting by John Gast, who was hired by George Crofutt, a publisher of western travel guides, to create the painting; (4) an excerpt from “The Significance of the Frontier of American History” by historian Frederick Jackson Turner; (5) an excerpt from *Our Country: Its Possible Future and Its Present Crisis* by Josiah Strong, a Congregational minister.

As students read each document, they collect evidence and supporting details about how the source advocates western expansion. Ms. Ramsberg supports student reading comprehension through a variety of literacy-building strategies, including graphic organizers and sentence-deconstruction charts to help students understand O’Sullivan’s use of reference devices, abstract claims, and causal relationships. Students then compare *American Progress* to a selected excerpt from the Turner argument to practice historical corroboration. Finally, they give a short oral argument in response to the lesson’s question, using evidence collected from primary sources.

Source: Excerpted from *Western Expansion: Curriculum to Support California’s Implementation of the Common Core and English Language Development Standards*. California History–Social Science Project. Copyright © 2014, Regents of the University of California, Davis Campus.

CA HSS Content Standard: 8.8.2

CA HSS Analysis Skills (6–8): Research, Evidence, and Point of View 4, 5

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.6–8.1, 2, 6, 8, 9, SL.8.4, L.8.6

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.8.1, 6a, 6b, 7, 9, 11; ELD.PII.8.1

In addition to learning about the political, economic, and ideological justifications for western expansion, students study the northward movement of settlers from Mexico into the Southwest, with emphasis on the location of Mexican settlements, their cultural traditions, attitudes toward slavery, the land-grant system, and the economy that was established. Students need this background before they can analyze the events that followed the arrival of westward-moving settlers from the East into Mexican territories.

Students explore the settlement of Americans in northern Mexico and the actions to establish the Republic of Texas. Teachers provide special attention to the causes and consequences of the United States’ war with Mexico by

considering the question **What were the consequences of the Mexican-American War?** To answer this question, students study early territorial settlements, the political ambitions of James K. Polk and other proslavery politicians, and the war's aftermath on the lives of the Mexican families who first lived in the region. Students also study the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo and the California Constitution of 1849 and the effects of both documents on the lives of Mexicans living within the new United States borders.

Frontier life had a mixed effect on the relations between men and women. White men far outnumbered white women, a situation creating some opportunities where the latter became more valued than previously; they were thus able to achieve some rights in the West before their counterparts elsewhere.

White women residing in many western states gained the franchise in the late-nineteenth century, earlier than women in other parts of the nation. The skewed gender ratio also led more white men to marry Mexican women, with greater frequency in some communities in the American Southwest. Primary-source documents will provide students with a more appropriate sense of the varied roles played by frontier women as students continue to address the question **How did family life change during the first half of the nineteenth century?**

Many women of diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds felt trapped or limited by their gender in a place and time so dominated by men. Some women responded to this by working for social change. California's Annie Bidwell promoted women's rights—especially suffrage—temperance, and compulsory education. Other women handled the limitations of society by passing as or transforming themselves into men, thus benefiting from the greater opportunities men had in the West.

California's Charley Parkhurst, for example, who was born a female but who lived as a male, drove stagecoach routes in northern and central California for almost 30 years. Stagecoaches were the only way to travel long distances, and they served as a vital communication link between isolated communities. Parkhurst was one of the most famous California drivers, having survived multiple robberies while driving (and later killing a thief when he tried to rob Parkhurst a second time). Finally, gold rushes and western military life provide examples of frontier settings where men far outnumbered women and for this and many reasons, people lived less conventional lives.

The Causes, Course, and Consequences of the Civil War

- Why was there a Civil War?
- How was the United States transformed during the Civil War?
- How was the Civil War conducted militarily, politically, economically, and culturally?
- How was slavery abolished through the Civil War?

In this unit, students concentrate on the events leading up to and the conduct and consequences of the Civil War. By 1850, slavery had become too divisive for political leaders to ignore; a series of increasingly violent clashes over the decade shone a spotlight on how slavery as a political, economic, and social institution divided the country and would become the cause for an American civil war.

Students can begin their studies of the events leading up to the Civil War by exploring this question: **Why was there a Civil War?** Students can briefly review the constitutional compromises that forestalled the separation of the Union in the first half of the nineteenth century, especially the Missouri Compromise. But the compromises of the 1810s–1840s did not last. Ultimately, the nation fractured over the debate about the expansion of slavery into newly created western territories and states, especially after the Mexican–American War and the discovery of gold in California.

The Wilmot Proviso, the Compromise of 1850, the Kansas–Nebraska Act, the Ostend Manifesto, the Dred Scott case, the Lincoln–Douglas debates, and John Brown’s raid on Harper’s Ferry are all

The History Blueprint: Was the Civil War for Freedom?

The History Blueprint is a curriculum developed by the California History–Social Science Project (CHSSP) (<http://chssp.ucdavis.edu>), designed to increase student literacy and understanding of history. Three units are available for free download from the CHSSP Web site, including The Civil War, a comprehensive standards-aligned unit for eighth-grade teachers that combines carefully selected and excerpted primary sources, original content, and substantive support for student literacy development. For more information or to download the curriculum, visit: <http://chssp.ucdavis.edu/programs/historyblueprint>.

important markers of how slavery had become the key problem dividing political leaders. Students can chart these developments in the years leading up to the Civil War, noting (on the one hand) how the issue of slavery was at the root of each event, but (on the other hand) how political leaders sought to avoid war at all costs.

Studying these events in this nuanced way is an exercise in understanding contingency and cause-and-effect; for example, political leaders who worked out the negotiations in the Compromise of 1850 did not want the country to divide and lapse into war, nor did they know that their series of compromises in 1850 would ultimately pave the way for this war. This is an important reminder for students to “think historically” to study the past on its own terms, but also understand how it would influence future events.

On December 20, 1860, South Carolina became the first state in the nation to secede from the Union. The state’s secession came in response to the presidential election of Abraham Lincoln the prior month, even though he was not to take office until March of 1861. South Carolina decided that Lincoln’s presidential win as a Republican—a party that supported the Free Soil platform, not the end of slavery in territories where it already existed—signaled that it could not continue as part of the United States.

South Carolina was joined by 12 other states in the coming months. They united together and formed the Confederate States of America in March 1861. Students learn about the fundamental challenge to the Constitution and the Union posed by the secession of the Southern states and the doctrine of nullification. When Lincoln took office in the same month that the Confederacy formed, he said his first task was to reunite the nation; he did not support freeing slaves in the South at this point. It became clear that war was likely a necessary step to attempt reunification when, between April 12 and April 14, 1861, Lincoln refused to withdraw American troops stationed at Fort Sumter, South Carolina.

As they consider the start of the Civil War, students should be encouraged to understand three key pieces of historical context: (1) at the beginning, the war was unpopular among Northerners, and the extremely high casualty rates continued to make it an unpopular war; (2) the South seceded because Southerners perceived Lincoln’s election to be a threat to the institution of slavery; and (3) at the beginning of the war, the purpose was not to end slavery, but to reunite the nation.

With this context in mind, students will learn through cause-and-effect and contingency how the civil war became a war to end slavery.

Students should continue to study the development and administration of the Civil War by employing the discipline-specific thinking skills of contingency and cause-and-effect. The following two questions can help frame this way of understanding the Civil War: **How was the United States transformed during the Civil War? How was the Civil War conducted militarily, politically, economically, and culturally?** Students should be reminded that actors in the war—whether political or military leaders, soldiers, slaves, or civilians—often did not know how the war would develop, what the results would be, or that slavery would come to a decisive end in four years.

At the outset of the war, the North and the South each had different advantages and strategies. The North, with its 3.8 million free men of military age, had a much larger pool of potential servicemen; it had 10 times the industrial capacity of the South; it had more than double the miles of railroad line to transport people and goods; it had many more ships and a navy; it also had West Point, the premier military academy in the country to train leaders in the midst of the war.

By comparison, the South had 1.1 million free men of military age, of which 80 percent were recruited for war. It did not have the industrial capacity that the North had because nearly all of its economic and technological resources were devoted to the cash crop of cotton. The South also had talented graduates of West Point leading its soldiers, who were more familiar with the landscape, and they fought most of the war on the defensive, which at least initially seemed to be a more winnable war to fight.

In addition, the Civil War demonstrated the advantages of a strong central government when facing the challenges of organizing for war. The coercive powers of the federal government to levy taxes, draft soldiers, suspend civil liberties, and impose martial law all enabled President Lincoln in prosecuting the war. Jefferson Davis and the Confederacy relied on a weak central government and the voluntary cooperation of state governments for the cause of Southern independence. These differences proved a decided advantage in favor of the North.

Students can be introduced to key battles, including Antietam, Vicksburg, and Gettysburg, that served as turning points in the war. Nevertheless, as they explore

up close the details of each battlefield, they should also be reminded to view the events with the broader historical significance in mind by revisiting a central question: **How did this battle affect the course of the war? How did this battle reflect broader patterns or struggles in the war?** In addition to studying the critical battlefield campaigns of the war, students learn how modern technologies of warfare combined with antiquated military tactics to produce massive casualties on both sides. The hundreds of thousands of sick and wounded required medical attention, which in turn resulted in a shortage of people to care for these soldiers. This acute need precipitated a crisis that led to the large-scale employment of women as nurses and administrators and, in the case of Mary Edwards Walker, a female doctor.



Students use a variety of primary sources to examine the human meaning of the war in the lives of soldiers, free African Americans, slaves, women, and others. Ultimately, enslaved men and women, by fleeing their plantations and seeking refuge among Union forces, contributed to redefining the war as a struggle over their freedom. Photographs, emerging technologies, and media reveal the horrors of the war and the new ways that civilians experienced warfare. Teachers may choose to assign James McPherson's *What They Fought For, 1861–1865* or teach the CHSSP's Civil War Blueprint curriculum to introduce students to what Northern and Southern soldiers believed the war was about and what they hoped to achieve by fighting.

In addition to learning about the administration and battlefield developments of the war, students should come away from their studies of the Civil War with an understanding that the purpose of the war changed as it was fought: from being a war to reunite the Union to being a war to end slavery. The following guiding question underscores this point for students: **How and why did the war become a war to end slavery?** Slaves freed themselves, fled to Union camps, and pressed military leaders and the president to consider the role of slaves in the war itself. Documents such as Lincoln's first and second inaugural addresses, the

Emancipation Proclamation, and the Gettysburg Address should be read and charted by students to trace the change in meaning to the war.

The Civil War and its immediate aftermath should be treated as a watershed event in American history. It resolved a challenge to the very existence of the nation, demolished the antebellum way of life in the South, and created the prototype of modern warfare. To understand Reconstruction, students consider the economic and social changes that came with the end of slavery and how African Americans attained political freedom and exercised that power within a few years after the war.

Students also explore the impact of Reconstruction on African American kinship structures and family life. Students study the postwar struggle for control of the South and of the impeachment of President Andrew Johnson. A federal civil rights bill granting full equality to African Americans was followed by adoption of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments.

Between 1865 and 1877, African American citizens, newly organized as Republicans, influenced the direction of Southern politics and elected 22 members of Congress. Republican-dominated legislatures established the first publicly financed education systems in the region, provided debt relief to the poor, and expanded women's rights. Students examine the effects of Reconstruction in the South by considering the question **How did Reconstruction redefine what it meant to be an American?** As important as the era was in expanding civil rights in the South, Reconstruction was temporary.

Students should employ cause-and-effect thinking skills to analyze the consequences of the 1872 Amnesty Act and the fateful election of 1876, followed by the prompt withdrawal of federal troops from the South. The nation experienced significant economic consequences from the Civil War and Reconstruction. Students learn about new laws, including the Morrill Tariff and Land Grant Act, the Transcontinental Railroad Acts, and the Homestead Act, to explore the expanding role that the government would play in developing the nation.

Students analyze how events during and after Reconstruction raised and then dashed hopes that African Americans would achieve full equality. They should understand how, over the next couple of decades, courts and political interests undermined the intent of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments to

the Constitution. They learn how slavery was replaced by black peonage, segregation, Jim Crow laws, and other legal restrictions on the rights of African Americans, capped by the Supreme Court’s *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision in 1896 (“separate but equal”). Racism prevailed—enforced by lynch mobs, the Ku Klux Klan, popular sentiment, and federal acceptance—which spread outside of the South.

Students need to understand the connection between the Reconstruction-era amendments and the civil rights movement of the 1960s. Although undermined by the courts a century ago, these amendments became the legal basis for all civil rights progress in the twentieth century. Studies of this era may be concluded by returning to the question **How did the Civil War change the United States?**

The Rise of Industrial America: 1877–1914

- How did America’s economy, industries, and population grow after the Civil War?
- Who came to the United States at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century? Why did they come? What was their experience like when they arrived?
- How did the federal government affect the country’s growth in the years following the Civil War?

The period from the end of Reconstruction to World War I transformed the nation into an industrial giant that made it as productive and industrialized as the major powers and producers in Europe. This complex period was marked by the settling of the trans–Mississippi West, the expansion and concentration of basic industries, the establishment of national transportation networks and new maritime routes, the invention of a variety of tools and industrial processes that increased economic productivity and efficiency, a human tidal wave of immigration from southern and eastern Europe, growth in the number and size of cities, accumulation of great fortunes by a small number of entrepreneurs, the rise of organized labor, growth of the women’s suffrage movement, and increased American involvement in foreign affairs (for example, through the construction of the Pacific Fleet, engagement in the Spanish–American War of 1898, and the completion of the Panama Canal).

Those years are often referred to as the *Gilded Age* (because of the mass accumulation of wealth by small numbers of extremely powerful individuals and companies) and the Progressive Era (because of the reform movement that started as a way to promote the interests of those who did not share in the prosperity of those years).

As a means of examining patterns of urbanization, immigration, and industrialization, students may refer to historic maps to identify physical features of American cities, building both chronological and spatial analysis skills. Viewing historical maps in chronological order allows students to trace growth patterns of cities and to recognize how a city's growth and industries demanded ever-increasing quantities of natural resources, gathered from increasingly greater distances. Students can unite their studies of these years by considering this question: **How did America's economy, industries, and population grow after the Civil War?**

Industrialization, the umbrella term that describes the major changes in technology, transportation, communication, the economy, and political system that fostered the growth, allowed for the ballooning prosperity at the turn of the century. New technology in farming, manufacturing, engineering, and production of consumer goods created material abundance. The flood of new items supported a larger population and made the producers of the goods very wealthy when prices were stable. Industrialization, combined with mass production, made possible the department store, suspension bridges, the telegraph, the discovery of and uses for electricity, high-rise buildings, tenements, and the streetcar. These and other features of modern life seemed to confirm the idea of unending progress.

Students may examine the impact of new inventions on the American economy, such as the refrigerator car, the telephone, or the electric light, through the construction of a virtual museum exhibit, which includes information about individual inventors, descriptions of the new invention or process, and the significance of the new discovery.



In addition to individual inventions, students examine the phenomenal growth in industrial efficiency and output during this period, due to increased mechanization and—with it—reduced production costs. Mechanization and factory production reduced labor costs and expanded production capacity. As a result, manufacturers could produce more goods for a lower price by using a strategically organized workforce.

As industry grew, many small businesses consolidated to form large monopolies that dominated a particular economic activity or commodity. These businesses, such as Standard Oil, often engaged in predatory pricing, where they undercut the cost of production in order to put their competitors out of business. Without competition, monopolies could then raise prices at will, effectively gouging consumers who had nowhere else to turn for their goods or services.

Economic progress was repeatedly disrupted, however, by prolonged periods of severe financial distress; the country suffered a number of economic recessions during the intense boom-and-bust cycles at the end of the nineteenth century. Students identify and explore patterns of agricultural, industrial, and commercial development in the United States in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, and the effect of such development on the American environment (Environmental Principle II of the California EEI; see appendix G) and apply their knowledge to an exploration of how increased mechanization and production in the late nineteenth century influenced the growth of American communities (EEI curriculum unit “Agricultural and Industrial Development in the United States,” 8.12.1).

Leading industrialists of this period, such as Andrew Carnegie and John D. Rockefeller, became the wealthiest men in history and gave back some of that wealth to the nation through their philanthropic activities. Governments promoted the wealth consolidated by these men and supported business expansion and prosperity through favorable economic policies such as tariffs and land grants.

The rapid growth of the country in this period had important consequences for how people lived their lives. Beneath the surface of the Gilded Age, a dark side could be seen in the activities of corrupt political bosses; in the ruthless practices of businesses; in the depths of poverty, disease, and unemployment experienced in the teeming cities; in the grinding labor of women and children in sweatshops,

mills, and factories; in the prejudice and discrimination against African Americans, Hispanics, Catholics, Jews, Asians, and other newcomers; and in the violent repression of labor organizing, such as the Homestead Steel Strike in Pennsylvania and the Pullman Railway Strike.

Part of the reason the nation became as productive as it did in the last decades of the nineteenth century was because of a flood of immigrants from southern and eastern Europe. Students can identify who migrated, why they came, how people found work, where they lived, and how they encountered this foreign country. Students can address these questions: **Who came to the United States at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century? Why did they come? What was their experience like when they arrived?** They also learn about the long hours, poor wages, unhealthy work environments, and unregulated child labor that, according to author Upton Sinclair, amounted to *The Jungle* for the working class.

This system of labor and social organization was justified by leading social scientists who advocated social Darwinism or eugenics as scientific explanations and rationalizations for treating workers poorly. Students examine the importance of social Darwinism as a justification for child labor, unregulated working conditions, and *laissez-faire* policies toward big business.

The plight of labor and immigrants was not ignored by everyone at the turn of the century. Progressives, or American reformers who sought to provide a safety net for the most vulnerable of Americans, started to act as advocates for the poor by opening settlement houses like Hull House in Chicago, or working as muckraking journalists like Ida Tarbell, exposing poor work conditions.

Progressives eventually advocated broader reforms in urban areas by encouraging the government to establish minimum working-age requirements and pass the Pure Food and Drug Act, for example. Reformers also aligned themselves with workers themselves. Students can study the rise of the labor movement and understand the changing role of government in confronting social and economic challenges of the Gilded Age and Progressive Era. Students can review these shifts by considering the question **How did the federal government affect the country's growth in the years following the Civil War?**

Despite suffering from unsafe working and living conditions, immigrant and native-born men and women sometimes found themselves freer from family and

community control in urban centers. Socializing in public became the norm for working-class youths who had limited space where they lived, and the disparity between women's and men's wages gave rise to the practice of dating. The rise of commercialized entertainment such as movies, amusement parks, and dance halls fostered easier interaction among strangers.

Part of the reason this larger and more urban population could be sustained was because of major shifts in the country's geography and demographics. Students focus on the developing West and Southwest between the 1890s and 1910s.

Yet, in order for the West to be developed in this way, American Indians had to be once again relocated and, in many situations, removed. The American Indian wars, the creation of the reservation system, the development of federal Indian boarding schools, and the re-allotment of Native lands profoundly altered Native American social systems related to governance, family diversity, and gender diversity. Reading Chief Joseph's words of surrender to U.S. Army troops in 1877 helps students grasp the heroism and human tragedy that accompanied the conquest of this last frontier. Re-allotment entailed breaking up Native lands into privately held units (largely based on the Anglo-American model of the male-led nuclear family), displacing elements of female and two-spirit authority traditionally respected in many tribal societies. Boarding schools in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries took Native children away from their parents for years at a time, imposing Christianity, U.S. gender binaries and social roles, and English-only education in an attempt to make them into what school administrators viewed as proper U.S. citizens.

In addition to learning about Natives who were displaced for the development of the West, students study how the region was reconstructed to support the growing Native and immigrant population. The great mines and large-scale commercial farming of the nation's heartland provided essential resources for industrial development.

Advances in farming technology made land more productive than ever before. Nevertheless, they also led to falling crop prices, which squeezed small-time farmers who had been struggling to stay afloat. Students can learn through case studies of events—for example the Chicago World's Fair of 1893—and identify the “modern” agricultural, industrial, and commercial development of the time. They

can also describe the cause-and-effect relationships between climate, natural resources, population growth, and the scientific and technological advancements during this time period, and then apply their knowledge of these relationships to an analysis of the changing landscape in America around the turn of the century.

One way farmers reacted to these technological and economic pressures was through organizing. Students can consider the political programs and activities of the Grange Movement and Populists as examples of how farmers attempted to organize in the face of larger pressures.

California also came to play an increasingly significant role in the national economy. The Gold Rush in California, the building of the transcontinental railroad, and agricultural labor in Hawaii and the mainland spurred Chinese, Korean, Japanese, Filipino, Hindu, and Sikh immigration to the United States. Agricultural production and the growth of the oil industry accounted for much of California's early economic growth. Asian farmers and

Defining American Citizenship

To understand the sweeping changes that are covered in this period of American history, students consider the ways in which the quests for liberty and freedom have transformed the American populace. The course pays close attention to the opportunities and challenges that have confronted a diverse society. Teachers weave in the recurrent themes of citizenship and voting by emphasizing how these rights and privileges have been contested and reshaped over time. Starting with the freedoms outlined by the framers, students examine the many contributions of Americans seeking to expand civil rights across the country—to move forward in the continuing struggle to become a more perfect union.

Students learn what it means to be a good citizen (obeying laws), a participatory citizen (voting, jury duty, advocating causes), and a socially just citizen (community service, standing up for the rights of others). Students will also learn about the process by which people arriving in the United States can become citizens, the history of immigration in the United States, and the contributions of immigrants in this country. Analysis of the naturalization process will provide an understanding of the immigration process, enhance students' tolerance of and respect for others, help students develop an appreciation for the diversity of this country, and reinforce lessons of citizenship.

Finally, students can participate in service-learning projects that engage them in the democratic process by planning and participating in such activities as mock elections, associated student body elections and meetings, the naturalization process, voter registration, community service, and National History Day.

laborers contributed to the development of irrigation systems and farming throughout the state. Families from Mexico increasingly provided the labor force for the cultivation of this region.

Students study the social, economic, and political barriers encountered by both immigrants and American citizens of Mexican ancestry. Eventually the Chinese Exclusion Act (1882) and the Immigration Act of 1917 greatly limited Asian entry into the United States. California built the immigration station at Angel Island to implement restrictions on Asian admissions. Despite the government's eventual tightening of restrictions on immigration in the second decade of the twentieth century, immigrants played an essential role in developing the country as both an agricultural and industrial giant.

Literature can deepen students' understanding of the life of this period, including the immigrant experience in the Great Plains portrayed in Willa Cather's *My Antonia* and O. E. Rolvaag's *Giants in the Earth*; life in the tenements of New York City as portrayed in Anzia Yezierska's *Bread Givers*; and life in the slums portrayed in Jacob Riis's books; the poems, journals, and journalism of Walt Whitman; and Mark Twain's *Huckleberry Finn*, unsurpassed as a sardonic commentary on the times.

CHAPTER 13

Instructional Practice for Grades Nine Through Twelve

As described in the Introduction, in addition to providing history–social science content, teachers must emphasize disciplinary and literacy practices—investigation, close reading, analysis of evidence, and argumentative writing. The *History–Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools* (History–Social Science Content Standards), the *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy), and the *California English Language Development Standards* (CA ELD Standards) guide these practices in history–social science.

Educators may also wish to consider the *College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards* (C3 Framework), published in 2013 by the National Council for the Social Studies. All of these resources emphasize the need for students to think, read, speak, listen, and write in a discipline-specific way. The skills noted below are to be learned through, and applied to, the content covered in grades nine through twelve. They are also to be assessed with the content in these grades.

Disciplinary Thinking and Analysis Skills

The Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills and the C3 Framework address the intellectual skills students should learn and apply when engaged in inquiry (utilizing the individual tools of each discipline to investigate a significant question and marshal relevant evidence in support of their own interpretations) in history–social science courses in grades nine through twelve. The skills described below are organized according to the four main social science disciplines: civics/government, economics, geography, and history. However, across all of the disciplines students should understand and frame questions of disciplinary significance that can be answered by research and study. Students should also use a variety of sources to make claims that address questions of disciplinary significance.

Civics and Government

When studying civics and government, students explore how people participate in the governance of society. In high school, these skills include students' abilities to explain and distinguish the powers, roles, and responsibilities of citizens and governments and how these have changed over time and are still contested. Students should also analyze the impact and roles of personal interests and perspectives on the application of civic virtues, democratic principles, constitutional rights, and human rights. Students analyze ideas and principles that influence social and political systems as well as the powers and limits of those systems.

Additionally, students should evaluate the effectiveness of efforts to address social and political problems as well as the intended and unintended outcomes and consequences of these efforts. Students analyze historical and contemporary means of changing societies, promoting the common good, and protecting individual rights from the will of the majority.

Students deepen their appreciation for civic virtues, democratic principles, and deliberative processes when working with others. In addition, these civics-related activities can be woven into a variety of classroom content areas:

1. Students evaluate rules, laws, and public policy in terms of effectiveness, fairness, costs, and consequences and propose modifications or new rules to

address deficiencies.

2. Students use deliberative discussion, including consideration of multiple points of view, in making decisions or judgments on controversial political and social issues.
3. Students construct and evaluate arguments and counterarguments and positions on issues using appropriate discipline-specific claims and evidence from multiple sources.
4. Students analyze a specific school or community school problem or issue using appropriate disciplinary lenses from civics, economics, geography, and history; propose and evaluate strategies and options to address it; and take and evaluate individual or collaborative actions and/or make presentations on the issue to a range of venues outside the classroom.

Economics

To make effective economic decisions, high school students need to understand how individuals, businesses, governments, and societies use human, physical, and natural resources; how incentives influence choices and actions; and the resulting consequences of those actions. They need to understand capitalism, financial literacy, and their place in the broader economy. The economic reasoning skills that high school students need include the ability to conduct cost–benefit analyses and apply basic economic indicators to analyze the aggregate economic behavior of the United States and foreign economies, and construct arguments for or against economic policies.

Students should also analyze and evaluate the role of competition and its effects on particular markets, the effectiveness of certain examples of government intervention in markets, and the selection of monetary and fiscal policies in a variety of economic conditions. Additionally, students learn to use current data and economic indicators to explain the influence of changes in spending, production, and the market supply on various economic conditions; students also can analyze the current and future state of the economy. They should explain how current globalization trends and policies affect economic growth, labor markets, rights of citizens, the environment, and resource and income distribution in different nations.

Geography

In studying geography, students explore local characteristics of places and learn how places connect to one another, and discover the relationships between humans and the earth. High school students' geographic reasoning skills include using geographic data, maps, satellite images, photographs, and other representations to explain relationships between the locations of places and regions, and the political, cultural, and economic dynamics. Students also use geospatial and related technologies to create maps to display, analyze, and construct arguments by using geographic data about the spatial patterns of cultural and environmental characteristics. They evaluate the relationships and interactions within and between human and physical systems, the influence of long-term climate variability, as well as the consequences of human-made and natural catastrophes, on resource use, trade, politics, culture, and human migration and settlement patterns on both local and global scales. Additionally, high school students should explain how economic globalization and the expanding use of scarce resources contribute to conflict and cooperation within and among countries.

History

Historical thinking is a process of chronological reasoning, which means wrestling with issues of causality, connections, significance, perspectives, and context. The goal is to develop credible arguments about the past based on reasoned interpretation of evidence from a variety of primary and secondary sources in diverse media formats. In high school, students evaluate how unique circumstances of time and place, as well as broader historical contexts, shaped historical perspectives, decisions, events and developments.

Students interpret past events and issues in their original context, rather than in terms of present-day norms and values, while explaining how perspectives of people in the present shape interpretations of the past. Students analyze complex factors that influenced the perspectives and decisions of people during different historical eras and how and why those perspectives have changed over time. They critique the relevancy, credibility, and utility of historical sources for a specific historical inquiry or as used in a secondary interpretation based on the author, date, place of origin, intended audience, and purpose.

Students recognize the complexity of historical causality, including the challenges of determining cause and effect. Students understand that history is an interpretive discipline. They analyze historians' interpretations of the past, including the limitations in historical evidence, and the authors' arguments, claims, and use of evidence. Finally, students integrate evidence from multiple relevant historical sources and interpretations into a reasoned argument based on evidence about the past and present in oral, written, and multimedia presentations.

Literacy Skills

The CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy for grades nine through twelve represent increasingly sophisticated expectations for students as they move from middle school to high school. The relationship between English–language arts and literacy, English language development, and the content areas or disciplines is one of interdependence. History–social science content knowledge grows from students' knowledge of language and ability to use vocabulary, grammatical structures, and discourse practices to accomplish their disciplinary goals, just as literacy and language proficiency grow from increased content knowledge. All students should be provided with rich instruction and appropriate pedagogy in history–social science.

The standards in this grade span prompt students to think and operate at levels that result in the achievement of the College and Career Ready Anchor Standards in reading, writing, speaking and listening,¹ and language by the end of grade twelve. Consistent with the growing cognitive capacities of adolescents, these expectations challenge students to think deeply and critically. The depth of knowledge and level of thinking reflected in these grade-level standards are commensurate with the work that students will do in postsecondary education and careers.

1. As noted throughout this framework, speaking and listening should be broadly interpreted. Speaking and listening should include deaf and hard-of-hearing students using American Sign Language (ASL) as their primary language. Students who are deaf and hard-of-hearing who do not use ASL as their primary language but use amplification, residual hearing, listening and spoken language, cued speech, and sign-supported speech, gain access to the general education curriculum with different modes of communication.

All teachers with English learners (EL) students in their classrooms also use the CA ELD Standards to determine how to support their ELs in achieving the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the content standards for each discipline. The CA ELD Standards also call for students to advance their language and thinking at these grade levels in preparation for college and careers. The complexity of written and spoken texts that ELs are asked to interpret and produce aligns with the academic literacy demands of postsecondary education and careers. Students who are ELs participate fully in the history–social science curriculum at the same time as they are learning English as an additional language; some students may be simultaneously developing literacy and academic skills in languages other than English.

English Language Development


Children and youths who are ELs face the unique challenge of learning English as an additional language² at the same time as they are learning history–social science content through English.³ This challenge creates a dual responsibility for all K–12 teachers of ELs. The first responsibility is to ensure that all ELs have full access to the intellectually rich history–social science curriculum at their grade level. The second is to ensure that ELs rapidly develop advanced levels of English in history–social science, the type of English that is necessary for success with academic tasks and texts in these disciplines. To fulfill this dual responsibility, California promotes a comprehensive approach to English language development (ELD) as an integral part of a robust instructional program for all ELs. This approach includes *both* integrated ELD *and* designated ELD.⁴

2. The term *English as an additional language* is used intentionally to signal that an explicit goal in California is for ELs to add English to their linguistic repertoires and maintain and continue to develop proficiency in their primary language(s).

3. Some ELs are enrolled in alternative bilingual programs where they may be exclusively learning history–social science in their primary language or learning history–social science in both their primary language and in English.

4. *Integrated* and *designated* ELD may be unfamiliar terms. These new terms encompass elements of previously used terms, such as *sheltered instruction*, *specially designed academic instruction in English [SDAIE]*, or *dedicated ELD*. It is beyond the scope of the *ELA/ELD Framework* to identify all previously used or existing terms, and readers should read the framework carefully to determine how the new terminology reflects, or differs from, current terms and understandings.

Example *(continued)*

Integrated ELD		Designated ELD
All teachers with ELs in their classrooms use the CA ELD Standards <i>in tandem with</i> the focal CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and other content standards.		A protected time during the regular school day when teachers use the CA ELD Standards as the focal standards in ways that build <i>into</i> and <i>from content instruction</i> in order to develop critical language ELs need for content learning in English.

Content knowledge is increasingly important in high school. As students prepare for college and careers, the courses become more specialized. The literacy standards at grades nine through twelve make clear the value of both content and literacy. Literacy and language instruction, based on the CA CCSS for Literacy in History/Social Studies and the CA ELD Standards, complements and contributes to history–social science content instruction that addresses the History–Social Science Content Standards.

Reading

Increasingly sophisticated levels of analysis and interpretation are now evident in the CA CCSS Reading Standards for History/Social Studies for grades nine through twelve. Students are expected to grapple with a multiplicity of sources, authors, motivations, representations, and perspectives, and they synthesize multiple sources of information. Specifically, the Reading Standards for Literacy in History/Social Studies expect students to cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources, attending to such features as the date and origin of the information; analyze in detail a series of events described in a text and determine whether earlier events caused later ones or simply preceded them; and evaluate various explanations for actions or events and determine which explanation best agrees with textual evidence, acknowledging where the text leaves matters uncertain. Students compare the point of view of two or more authors;

assess, corroborate, or challenge authors' claims, reasoning, and evidence; and integrate and evaluate their findings from multiple sources of information into a coherent understanding that answers a question or solves a problem.

Providing students with significant inquiry-based and text-dependent historical questions can guide students to closely read and analyze primary and secondary sources to meet these standards. Sources such as biographies, speeches, letters, essays, plays, films, and novels both deepen understanding of key historical narratives, ideas, periods, events, and influential actors and provide evidence for students to answer those inquiry questions. Literary and informational texts can be paired in units that encourage collaboration between English–language arts and history–social science courses.

The CA ELD Standards intersect with and amplify these CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. English learners in grades nine through twelve explain ideas, phenomena, processes, and relationships within and across texts, explaining inferences and conclusions. They evaluate and analyze language choices, explaining how writers and speakers structure texts and use language successfully to persuade the reader and how a writer's or speaker's choice of phrasing or words produces different effects on the audience. English learners do all of this by applying their understanding of how English works on a variety of levels: how different text types are organized and structured to achieve particular academic purposes, how texts can be expanded and enriched using particular language resources, and how ideas can be connected and condensed to convey particular meanings.

It is important that students who experience difficulty with reading are supported as they learn from texts; **teachers should not avoid texts as sources of knowledge with students who find them challenging and rely exclusively on nontext media and experiences. Replacing texts with other sources of information or rewriting them in simpler language—in spite of the intention to ensure access to the curricula—limits students' skill to independently learn with texts in the future.** In other words, instruction should be provided to enable all students to learn with texts alongside other learning experiences.

These expectations for students' understandings about language and how it makes meaning in history–social science means that teachers need to develop deep understandings about the inextricable link between language and history–social

science content knowledge and how to support each of their students in understanding how language works to make meaning with different types of text.

Writing

The CA CCSS Writing Standards for Literacy in History/Social Studies for grades nine through twelve also call for increasingly sophisticated levels of analysis and interpretation. As students advance through high school, they become increasingly effective at expressing themselves in writing as they synthesize multiple sources of information.

High school students are expected to write relatively sophisticated arguments focused on historical issues. They must introduce precise and knowledgeable claims and establish their significance. Their writing must establish clear relationships and logical sequence among claim(s), counterclaims, reasons, and evidence. They must point out strengths and limitations of claim(s) and counterclaims in a discipline-appropriate form. They must anticipate their audience’s knowledge level, concerns, values, and possible biases. They must use words, phrases, clauses, and varied syntax to link major sections of the text, and attend to the norms and conventions of the discipline.

Students also write history–social science informative and explanatory texts by organizing elements to make important connections and distinctions, so that each complex element builds on the previous to create a unified whole. They develop the topic with extended details appropriate to the audience’s knowledge and with the most significant facts and information. They use language to manage the complexity of the topic and, as in argumentation, attend to the norms and conventions of the discipline. In both of these genres, students address what is most significant for a specific purpose and audience; use technology to update individual or shared writing products; and respond to ongoing feedback, including new arguments and information.

In the CA ELD Standards, ELs in grades nine through twelve write literary and informational texts by using the appropriate register, or tone and level of language. They justify their opinions and persuade others by making connections and distinctions among ideas and texts and using sufficient and relevant evidence. They use a variety of grade-appropriate academic words and phrases, including

persuasive language, when producing complex written and spoken texts. English learners continue to express their views by using nuanced modal expressions and knowledge of morphology to manipulate word forms. All students, especially ELs, benefit from a focus on making choices about how to use language in their writing for clarity, precision, and variety, adapting their choices to be appropriate for the task, purpose, and audience.

As do all students, ELs in high school work their way toward fluency and proficiency in English by becoming increasingly conscious about how and why they manipulate language. In other words, they deliberately employ complex language structures to synthesize ideas and information, communicate different levels of generality, and make relationships clear and logical.

Supporting ELs to develop this metalinguistic awareness, in which they become more conscious of how English works and the language choices they make, enhances students' comprehension of texts and provides them with options for speaking and writing. It also conveys to students that grammar is not a set of rules but rather a resource for making meaning with an endless constellation of language choices that are available to them.

Research

Opportunities to engage in research contribute to students' history–social science content knowledge. Teachers can use writing instruction to provide opportunities for students to conduct research to build and present knowledge. Teachers can also engage students in collaborative discussions about grade-level topics, texts, and issues (including research conducted by students). In high school, research projects expand and become more complex than in middle school, which contributes to students' motivation and engagement. In history–social science, students conduct more sustained research projects to identify and solve a problem, narrowing or broadening the inquiry when appropriate, and synthesizing multiple sources on the subject, demonstrating understanding of the subject under investigation. They use advanced searches effectively; assess the usefulness of each source in answering the research question; closely read to assess the strengths and limitations of each source in terms of the task, purpose, audience, and strength of the authors' arguments; integrate information into the text selectively to maintain the flow of ideas, including footnotes/endnotes; and avoid overreliance on any one source.



CHAPTER 14

Elective Courses in History–Social Science

During the ninth grade, students take elective courses in history–social science. These elective courses, taken over two semesters, may consist of a two-semester sequence focused on a single topic or may be two separate courses on two different subjects. Ideally, these courses will build on the knowledge and experiences students have gained during their previous nine years of school. These courses prepare students for the remaining years of history–social science education mandated in *Education Code* Section 51225.3 and the standards that will be covered in each of these grades. Districts and individual schools are responsible for planning and overseeing courses that meet these requirements.

All history–social science elective courses should be consistent with the curricular goals of this framework. Counselors at the school level should assist in the placement of students in elective courses by determining their interests, needs, and abilities. Students should *not* be placed in other elective courses such as driver training, computer literacy, or freshman literacy in place of history–social science courses. Electives provide an excellent opportunity for teachers to prepare students for advanced course work and to integrate research-based practices in civic education, including simulations of the democratic process, service-learning, and current

events. A description of courses that correspond to the aims and ideas within this framework follows.

World and Regional Geography

- How does a society’s geographic location and environment shape work and living opportunities as well as relationships with people outside of that society?

This course provides an overview of the various regions in the world and examines their specific geographic features before turning to a thematic approach covering those issues of most significance from a global perspective. Important regions include North America, Middle and South America, Europe, Russia and Central Asia, East Asia, South and Southeast Asia, Southwest Asia, North Africa, sub-Saharan Africa, and Oceania.

Students learn to read maps, indicate the distribution of the earth’s population, and trace the diffusion of people and cultural influences at regional and global levels. As the National Council for the Social Studies explains in the *College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards (C3 Framework)* (2013, 40): “Geographic inquiry helps people understand and appreciate their own place in the world, and fosters curiosity about Earth’s wide diversity of environments and cultures.” Such a course is broad in scope and encourages students to think on both a macro level about the geopolitics of today, as well as on the local level about how and why their community looks and operates as it does.

A general guiding question for the course is **How does a society’s geographic location and environment shape work and living opportunities as well as relationships with people outside of that society?** Answering this question requires an investigation of Earth’s physical and human features, how people and the Earth’s natural systems continuously influence one another, and the possibilities available to each.

In addition to understanding how access or a lack of access to resources—fresh or ocean water, fertile soil, flora and fauna, minerals and oil, trees and other building materials—shapes the operations of a particular society, this course also looks at how these factors impact geopolitics. This includes the organization of the

world economy, such as foreign trade and global investment, regional inequality, crises in developing nations, industrial restructuring, technological innovation, and regional and global development.

Oil is a key driver in geopolitics due to the fact that not all countries have a national supply of oil, and yet all rely on it for fuel to some extent. Students can examine how oil has shaped production and trade alliances, foreign diplomacy, as well as armed conflicts. While oil is a particularly vivid example of the impact of a natural resource on human affairs, students can explore how food or infrastructure needs (i.e., steel, timber) encourage regional trade and interdependence.

Other geographic issues include the current major political, economic, and environmental crises occurring on a regional or global level. Students can use the lens of geography to investigate a current war, asking which groups are in conflict, and over what resources or territory. What resources are available to each in order to fuel the armed conflict? What alliances, if any, have formed, and what geographic advantages do those alliances offer? What are the environmental impacts of the war? Are residents displaced; if so, where do they go, and what resources are available to them?

There are instances in which environmental crises can precipitate war due to a scarcity or perceived future scarcity of natural resources such as fresh water or fuel. Looking at current environmental challenges provides students with greater geographic understanding, as well as insight into potential human conflicts. These challenges include air and water pollution, invasions of nonnative species or the spread of disease, climate change, deforestation, soil degradation, and dwindling natural resources. How societies adapt and innovate in the face of such challenges, as well as how environments change over time in response to these adaptations, are critical geographic considerations.

An investigative activity includes the examination of two countries on different continents and in different climatic zones that takes into consideration the impact of geographic factors such as population, climate, natural resources, and technological and other innovations integral to development. How do these geographic realities influence each nation's defense and security, trade, and diplomacy?

A final piece to the activity is the comparison of these two regions: How would economic opportunities differ in these two regions? How would daily life—from

the type of dwelling, to the modes of transportation and terrain, to diet, to weather—look in these two locations? What national concerns occupy each country, and how does this affect their global position? This investigation encourages students to consider the diversity of human experiences embedded in Earth’s varied regions.

Helpful data for this investigation may come from online sites such as NASA’s Socioeconomic Data and Applications Center, Natural Earth, and the CIA’s World Factbook, all of which provide global data. The U.S. Census Bureau provides domestic geographic information. The California Education and the Environment Initiative Web site hosts curriculum units that cover geographic and natural resource material.

Modern California (Twentieth and Twenty-First Centuries)

- What enabled California’s rapid growth?

California has long been a place of extraordinary growth and innovation. Students may recall the tremendous events of the nineteenth century—the arrival of people from around the world during the Gold Rush; the transcontinental railroad that connected California to the rest of the country; and the establishment of large-scale ranches and farms that undergirded the economy. These events and processes set the stage for California’s development in the twentieth century into the nation’s most populous, diverse, and economically robust state.

This course examines the human and environmental factors integral to achieving this growth. It can be taught in one or two semesters, depending on the breadth and depth of coverage. The outline below follows a chronological history of California, with a focus on the three strands integral to development: the people, the natural resources, and the government’s investment in growth.

Turn-of-the-Century California

This course begins in the early twentieth century, with a unit framed by the question **What challenges and opportunities did Californians face at the start of the twentieth century?** California, especially the southern portion of the state,

grew rapidly in this era. Large numbers of Mexican immigrants began to arrive after the Mexican Revolution began in 1910. California continued to attract European immigrants as well as Americans from the East and Midwest who were drawn by the mild climate and the fertile soil. Promotional boosters used magazines and newspapers to promote California to the rest of the country. The railroads provided low fares to encourage tourism and, ideally, relocation to the Golden State. The Southern Pacific Railroad, in particular, owned 11 percent of the state's land and had much to gain from creating demand for residential plots and farmland.

The growing population spread out and transformed landscapes into orchards, vineyards, farms, and ranches; drilled for oil; turned trees in the central and northern coast and Sierra Nevada Mountains into lumber; and created shipping ports and manufacturing centers.

The one main obstacle to growth, however, was the lack of water in this arid state. The two largest urban areas—Los Angeles and San Francisco—looked beyond their borders for a reliable and plentiful water supply. In securing such a supply, they stripped water from its original source, causing a farming community in the Owens Valley to falter, and flooding the Hetch Hetchy Valley in Yosemite to create a reservoir to supply San Francisco. Conflict over who had the highest claim to natural resources was an ongoing battle in the state, stretching back to the impact of hydraulic mining on downstream farms and businesses.

To some extent, this concern over a lack of resources and development opportunities led to immigration and landownership restrictions for nonwhites. Laborers concerned about adequate job opportunities helped secure the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882, while the success of Japanese farmers led to the Alien Land Law of 1913 to prohibit the owning or leasing of land by noncitizens.

Resource management and a desire to integrate immigrants represented two goals of the nation's early twentieth-century Progressive Era. In California, the Progressive impulse helped secure the conveyance of water from Hetch Hetchy to San Francisco, as well as new regulatory measures for the railroad. Corruption was rife throughout the state, where the Southern Pacific Railroad owned much land and controlled the transportation infrastructure. Countless politicians accepted payoffs in return for creating railroad-friendly policies. Students can read selections

from Frank Norris' novel *The Octopus* about the negative impact of the railroad on the small farmer and business person. During the first two decades of the twentieth century—California, like the nation as a whole—sought to impose order on rapid industrialization and population expansion.

Grade Nine Classroom Example: California History—Hetch Hetchy

Students in Ms. Hernandez's class are investigating the 1908–1913 battle over Hetch Hetchy in order to understand what challenges and opportunities existed in this era, as well as develop different perspectives on growth. Using a variety of primary sources, such as digitized documents from the National Archives that expressed both support and opposition for the Raker Bill to dam the Tuolumne River in Yosemite National Park, students take on the personas of California citizens and members of Congress to hold a simulated congressional hearing on the creation of the dam.

Some students use excerpts from John Muir's writings on the issue, which provide an impassioned plea for valuing nature's integrity over growth and development. Others quote San Francisco city leaders who argued in favor of the dam and considered the harnessing of the river a reasonable use of resources to support a growing population. To prepare for their presentations, all students review all the sources Ms. Hernandez has curated for the class in order to both present their case persuasively and respond to pointed questions by other members of the class. Students must be prepared to provide evidence for their perspective, integrate multiple sources of information in their presentations, and evaluate the credibility of other speakers' use of evidence and overall persuasiveness.

English learners (ELs) in Ms. Hernandez' class are provided with additional support, as necessary, including strategies to first comprehend and then analyze sources, receive vocabulary support, and do text deconstruction. As they prepare for the hearing, ELs are also provided with sentence starters and ample practice sessions where Ms. Hernandez, the school's English language development specialist, and individual students partner with their EL classmates to both prepare their formal presentation and respond to anticipated questions.

Example *(continued)*

Ms. Hernandez assesses her students' learning using a rubric that details minimum expectations with regards to her students' understanding of the issues, ability to marshal evidence in support of their argument, and capacity to both listen and respond appropriately to their classmates' presentations.

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12): Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View 1; Historical Interpretation 3, 4, 5

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.9–10.6, 9, WHST.9–10.9, SL.9–10.1c, 2, 3, 4b

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.9–10.3, 5, 9, 11a; ELD.PII.9–10.1

A Boom and Bust in California's Interwar Period

The Progressive Era faded with the end of World War I; after a small recession, the nation entered into an economically vibrant period during the 1920s. California flourished in this decade, with the oil industry going strong, an emerging automobile culture, the entertainment industry in Hollywood, and the continued strength of tourism and agriculture. California was moving away from the industrial sector several decades before the rest of the country. By the 1920s, over half of all California workers were employed in the service sector, in jobs with the government, health care, insurance, finance, and other such endeavors. Hollywood boosted California's cultural prominence and helped attract ever more people to the state.

But only a decade later, the state put signs at the border telling migrants to stay out, that California could not employ and feed its own during the Great Depression. Nevertheless, California attracted a large share of the dust bowl migrants, the “Okies,” who often came to join family members and neighbors who had moved to the state in better times and who now looked for work in the agricultural sector. To support the state's agriculture and growing population during the 1930s, the state and the federal government invested in the Central Valley Project to provide a reliable drinking and irrigation water supply throughout the state. Poor working and living conditions abounded in California's agricultural valleys. Those who experienced this most acutely were the Mexicans, Mexican Americans, and Filipinos, who were made to feel unwelcome in California during the Depression, either through forced or encouraged repatriation schemes.

The 1920s and 1930s provide clear contrasts to one another, but students should see that the increasingly diversified economy in California enabled it to emerge from the Great Depression with great promise for future growth. The guiding question for this unit is **What highs and lows defined the 1920s and 1930s in California?** In addition to traditional primary sources used to teach these decades, teachers may want to use excerpts from one or more novels or journalistic accounts. For example, Upton Sinclair’s *Oil!* describes the power of the oil industry in California, the rise of the car culture, and the cultural and environmental influence of the private automobile on Los Angeles. John Steinbeck’s *Harvest Gypsies* (a nonfiction account that helped inform his later writing of *Grapes of Wrath*) provides students with insight into the experience of California’s migrant farm workers during the Great Depression.

World War II and the Early Postwar Era in California

The next unit asks simply **How did World War II impact California?** The war drove the state’s economy and reshaped California’s demographics and environment. The federal government poured billions of defense dollars into California during World War II, pulling the state out of economic depression and drawing a tremendous number of new residents in search of work. Women and African Americans found well-paid work building ships and airplanes.

So many employees flocked to the Los Angeles and Bay Area defense hubs that housing was in desperately low supply. Suburbs began to sprout from these two metropolitan areas, transforming the countryside. One-time farms, orchards, and ranches were paved over in the housing boom, and thousands of miles of new highways snaked through the state in the decades after the war. Heavy industry and numerous passenger cars meant that air pollution choked Los Angeles residents as early as the 1940s.

In 1962, California surpassed New York as the most populous state. Such growth meant a new investment in the state’s infrastructure, including the California State Water Project to supply irrigation and drinking water. To educate the baby boomers growing up after the war, the state invested heavily in K–12 schools and created the California Master Plan for Higher Education in 1960 to ensure a college or university education for all qualified students. California

universities helped conduct the defense research that funded California's aeronautics industry during the Cold War.

A strong economy undergirded a growing middle class made up of people who enjoyed a suburban lifestyle in California, complete with family trips to the beach, numerous state and national parks, and Disneyland.

Not everyone was welcome to participate in this good life, however. During the war, California breached civil rights in supporting the internment of Japanese Americans under Executive Order 9066, despite a lack of evidence that any of them had been disloyal. Hispanic youths in Los Angeles felt the sting of discrimination at the hands of American servicemen who prompted the Zoot Suit riots in 1943. African Americans may have found good jobs in the defense industry, but few neighborhoods were open to them, as homeowners and banks found ways to deny entry for these nonwhites.

World War II made California, which was already a popular state, absolutely explode in growth. With this came certain growing pains that would be made more visible during the 1960s civil rights movement.

Grade Nine Classroom Example: California's Growth

Mr. Basara's students are studying the growth of California's population and economy after World War II, using the following chart:

	1930	1940	1950	1960
California population	5,677,251	6,907,387	10,586,223	15,717,204
Federal defense spending in California	\$191 million (all federal money to California)	Approx. \$6 billion (1941)	\$3,897,915	\$5,276,760
Gallons of gas consumed in California	1,139,736,244	(no data, war rationing)	2,878,300,000	5,372,800,000

Example *(continued)*

Mr. Basara directs his students to first give their initial impressions of the data by asking them to discuss the following questions in pairs or groups of three:

- What strikes you? What, in particular, do you notice?
- What patterns or trends do you see?
- What surprises you or what questions do you have about the data?

As his students discuss their answers, Mr. Basara circulates around the classroom to answer questions, clarify information, and make sure that all students are engaged in the analysis. After students have had enough time for these initial conversations, he asks selected students to share their small-group conversations to make sure everyone understands the chart and has had an opportunity to begin to consider its implications.

Next, Mr. Basara asks his students to discuss a new set of questions, ones that require more analysis and critical thought:

- Broadly speaking, how would you describe what was happening in California from 1930 to 1960?
- Why did California attract new residents? What could it offer to them?
- What is significant about so much defense spending in the state?
- What do these numbers tell you about the impact on the environment? Specifically, which resources were being used and/or stressed?
- What else do you want to know about the state during these decades?
- Which areas grew the fastest or the most during this era? What industries dominated in which parts of the state?

As with the previous set of questions, Mr. Basara circulates throughout the individual discussions, making sure each student has the opportunity to share an interpretation, and selectively calling on individual students to share the conversations with their partners.

Example *(continued)*

For an extension activity, Mr. Basara asks students to complete further research to compile county-by-county population numbers, compare growth in a variety of California-based industries and military expenditures in order to craft both a general answer and local examples in response to the question **How and why did California grow between 1930 and 1960?** They compile the information in a multimedia presentation for their classmates, other teachers, and community members at an annual open house event at their school.

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12): Chronological and Spatial Thinking 2, 3; Historical Interpretation 1

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.9–10.3, 7, WHST.9–10.6, 7, 9, SL.9–10.1

Throughout this unit, students may consult a variety of works about the hardships faced by minorities in this era, including Chester Himes' *If He Hollers Let Him Go*, a fictional account of the trouble a black man faced working in the defense industry during the war. *Desert Exile* by Yoshiko Uchida is an autobiographical account of a young woman and her family forced to move to the Manzanar internment camp during the war. Meanwhile, Jade Snow Wong's autobiography *Fifth Chinese Daughter* chronicles her childhood in San Francisco's Chinatown and the promising work opportunities this young Chinese woman found during World War II. Articles and magazines from the 1950s and 1960s (including *Time*, *Life*, and *Look*) featured the astounding growth and cultural developments taking place in California in the early postwar period.

Diversity and Limits: California in the Late Cold War Era

California had a tumultuous time in the latter part of the century. This unit's guiding question is **What did protests and frustrations expressed by Californians in the late Cold War Era reveal about the state?** The civil rights movement of the 1960s brought attention to the discrimination faced by Hispanic farm workers, while Native Americans sought opportunities after generations of prejudice, and blacks protested against the heavy hand of racism in housing, employment, and educational options. California's diversity increased only after President Johnson's immigration act of 1965, opening the door to increasingly large numbers of immigrants from Asia and Central America.

To better understand the Civil Rights Movement in California, students may investigate and prepare a short report on a civil rights activist. For example, students can research Cesar Chavez, Black Panther Party leaders Bobby Seale and Huey Newton, Free Speech Movement leader Mario Savio, or Alcatraz Occupation organizer Richard Oakes. There are countless others who may be selected for study. Students write a report that explains (1) what motivated this person to become a civil rights activist, (2) what goals he or she sought to achieve, and (3) what challenges this person or movement faced.

The national conservative turn in the latter part of the century was reflected in California's anti-tax initiative. Rising property values led to rapidly rising property taxes, and in response a majority of voters across the state supported Proposition 13 in 1978. The anti-tax initiative reduced property taxes and thereby caused an immediate and long-lasting decrease in funding for schools, emergency services, parks, highways, and much more. Students can learn more about this era through Proposition 13 campaign literature that reveals the frustration felt by many homeowners during the 1970s.

California students, now more ethnically diverse than they had been in generations, attended poorly funded schools. By 1986 California had more students per teacher than any other state.

As the Cold War drew to a close by 1990, the federal government cut back funding to California's aeronautics industry and closed multiple military bases throughout the state. Teachers may want to use excerpts from Joan Didion's *Where I Was From* to help students understand the impact of the end of the Cold War in California. During this era, Californians expressed considerable pessimism about the current status of the state and its future. Apathy set in, and a remarkably small number of voters turned out at the polls during these years.

Global California

The final unit asks **In what directions is California growing in the twenty-first century?** In the latter part of the twentieth century, California established itself as a leader in electronics, computers, aerospace, and bioengineering. These industries, which depend on the ingenuity of the state's diverse population, complement long-established industries such as agriculture, tourism, and entertainment, all of which

capitalize on the state's natural resources, fertility, and remarkable scenery. Together, these various sectors make California the nation's largest state economy and the world's eighth-largest economy (as of 2013).

The state's geographic position, situated on the Pacific Rim, places it in a strategic location with access to important Mexican and Asian markets. This same geographic position means that California continues to attract immigrants from many countries of the Pacific Rim. Teachers may want to use *A History of Silicon Valley* by Arun Rao, to explain why California was conducive to this sort of innovation, including its strong universities, long-time defense-related research, and its diverse population.

Students can study recent immigration to California, foreshadowing their studies on immigration in eleventh-grade United States history. Students may analyze the push-and-pull factors that contributed to shifting immigration patterns, but they should also learn about changes in immigration policy. Propositions 187, 209, and 227 attacked illegal immigration, affirmative action, and bilingual education. Although all provisions of Proposition 187 were blocked by federal courts except for one, throughout the 1990s and even more so after the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, Congress provided for increased border enforcement. By the 2000s, the status of Mexican Americans and Mexican immigration became a national political discussion. In California, Latino/as became the largest ethnic group in 2010, and Latino/a children comprised more than 51 percent of the enrollment in public schools. It was in this context that the Latino/a community became increasingly politically active.

California has become a national leader in environmental protection. Increasingly, in the late twentieth century, the state sought to balance economic growth alongside resource protection to sustain an ecosystem for the people, flora, and fauna of the state. California has enacted numerous measures to protect against air and water pollution and protects the coastal habitat through the California Coastal Commission. Students may analyze tourist statistics from the California Visitor Bureau to understand the ongoing popularity of California among domestic and international travelers.

Physical Geography

- How do the Earth’s systems operate independently and in relationship to one another, and what has this meant for humans over time?

Physical geography is the study of natural features and processes on or near the surface of the planet. Geographic inquiry also includes study of the human presence on the earth, the nature of the environment, and both the impact of humans on the environment and the impact of the environment on humans.

This study should include coverage of the Environmental Principles and Concepts adopted as part of the California Education and the Environment Initiative (see appendix G). Whereas geography provides an understanding of the world, its people, and the human footprint on the Earth, physical geographers examine the use of resources such as water, oil, the patterns and processes of climate and weather, and ways in which humanity has modified the natural environment.

As explained by the National Council for the Social Studies’ C3 Framework (2013, 40), understanding geography requires “deep knowledge of Earth’s physical and human features, including the locations of places and regions, the distribution of landforms and water bodies, and historic changes in political boundaries, economic activities, and cultures.” Guiding questions for this course are **How do the Earth’s systems operate independently and in relationship to one another, and What has this meant for humans over time?**

Technological advances have made it possible to map beneath the surface of the earth and to increase understanding of the processes taking place beneath and above the surface. As students investigate these processes, they gain insight into the extent to which the “world is a set of complex ecosystems interacting at multiple scales that structure the spatial patterns and processes that influence our daily lives” (ibid.).

Students can utilize geospatial technologies to map the various natural features in a given region, paying attention to how one system influences another. What is the impact of the ocean on the nearby land? What climatic influence does a mountain range have on the valley below? What does fresh water make possible within a watershed? What flora exists in different climatic and topographic

regions? What activity cannot be seen but is an important influence nevertheless, like seismic or volcanic activity? Student maps should encompass many layers of information.

The environment is not static but changes over time for natural and human-driven reasons. Deforestation is quite visible and creates consequences relating to air quality and watershed and soil health, all of which impact the options available to humans and animals in that habitat. Additional environmental changes include soil degradation, air and water pollution, and invasion of nonnative species. Broadly speaking, climate change causes multiple consequences—from rising sea levels to new weather patterns—that reshape the Earth’s geography.

An investigative project for students may include mapping a state or a nation to learn about various types of landforms, climatic zones, the influence of bodies of water, distribution of flora and fauna, and other physical geographic features, all with an eye toward what opportunities and challenges this presents to the human population in that specific location. One such project may involve a look at California’s remarkable geographic diversity, with its 1200 miles of coastline, numerous rugged mountain ranges, fertile valleys created by sediments washed from the Sierra Nevada, and desert regions.



There is more climatic and topographic variation in California than in any other area of comparable size in the United States. There are 24 different climatic zones in California, while most states have four or fewer. Annual precipitation is over 120 inches in the northwest part of the state, while other parts of the state have no measurable precipitation in a year. Subzero temperatures for many days are common in the Sierra, and Death Valley is on record with the highest official air temperature recorded in the Western Hemisphere—134 degrees.

By studying California’s geography, students may reflect on the economic opportunities created by the state’s natural diversity and abundance, such as agriculture, tourism, and extractive industries. These opportunities have created an enormous population—the largest of any state, and nearly one-eighth of the

nation's total—that has resulted in certain environmental challenges such as a scarcity of fresh water. While California has a dramatic geography, similar projects on different regions (perhaps an ancestral project, on their family's country of origin) can provide students with valuable insights. Examining these opportunities and challenges will provide students with knowledge of the interplay between Earth's physical geography and human endeavors.

Helpful data for this investigation may be found at online sites such as NASA's Socioeconomic Data and Applications Center, Natural Earth, and the CIA's World Factbook, all of which provide global data. The U.S. Census Bureau provides domestic geographic information. The California Education and the Environment Initiative Web site hosts a number of curriculum units that cover geographic and natural resource material.

Survey of World Religions

- What do people believe, what practices do they follow as a result of their beliefs, and why is it important to understand these various religions?

This course covers different contemporary faiths and examines their development, their impact throughout history, and their continuing influence on today's world affairs. Students will think about and discuss the ways in which different individuals and groups have explained the relationship between human beings and the divine as well as the differences and similarities among the varieties of belief systems.

Guiding questions for the course are **What do people believe, what practices do they follow as a result of their beliefs, and why is it important to understand these various religions?** In a country founded on religious freedom, and in the state of California where there is remarkable religious diversity, students benefit from gaining knowledge of the world's major faiths. This knowledge has the potential to foster tolerance among students of different faith backgrounds, as well as to provide insight into history and current events.

As the course begins, students are asked to review the important protections for religious freedom outlined in the First Amendment to the Constitution and the California State Constitution. Class norms are established that both protect an individual's right to believe (or not) and respect and protect that right for others.

The teacher clarifies that the goal of the class is not to teach or promote religion, but rather, to learn about religion. The instructional approach is academic, not devotional (see appendix F).

Students are introduced to the origins, geographic location, culture, ideas, texts, practices, and key personalities of the world’s major religions. Beyond the belief system associated with each religion, students will also discuss and develop an understanding of the following:

- The classical expressions, historical development, and cultural variations within each tradition
- The present-day numbers, influence, and geographic distribution of followers in each faith
- The diversity of beliefs and practices presently associated with contemporary expressions of these religions

A course activity may include having students investigate and develop a report on a particular religion that includes its faith system, its history, its geography, and its variations. Ideally, students will choose a religion of which they have limited prior knowledge and interview a person of that faith.

Students present their findings to the class, followed by a roundtable

discussion on the similarities and differences among religions, speculation on why and how different societies have nurtured these faiths, and what it means to live in a society with government-protected religious freedom.

Helpful resources include *The Usborne Encyclopedia of World Religions*; the University of Calgary, Canada, which hosts a Web site with links to major religious texts; *Experiencing the World’s Religions*, an online textbook that includes quizzes and study guides; and a biography of Roger Williams, who promoted religious freedom in the colony of Rhode Island.



The Humanities

- What does the evidence reveal about how an individual understands, justifies, and orders his/her own existence, role in society, and relationship to the cosmos and the divine?

Courses in the humanities focus on the human experience and explore the various ways in which human beings affect and express their relationship to their physical, intellectual, social, and political environments. This course focuses on how people across space and time have sought to understand the world and the individual's place in it. Students examine works of literature, visual and performing arts, architecture, music, philosophy, and religion within their specific stylistic and historical contexts to answer the following question: **What does the evidence reveal about how an individual understands, justifies, and orders his/her own existence, role in society, and relationship to the cosmos and the divine?**

These various representations will be best understood when placed in their historical context and embedded in their respective cultural and social norms and values. Students will be challenged to set aside their own conceptions when they consider what conditions made possible the particular piece of art, literature, and so forth. Was it created during a time of war? What was the role and power of religion in the artist's society? What contact and exposure did the artist's society have with other regions of the world? These questions and many others can help students look beyond the surface of a given work. And exposure to global examples will enable students to form a broad perspective from which to evaluate and analyze each piece. This broad view will also allow students to see how works from one society influenced or built off developments from other societies.

Classical texts such as *The Odyssey*, the *Bhagavad Gita*, the *Aeneid* by Vergil, *Antigone* by Sophocles, the *Analects* by Confucius, the *Sri Guru Granth Sahib*, *Ramayana*, *Upanishads*, Greek myths, the *Torah* and *Hebrew Bible*, the *Qur'an*, and the *Christian Bible* are all good starting points.

From the Middle Ages through the early modern era, Urdu poetry, Chaucer and Shakespeare's texts, Islamic architecture like Alhambra, or Hindu architecture such as Cambodia's Angkor Wat (which later became a Buddhist temple), West African iron regalia, and monuments and basketry from indigenous groups in the Americas all provide insight into earlier times.

Modern representations include writings from Descartes, Thomas Paine, Chinua Achebe, Lu Xun, Leo Tolstoy, Bel Kaufman, Maya Angelou, Erich Maria Remarque, and Isabel Allende; art by Pablo Picasso, Frida Kahlo, and Andy Warhol; and music ranging from Mozart to Woody Guthrie’s compositions all shed light on the diverse aspects of the human experience.

By reading, discussing, and writing about ideas and artifacts, students will improve their ability to understand and articulate their own interests and responsibilities in the present world. Students’ writing should serve as an expressive response to the work of others as well as a major way of forming their own ideas. Teachers may foster critical thinking through the use of graphic organizers and guiding questions.

Through these varied approaches to the study of humanities, teachers will not only promote critical thinking, but also enable students to comprehend and distinguish between different values, past and present, as well as empathize with the motivations and intentions of others. Students will also be able to respond intuitively and creatively to the historical kinds of human expressions that have laid the foundation for both American and other societies as they exist today.

To get to this point, teachers can arrange field trips to museums and, as a culminating project, students can curate an exhibit for their school or local library. Each student prepares an item for display (a copy of a work of art, architecture, music lyrics, a passage from a novel or film script, and the like) that is representative of his/her society. Students provide a written explanation of how this item provides insight into his/her society.

Anthropology

- Why are people who they are, and why do they do what they do?

This course introduces students to the field of anthropology. Anthropology examines the diversity of human experience through time and across the globe. Four subfields in the discipline all provide a holistic approach to the study of humankind. Physical anthropology examines genetic variation and cultural evolution. Linguistic anthropology studies the role language plays in both the development of and expression of culture. Archaeology focuses on cultures and civilizations of the past through the close analysis of material and human remains.

Cultural anthropology examines the range of systems, practices, and customs that are characteristic of communities in the contemporary world. This course emphasizes the value of human diversity and encourages students to appreciate human difference in all of its complexity. Guiding questions for the course are **Why are people who they are? Why do they do what they do?**

The course begins with an introduction to evolution, genetics, human variations and adaptation; goes on to explore the earliest evidence of human life; examines hunter-gatherer societies and early agriculture; looks at the development of cities and political states and systems; considers religion, marriage and family, artistic expressions; and concludes with an examination of the modern world and the

variation of cultures, religions, work, recreation, and art, as well as the shared experiences across cultures.

Possible student assignments for anthropological study may include naturalistic observations, an analysis of one's own culture, or a family genealogy project. Useful sources include UNESCO's World Heritage Convention Web site for images and descriptions of World Heritage sites,

Charles Darwin's Library online, and the Smithsonian's National Anthropological Archives of diverse materials from the four fields of anthropology.



Psychology

- What principles govern and affect an individual's perception, ability to learn, motivation, intelligence, and personality?

This course introduces students to the scientific study of human behavior including human thought, emotion, and actions. Psychology is an empirical science that studies biological and social bases of behavior. A guiding question for the course is **What principles govern and affect an individual's perception, ability to learn, motivation, intelligence, and personality?** A wide range of topics or issues such as perception, memory, emotional influences, personality, social interaction, development, and abnormal behavior will be covered.

Course objectives include:

- Identifying and describing key psychologists' contributions to the field
- Explaining how psychological research is conducted
- Evaluating test standardization, reliability, and validity
- Explaining the cognitive, physiological, and moral developments of the human life span
- Describing the parts and functions of the brain
- Explaining the principles and techniques of classical and operant conditioning
- Identifying and explaining cognitive psychology theories
- Explaining views of intelligence
- Evaluating the major personality theories
- Examining psychological disorders along with their causes, varieties, and various forms of psychotherapy treatments
- Examining universal emotions and culturally determined ways of expressing them, including how they relate to psychological stress and accompanying physiological responses.¹

The study of psychology contributes to an improved ability to think critically, to identify and solve problems associated with human behavior, and to work effectively in groups. Students may benefit from an internship or volunteer opportunity with local nonprofits serving teens or counseling centers. A culminating course project might include development of a handbook for teens outlining effective interpersonal relationship tools, what these look like, how to work to achieve them, and pitfalls to avoid. The American Psychological Association Web site hosts a K–12 Education page with curriculum materials, sample syllabi including recommended texts, and national standards for teaching high school psychology.

1. Course objectives adapted from two syllabi found at <http://www.apa.org/education/k12/sample-pacing-calendars.aspx> and http://www.cusd4.org/pages/uploaded_files/psych%20-%20swigert.pdf (accessed April 13, 2017).

Sociology

- What external forces shape people’s lives and make them who they are?

This course introduces students to the sociological perspective on human behavior. The sociological perspective emphasizes the influence of people on one another, social norms, opportunities, and constraints in affecting human behavior. A guiding question for the course is **What external forces shape people’s lives and make them who they are?** Sociologists use a scientific approach with systematic methods and clear measurements to test hypotheses about people and how they interact with each other. Students will learn how sociologists conduct research and will study those experts’ major findings on substantive topics. Students will also learn how to create their own hypotheses about human behavior.

Students who complete a course in sociology will be able to define and apply core concepts in the field. Key learning goals include learning to think through the lens of social structure and culture—the sociological perspective; using scientific methods to research and assess society; developing critical thinking skills; understanding and identifying structural inequality, including prejudice and discrimination; and engaging in meaningful contributions to society. Students will be encouraged to analyze and explain face-to-face interactions (for example, how cultural norms affect how one feels) and large-scale forces (for example, why some countries have greater wealth inequality than others).² An understanding of complex sociological phenomena will enable students to better understand themselves and the world around them.

Students in a sociology class may investigate a question related to their school or lives, such as what causes students to drop out or join a gang. Students may craft suggested policies for the school administration or the school board to reduce the dropout rate.

Another activity may include having students evaluate census data for their community/census tract in order to understand the socioeconomic variables that define that community. Important census categories include occupation, industry,

2. Learning goals were adapted from the American Sociological Association Web site: <http://www.asanet.org/introsociology/Documents/Comparison%20of%20learning%20goals%20chart%20pdf.pdf> (Accessed April 13, 2017).

race, income, poverty rates, household size, and home ownership/rental rates. Students can evaluate what sort of home their community offers based on these socioeconomic factors.

After compiling the data, students can compare and contrast this information with data from a second community with a distinct socioeconomic makeup. Such a comparison will provide students with valuable evidence for evaluating social opportunities and challenges. The American Sociological Association Web site hosts an introduction to sociology page with teaching resources, including lesson plans, assessment tools, and recommended resources.

Women in United States History

- How did American women shape the nation's history?

This course focuses on the history of women in the United States. Historical inquiry over the past four decades has increasingly expanded the focus to include individuals and groups that had previously been omitted or marginalized in the narrative of America's historical past. This course examines key aspects of women's experiences from the founding of the 13 American colonies through the beginning of the twenty-first century. Themes or issues of significance include the following:

- The traditional and nontraditional roles of women, gender identity, and division of labor and society along gender lines
- The impact of race, ethnicity, class, sexuality, and religion on women. For example, students can study the opportunities open to women from wealthy families (as well as the limitations) as opposed to the challenges and opportunities faced by women who come from relatively poor and uneducated families. Discussions should include the way ethnic origins and membership in formal religious organizations affect the way in which women are viewed and treated.
- The contributions of women to the political system, both before and after they were able to vote and hold political office
- Women and the educational, social, and economic systems in the United States, including the role of women during the Industrial Revolution

- Women’s involvement in and contribution to abolitionism, the Seneca Falls Convention and women’s rights movement, suffrage, feminism, Prohibition, progressive movement, labor movement, health reform, civil rights movement, and the Equal Rights Amendment
- Women during times of conflict including the American Revolution, the Civil War, World War I, World War II, the Korean War, the Vietnam War, the Cold War, and the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan
- Female scientists, entrepreneurs, intellectuals, writers, and artists and their influence on society
- Women’s health and access to medical care
- Gender discrimination today

To deepen students understanding of women in society, students can research female leaders in government and industry to develop an online museum exhibit detailing the contributions and achievements in American society.

Ethnic Studies

- How have race and ethnicity been constructed in the United States, and how have they changed over time?
- How do race and ethnicity continue to shape the United States and contemporary issues?

Ethnic studies is an interdisciplinary field of study that encompasses many subject areas including history, literature, economics, sociology, anthropology, and political science. It emerged to both address content considered missing from traditional curriculum and to encourage critical engagement.

As a field, ethnic studies seeks to empower all students to engage socially and politically and to think critically about the world around them. It is important for ethnic studies courses to document the experiences of people of color in order for students to construct counter-narratives and develop a more complex understanding of the human experience. Through these studies, students should develop respect for cultural diversity and see the advantages of inclusion.

Because of the interdisciplinary nature of this field, ethnic studies courses may take several forms. However, central to any ethnic studies course is the historic struggle of communities of color, taking into account the intersectionality of identity (gender, class, sexuality, among others), to challenge racism, discrimination, and oppression and interrogate the systems that continue to perpetuate inequality. From a history–social science perspective, students may study the history and culture of a single, historically racialized group in the United States. Examples may include a course on African American, Asian American, or Chicana/o and Latina/o history.

The course could also focus on an in-depth comparative study of the history, politics, culture, contributions, challenges, and current status of two or more racial or ethnic groups in the United States. This course could, for example, concentrate on how these groups experienced the process of racial and ethnic formation in a variety of contexts and how these categories changed over time. The relationship between global events and an ethnic or racial group’s experience could be another area of study. In this vein, students could study how World War II drew African Americans from the South to California cities like Oakland and Los Angeles or examine a group’s transnational linkages. Alternatively, a course could focus in on the local community and examine the interactions and coalition-building among a number of ethnic and/or racial groups. In an ethnic studies course, students will become aware of the constant themes of social justice and responsibility, while recognizing these are defined differently over time.

As identity and the use of power are central to ethnic studies courses, instructors should demonstrate a willingness to reflect critically on their own perspective and personal histories as well as engage students as co-investigators in the inquiry process. A wide range of sources (e.g., literature, memoirs, art, music, oral histories) and remnants of popular culture can be utilized to better understand the experiences of historically disenfranchised groups—Native Americans, African Americans, Chicana/o and Latina/o, and Asian Americans. At the same time, students should be aware of how the different media have changed over time and how that has shaped the depiction of the different groups.

Models of instruction should be student-centered. For example, students could develop research questions based on their lived experiences in order to critically study their communities. Reading and studying multiple perspectives,



participating in community partnerships, collecting oral histories, completing service-learning projects, or engaging in Youth Participatory Action Research can all serve as effective instructional approaches for this course.

Teachers can organize their instruction around a variety of themes, such as the movement to create

ethnic studies courses in universities; personal explorations of students' racial, ethnic, cultural, and national identities; the history of racial construction, both domestically and internationally; and the influence of the media on the framing and formation of identity. Students can investigate the history of the experience of various ethnic groups in the United States, as well as the diversity of these experiences based on race, gender, and sexuality, among other identities.

To study these themes, students can consider a variety of investigative questions, including large, overarching questions about the definitions of ethnic studies as a field of inquiry, economic and social class in American society, social justice, social responsibility, and social change. They can ask how race has been constructed in the United States and other parts of the world. They can investigate the relationship between race, gender, sexuality, social class, and economic and political power. They can explore the nature of citizenship by asking how various groups have become American and examining cross-racial and inter-ethnic interactions among immigrants, migrants, people of color, and working people. They can investigate the legacies of social movements and historic struggles against injustice in California, the Southwest, and the United States as a whole and study how different social movements for people of color, women, and lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) communities have mutually informed each other.

Students can also personalize their study by considering how their personal and/or family stories connect to the larger historical narratives and how and why some narratives have been privileged over others. Lastly, students may consider how to improve their own community, what constructive actions can be taken,

and whether they provide a model for change for those in other parts of the state, country, and world.

Ethnic Studies Classroom Example: Local History

Ms. Martinez teaches social studies at a large, urban high school. The student population of the school where Ms. Martinez teaches comprises mostly first- and second-generation Latino/a students. The majority of her students are English learners (ELs) and receive free and reduced-price school meals. Recently, Ms. Martinez's school district adopted a measure that required all students to take at least one ethnic studies course prior to graduating high school. The purpose of this measure was to increase student engagement, learning outcomes, and personal growth. Throughout the course, students have engaged in various activities that are relevant to their lives and that promote historical literacy, social justice, and personal empowerment.

Currently, Ms. Martinez's students are engaging in a local history unit. The class has read primary and secondary sources focused on migrations into their community. Students engaged in a seminar-style discussion centered on their personal identities and explored how their family histories have been impacted by these migrations. During these discussions, students used evidence from written sources such as policy regulations, as well as maps and artwork, to support claims they made related to the topic. Her students have also investigated the modern history of their neighborhood. Issues such as "redlining" and other policies that resulted in both "white flight" and the concentration of communities of color into certain neighborhoods have been explored.

Ms. Martinez has developed an assessment connected to the unit's guiding questions: **What is the story of our community? How and why is the story of our community important? How does the story of our community connect to my personal story? In what ways have members of my community engaged in political activism?** To answer these guiding questions students engaged in an oral history project that required them to interview at least two people who engaged in community activism during the 1960s and/or 1970s. The first part of the final assessment was designed for students to write a historical narrative that provides insights into the life and activism of the

Example *(continued)*

people who were interviewed as well as contextualizes their story. These papers have been submitted to Ms. Martinez.

Today, Ms. Martinez's students do the final part of their assessment. They present their oral history projects to their classmates. Ms. Martinez has required all students to create a slide deck presentation that lasts a total of five to seven minutes. She developed a slide deck template that was e-mailed to all her students. She allowed students to create their presentations in class and for homework over the course of three days.

Ms. Martinez emphasized that students tell a story and not merely read their slide decks verbatim. She encouraged the use of imagery and limited text as a way to enhance the story her students will tell. She modeled what a good slide deck presentation looks like and answered questions related to the project. During these presentations, students practice the protocols they were taught. Audience members clap before and after each presentation and take Cornell Notes during the presentation. The presenters maintain good eye contact with the audience and do their best to avoid reading directly from the slides. In the future, Ms. Martinez hopes to compile her students' oral histories into an anthology.

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12): Chronological and Spatial Thinking 3; Historical Interpretation 1

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.9–10.1, 3, 8, 10, WHST.9–10.2, 4, 6, 7, SL.9–10.1, 4, 5, 6

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.9–10.1, 5, 9, 10a

Law-Related Education

- How can the legal system protect civil rights and promote justice in American society?

In this course, students should gain a practical understanding of the law and the legal system that have been developed under the United States Constitution and Bill of Rights. They should become aware of current issues and controversies relating to law and the legal system and be encouraged to participate as citizens in the legal process. Students should be given opportunities to consider their attitudes toward the roles that lawyers, law enforcement officers, and others in the legal

system play in American society. In addition, students should be exposed to the many career opportunities that exist in the legal system.

The course includes a study of concepts underlying the law as well as an introduction to the origin and development of the legal system, including civil and criminal law. In a unit on civic rights and responsibilities, students should learn about the rights guaranteed by the First, Fourth, Fifth, Sixth, Eighth, and Fourteenth Amendments. In a unit on education law, students should study the growing role of the courts in influencing school policy and practice. Mock trials and other simulated legal procedures, together with the use of resource experts, should help students understand this area.

Financial Literacy

- How can I best manage my money to make sure I have enough to reach my financial goals?

A survey released in February 2008 by Dartmouth College and Harvard University researchers found that only 35 percent of respondents were able to correctly estimate how interest compounds over time; more than half of respondents did not understand how minimum payments are calculated and applied to a principal balance; and almost none of the respondents understood the financial difference between paying in monthly installments versus one lump sum at the end of a certain time period.

The financial crisis that began in the United States in July 2007 and led to a global recession reveals the dangers of a society in which many citizens do not understand basic financial principles. This elective course provides students with financial literacy skills to prepare them for the economic realities and responsibilities of adults in American society.

The course includes information about earning an income. Students explore jobs and careers that may be of interest and identify the advantages and disadvantages of different jobs.

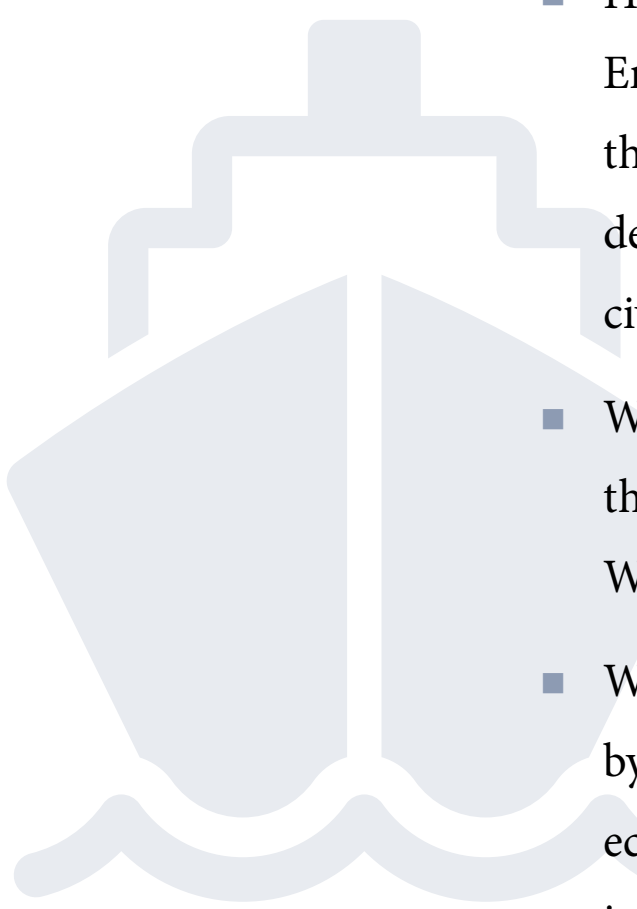


They conduct research on a certain career, finding income paid and human capital required, and use cost–benefit analysis to evaluate postsecondary training and/or education. They look at a pay stub and identify gross income, net income, and the kinds of deductions that are involved. They learn about fixed and variable expenses and develop a budget for a high school graduate living on her/his own, recognizing scarcity, alternatives, choice and opportunity cost. Students learn to apply cost–benefit analysis to decisions that involve comparison shopping.

They discuss the advantages and disadvantages of saving and learn about “paying yourself first” and the power of compound interest. Students learn about different types of financial institutions, the services they provide, and the advantages and disadvantages of using these services. Students learn to evaluate wise and unwise credit choices. They discover how credit works, the impact of interest rates, the dollar amount of monthly payments on the length of the loan, and the total amount paid. They learn about the criteria that a lender uses to evaluate a loan application, including credit scores. They learn about state and federal laws related to personal finance (e.g., bankruptcy). They understand the investment risk/reward trade-off. They use online calculators to investigate mortgage loans, retirement funds, and other interest-related calculations. Students learn the dangers of identity theft and ways to minimize the risk of such thefts.

CHAPTER 15

World History, Culture, and Geography: The Modern World

- 
- How did ideas associated with the Enlightenment, the Scientific Revolution, the Age of Reason, and a variety of democratic revolutions develop and impact civil society?
 - Why did imperial powers seek to expand their empires? How did colonies respond? What were the legacies of these conquests?
 - Why was the modern period defined by global conflict and cooperation, economic growth and collapse, and global independence and connection?

The tenth-grade course covers a period of more than 250 years and highlights the intensification of a truly global history as people, products, diseases, knowledge, and ideas spread around the world as never before. The course begins with a turning point: the important transition in European systems of governance from divine monarchy to a modern definition of a nation-state organized around principles of the Enlightenment. The course ends with the present, providing ample opportunities for teachers to make connections to the globalized world in which students live.

As students move through the years 1750 through the present, they consider how a modern system of communication and exchange drew peoples of the world into an increasingly complex network of relationships in which Europe and the United States exerted great military and economic power. They explore how people, goods, ideas, and capital traveled throughout and between Asia, Africa, the Americas, and Europe. They analyze the results of these exchanges. The ability to see connections between events and larger social, economic, and political trends may be developed by having students consider the most fundamental changes of the era:

- The intensification of the movement toward a global market aided by rapid transportation of goods around the world, powerful international financial institutions, and instantaneous communication
- The emergence of industrial production as the dominant economic force that shaped the world economy and created a related culture of consumption
- Increasing human impact on the natural and physical environment through the growth in world population, especially urban settings where populations engaged in mass consumption through mechanical and chemical developments related to the Industrial Revolution
- Imperial expansion across the globe and the growth of nation-states as the most common form of political organization
- The application of industrial technology and scientific advancements to the development of mechanized warfare, which drew millions of people into the experience of “total war”

- The conflict between economic and political systems that defined the post-World War II period
- The emergence of ideas of universal rights and popular sovereignty for all individuals, regardless of gender, class, religion, or race, which spread around the world

The content covered in grade ten is expansive, and the discipline-specific skills to be taught are equally demanding. In order to highlight significant developments, trends, and events, teachers should use guiding questions around which their curriculum may be organized. Organizing content around questions of historical significance allows students to develop their understanding of that content in greater depth. The questions also allow teachers the leeway to prioritize the content and highlight particular skills through students' investigations of the past.

Moreover, through an in-depth study of individual events and people, students can trace the development of even larger themes, such as the quest for liberty and justice, the influence and redefinition of national identity, and the rights and responsibilities of individual citizens. The following questions can frame the year-long content for tenth grade: **How did ideas associated with the Enlightenment, the Scientific Revolution, the Age of Reason, and a variety of democratic revolutions develop and impact civil society? Why did imperial powers seek to expand their empires? How did colonies respond? What were the legacies of these conquests? Why was the modern period defined by global conflict and cooperation, economic growth and collapse, and global independence and connection?**

As students learn about modern world history, they should be encouraged to develop reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills that will enhance their understanding of the content. As in earlier grades, students should be taught that history is an investigative discipline, one that is continually reshaped based on primary-source research and on new perspectives that can be uncovered. Students should be encouraged to read multiple primary and secondary sources; to understand multiple perspectives; to learn about how some things change over time and others tend not to; and to appreciate that each historical era has its own context. It is up to the student of history to make sense of the past on these terms and by asking questions about it.

The World in 1750

- How were most societies organized in the 1700s?
- Who held power in the 1700s? Why?
- What was the divine right of kings?

Students begin tenth-grade world history with a survey of the world in 1750. This question can frame students' initial explorations: **How were most societies organized in the 1700s?** Students analyze maps of the gunpowder empires (Qing China, Mughal India, Ottoman Empire, Safavid Persia, Spain, France, England), trade routes (Atlantic World, Pacific/Indian Ocean, and world trade systems), and colonies.

The teacher explains that in 1750, people were living at the very end of the premodern world. Although there had been many differences in people's experiences depending on their location, culture, and language, certain broad patterns were present in most states and empires.

Most states and empires were ruled by one leader, called a king, tsar, sultan, emperor, shah, or prince. Students may consider comparative questions: **Who held power in the 1700s? Why?** This ruler was usually, but not always, a man who came from a dynasty, a family of rulers. Dynasties changed all the time, when kings were defeated and overthrown, but the winners would then set up a new dynasty under one leader. The tsar or sultan got his legitimacy from his birth into the royal family and the support of religious and political elites. Most emperors claimed that they had been chosen or blessed by divine power and that they ruled on behalf of God to keep order and justice in the society. The question **What was the divine right of kings?** helps students consider the construction of monarchic governments and societies.

Besides the royal family, there were elite groups in that society who had political, military, or religious power, and owned wealth and land. These elite groups went by different names in each state or empire, such as nobles and scholar-officials, but they had privileges—that is, special rights that ordinary people did not have. Elite status was often based on birth. There were not many elites, either, as they constituted about 3 to 5 percent of the population.

Below the elite groups, there was a small middle class. But the majority of people in the world worked as farmers and had little wealth or material possessions, no education, and no political power. The reason that this poor farmers group was so large was because energy, power sources, and technology were limited in the premodern world. Ninety percent of the people had to work full time at farming, spinning thread for cloth, and doing other repetitive manual jobs to produce food, clothing, and shelter for everyone. The only power sources were human, animal, wind, and water. There was enough surplus in the society only for a small percentage of people to have more than basic food, clothing, and shelter.

Dynasties and elite groups defended their power, wealth, and privilege through customs of social order, force, and propaganda. They usually resisted giving power to lower social groups for fear that the nobles or other elites would lose their wealth and privileges. In all societies, customs of social order were hierarchical, meaning that people were unequal. Some people were higher and considered better than ordinary people.

Grade Ten Classroom Example: The Divine Monarch

Ms. Lee's tenth-grade class is learning about the divine monarch by focusing on one key speech that King James I delivered in 1610 to Parliament. Ms. Lee has provided an excerpt of this speech (she found it by searching online for King James I's "Speech to Parliament" and locates the portion that begins with the phrase "The state of Monarchy is the supremest thing upon earth . . ." and continues for the next three paragraphs) because it illustrates the way in which kings were perceived to be divinely inspired, and thus their power was understood to be godlike. She has also selected this speech because it clearly lays out the central claim and supporting details of why King James I felt this way.

Ms. Lee begins her lesson by telling students that they will investigate the question **How did King James I argue that kings are like gods?** After providing brief background information about when and how James came to power, Ms. Lee presents the primary source to students. She tells them that this is a relatively straightforward primary source because King James I makes a claim, supports his claims with reasons, and offers evidence for his reasons and central claim (in much the same way her students would make a claim in an essay).

Example *(continued)*

She directs her students to read through the speech a couple of times, making annotations as they find different claims King James I makes. As they read the speech the first time, they read for the broad claims. As they read it a second time, Ms. Lee tells students to work on filling in the graphic organizer she has created.

The graphic contains boxes in which students are directed to complete the following information: (1) the central claim made by King James I; (2) the reasons for his central claim; (3) the evidence he provides to illustrate his reasons; (4) the flaw in his reasons.

After students complete the graphic, she facilitates table discussions, then whole-class discussions, to confirm that the students understand the way in which King James I constructs his argument and that the central flaw lies in his central claim. Ms. Lee then asks them to work in pairs to construct a paragraph response to this central question: **How did King James I argue that kings are like gods?**

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.9–10.1, 2, 5, 8, WHST.9–10.2, 7, 9

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.9–10.6b, 7, 8, 11a; ELD.PII.9–10.1

1750–1917: Revolutions Reshape the World

Democratic Revolutions

- How were enlightened ideas a break from the past?
- How did the “social contract” affect ordinary people?
- What are individual or natural rights? Who received those rights in the eighteenth century?
- Why did civic reformers argue for representative governments?
- What were the consequences of trying to implement political revolutionary ideas in Europe, Latin America, and North America?
- How do the French, American, and Haitian Revolutions compare to one another?

■ How is national identity constructed?

The eighteenth century witnessed the development of two revolutionary trends that ultimately influenced the world in ways that are still felt today: political and industrial revolutions. Before students learn about the on-the-ground experiences and consequences of these two revolutions, they should learn about the ideas that gave rise to them.

Revolutionary political ideals were rooted in notions of Athenian democracy, English constitutional laws, the Enlightenment, and other traditions of European political thought, and they emphasize the rule of law, reason, individual rights, republicanism, and citizenship. These concepts are abstract, and the primary sources that illustrate these concepts are dense and challenging for students to navigate.

When possible, teachers should try to introduce brief excerpts of primary sources or secondary sources that convey meaning in a direct way. Even though principles of political revolutions are challenging to navigate, students should learn the ideas that guided much of modern history before learning about the reality and put them into a comparative context.

The eighteenth-century revolutionary ideas, which influenced much of the world in the modern period, had its origins in Judeo-Christian culture and Greco-Roman philosophy. Both Jewish and Christian scriptures informed ethical beliefs, while Greek philosophers like Plato and Aristotle were concerned with the establishment of the rule of law to prevent tyranny. Roman legal philosophy built on Greek ideas of citizenship—defined as the exercise of one’s talents in the service of the civic community—was necessary to protect the authority of the state. However, authoritarian ideas, such as divine right of kings, the privileged status of nobles and clergy, and rule by elite groups were also traditional concepts drawing on ancient ideas and practices.

In the 1700s, authoritarian institutions and ideas governed every state and empire, and to Europeans in that time, the revolutionary ideas were quite new. This question can frame students’ understanding of revolutionary political ideas: **How were enlightened ideas a break from the past?** For students to understand the significance of concepts such as the rule of law, citizenship, reason, liberty, and property, for example, teachers should present them as a dramatic break from the

past. As students have just finished learning about the seemingly divine power of monarchs, they can begin to see how the new ways of learning and thinking were substantially different. Thus, there is a key tension for teachers: emphasizing what a big break from the past these ideas are, but reminding students that the ideas are rooted in ancient societies. The ideas of equality, representation, and rights were so inspiring to people because they emerged in a world dominated by hierarchy, inequality, and lack of representation and rights.

Revolutionary political ideas were advocated by civic reformers. Some of the most noted civic reformers were John Locke, Thomas Hobbes, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Charles-Louis Montesquieu, and Adam Smith. These men and other Enlightenment thinkers developed the notion of the social contract. Students can consider this question as they investigate the abstract ideas of political revolutionaries: **How did the “social contract” affect ordinary people?** The social contract was an idea stating that members of a society should agree to cooperate for mutual social benefits in pursuit of an ordered society.

One key component of the social contract that students should learn about is that men have natural rights to life, liberty, and property. Although some of these natural rights were not entirely new, they used to apply only to certain privileged classes; civic reformers, however, advocated the idea that all citizens have rights such as equality before the law.

Students can investigate the questions **What are individual or natural rights? Who received those rights in the eighteenth century?** as they trace revolutionary political ideas. In addition, they compare the language employed by leading revolutionary writers: John Locke (whose *Two Treatises of Government* will help students understand the connection between the Enlightenment and revolutions), Thomas Jefferson (whose words from the American Declaration of Independence will prove useful), James Madison (whose Virginia Plan at the Constitutional Convention will be useful in teaching students about distribution of power), Mary Wollstonecraft (whose *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* will provide powerful arguments about women’s rights), and Adam Smith (whose *Wealth of Nations* provided the foundation for a market economy and the rights or individuals in that economy).

Students can compare the principles that each writer contributed to these crucial philosophical and political developments. Once students have been introduced to these principles and understand how dramatically different they were from most Europeans' recent past, teachers may have students creatively explain their understanding of the social contract. Students can create political cartoons, perform an original skit, or write a short fictional story to illustrate the main components of the contract.

Students also learn that the social contract, especially the notion of natural rights, gave rise to newer ideas about the purpose of government. This question can frame students' understanding about the relationship between natural rights and government: **Why did civic reformers argue for representative governments?** Civic reformers argued that the people should be the basis of government and that men create governments to protect natural rights. They argued that these rights were inherent in human beings and that it was through the social contract that individuals ceded certain of their inherent rights to the government in return for common benefits such as security, economic regulation, accomplishment of common purposes, and so on. Civic reformers' concern for personal liberty and suspicions about the dangers of tyranny led them to argue for a separation of powers and embrace representative governments of limited power as the ideal form of political organization.

As a foreshadowing of the consequences of these ideas, an extension of this new purpose of government is the notion that if this new republican form of government does not protect individuals' natural rights, then the people have a right to overthrow that government and create a new one in its place.

Grade Ten Classroom Example: Connecting Ancient Philosophies with Revolutionary Political Principles

Ms. Davis' tenth-grade class is in the middle of its political revolution unit. Using the free lesson, "Tyranny and the Rule of Law," from the California History–Social Science Project, she asks her students to consider the unit question: **How did tyranny and the rule of law influence revolutionaries?**

She has provided her students with several primary sources, including writings from Rousseau as well as excerpts from Plato's *The Republic* and

Example *(continued)*

Aristotle’s *Politics*. She wants students to understand how ancient philosophers impacted political revolutionary principles in the 1700s, so she presents them with this secondary source. She directs them to read the directions closely and make annotations in the text accordingly.

Consistent with the directions, Ms. Davis also directs students to read a secondary source, *Ancient Philosophers and the American Revolution*, which provides an overview of the impact of the writing of ancient philosophers on the political revolutionaries. Specifically, it outlines some of the criticisms that political revolutionaries among the American colonists had against the British monarch (king or queen) and how the ideas of writers such as Plato and Aristotle resonated with American leaders such as Thomas Jefferson.

Ms. Davis directs students to put a check mark in the left-hand margin when they identify an explanation of the criticism of monarchs and tyranny, and to put an X in the right-hand margin when they see an explanation of the rule of law. In their groups, students are then asked to discuss where they placed check marks and X’s and explain how these sections help define tyranny and the rule of law. After students share with their tablemates, Ms. Davis directs them to review their choices again; making changes as necessary.

At the end of this activity, Ms. Davis asks students to work in groups and develop brief presentations for the class that address the original question **How did tyranny and the rule of law influence revolutionaries?** Students make claims rooted in the various texts they have read.

Source: Excerpted from “Tyranny and the Rule of Law,” *Curriculum to Support California’s Implementation of the Common Core and English Language Development Standards*. California History–Social Science Project. Copyright ©2014, Regents of the University of California, Davis Campus. For more information or to download the free curriculum: <http://chssp.ucdavis.edu/el-support>.

CA HSS Content Standards: 10.1.2. 10.2.1

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9-12): Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View 4; Historical Interpretation 1

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.9–10.1, 5, 6, 8, SL.9–10.1, 4

CA ELD Standards: ELD.P1.9–10.1, 6a, 7, 8, 9, 11a; ELD.P11.9–10.1

With an understanding of revolutionary political ideas, students can begin to learn about the realities that developed from them. **What were the consequences of trying to implement revolutionary political ideas in Europe, Latin America, and North America?** Political revolutions erupted in North America, Europe, and Latin America in the eighteenth century. Leaders of all of the revolutions espoused liberal, democratic, and constitutional ideologies. In most cases, these leaders were from the *bourgeoisie*, or middle-class; this group was distinct because it was not from the nobility, it tended to hold little power, and it was educated.

Although the aims of these revolutions were realized only partially, the ideas spread throughout the world, inspiring reforms and revolutions across the globe. During this period, aristocratic and mercantilist elites continually challenged the power of monarchs. These conflicts intensified as states increased taxes in an effort to pay the costs of centralizing government administration and rising military expenditures. The Glorious Revolution—when the English Parliament emerged victorious and the authority of the monarch was limited by the rule of law—was an early example of this type of contest.

In contrast, the American, French, Haitian, and Latin American revolutions a century later overthrew monarchic authority altogether. In North America, colonists issued the Declaration of Independence, asserting that all men have “unalienable Rights” that they sought to be upheld through a republican form of government. The French Revolution led to the dissolution of the French monarchy, the establishment of a republic, and universal male participation in politics. Although the French Revolution opened up opportunities for women and slaves to petition for rights, it succumbed first to a destructive Terror, then ultimately to despotism and continental war under Napoleon.

American, European, and Latin American revolutionaries defended their actions using these ideas. Their postrevolutionary constitutions were explicitly written to limit executive power and protect the rights of citizens. Students should explore the arguments for individual rights in this era, as well as the exclusion of groups such as women from full access to these rights. In particular, they may consider the paradox between slavery and individual rights through an examination of Enlightenment writings and images, including evidence from abolitionist campaigns and defenses of enslavement.

A transatlantic republic of letters helped spread revolutionary thinking and activism. The American and French Revolutions served as models of republican government, which inspired former slaves in Haiti, colonial peoples in Latin America, and military and religious elites in Spain and Portugal to participate in revolutionary uprisings.

Students can make meaning about these revolutions in a comparative context by addressing the following question: **How do the French, American, and Haitian Revolutions compare to one another?** Many new leaders established constitutional governments that echoed principles from the Glorious Revolution, Enlightenment ideas embodied in the English Bill of Rights, the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen, and the United States Constitution.



Liberal democratic principles, such as individual rights and the rule of law, replaced traditional aristocratic privileges. Students may consider how the universal ideas of the Enlightenment texts provided a political tool for disfranchised groups to press for greater rights in liberal democracies during the modern era.

Yet these revolutionary principles were applied differently in each context. In the Americas, citizenship and natural rights did not apply to slaves, women, and many men who did not own property; while in Haiti, revolutionary principles translated directly to the abolition of slavery.

Atlantic revolutions and the subsequent Napoleonic Wars resulted in the establishment of a new type of political structure: the nation-state. Through the growth of popular print media, the centralization of the state, and the increasing connections facilitated by transportation networks, people began to imagine themselves as part of a larger national community. Students can consider the question **How is national identity constructed?** in order to learn about these developments. This question serves as a bridge to the next unit on industrial revolutions.

Shared language, religion, literacy, and culture created connections between people that served as a foundation for the development of a national identity.

Arguments over the definition of citizenship, who was included and excluded, in the nation-state continue into the contemporary period and therefore provide opportunities for students to develop further their own understanding of the rights and responsibilities of citizens.

Industrial Revolutions

- Should this era of industrialization be called an Industrial Revolution? Why or why not?
- What were the results of the industrial revolutions? How was technology, and the environment transformed by industrialization?
- How did industrial revolutions affect governments, countries, and national identity in similar and different ways?

The Industrial Revolution shifted the center of the world economy from Asia to Western Europe in the nineteenth century. Students learn that its path diverged sharply from that of China and India, which together had accounted for nearly half of the world's manufacturing prior to the rise of industrialization. Some historians have criticized the use of the term *revolution*, as the changes brought by industrialization were often gradual and uneven. Students can wrestle with this topic by addressing these questions: **Should this era of industrialization be called an Industrial Revolution? Why or why not?** From a broad global perspective, however, industrialization has arguably been one of the most dramatic transformations in human history, making available vast stores of underground coal, oil, and gas energy and altering patterns of work, settlement, international relations, consumption, family relations, and values.

The Industrial Revolution was energized by coal and eventually by petroleum and natural gas. Fossil fuels that drive steam and electrical engines made possible a huge increase in the amount of productive energy available to humans. As students will learn later in the course, this revolution facilitated the development of European imperialism in the late nineteenth century. Together, mechanized heavy industry, a culture of mass consumption, and a global division of labor continue to shape economic growth in the contemporary world, though this growth continues to be lopsided in its benefits to the world's population.

In addition to its historical significance, the Industrial Revolution also provides rich opportunities for students to develop geographic and economic literacy. Students can consider **What were the results of industrialization?** in order to come away with a broad overview of how many aspects of life were transformed by industrialization. Britain was the first nation to industrialize, benefiting from many strengths.

Students use a variety of maps to explore Britain’s resources, such as navigable rivers and large coal deposits, an available pool of labor, and economic and political systems that encouraged innovation. Students review economic data to see how industrialization generated profits for Great Britain through its role in worldwide trade and from goods produced in its colonies. The inventions and discoveries of James Watt, Eli Whitney, Henry Bessemer, Louis Pasteur, Thomas Edison, and others resulted in advances in science and technology. Agricultural and scientific improvements made possible a more urban and healthy population. Advances in medicine led to an increasingly institutionalized and professionalized medical establishment, which led to an increasing understanding of early germ theory.

These new technologies and ways of understanding the world soon spread beyond Western Europe to the United States and Japan, so that knowledge was shared worldwide. Students can also identify the environmental impact of the Industrial Revolution and discuss the positive and negative consequences of industrialization. Students learn that the industrializing nations—for example, Great Britain—were confronted with a wide array of changes from the Industrial Revolution. The rapidly growing population was putting great demands on the natural resources available to these countries, resulting for example, in a decreasing supply of wood, Great Britain’s primary source of energy, as well as a major resource for buildings, ships, and tools (see appendix G for Environmental Principle I). Students learn that Great Britain created a system of factory production and coal-powered machinery to resolve the energy shortage, setting the stage for becoming the wealthiest country in the world.

Using graphs of population growth, cotton textile, iron, and coal production, as well as an array of primary sources, leads students to an understanding of the relevance of natural resources, entrepreneurship, labor, and capital to the beginning of the Industrial Revolution. (See the EEI curriculum unit “Britain Solves a Problem and Creates the Industrial Revolution,” 10.3.1–10.3.5.)

The Industrial Revolution represented a fundamental shift in the production of goods. Large-scale, repetitive-motion machines powered by new energy sources such as coal and steam improved production and required the expansion of markets. However, human and animal energy remained important for the vast majority of people, thereby increasing inequality between people who owned the means of production and those who engaged in wage labor and subsistence farming.

Competing for profits, corporations came to much greater prominence as a structure for organizing industries into larger entities with access to greater resources and with limitations on the personal liability of those operating the industries. These corporations grew substantially as they sponsored continuous innovations in goods and carefully oversaw systems of production. Wage laborers subjected to regimented work conditions in factories rapidly produced inexpensive standardized goods.

Industrialization also dramatically changed the way of life for millions of people who were not directly involved in factory work. Miners, independent farmers, and plantation workers in Africa, Asia, and Latin America were essential to the creation of commodities produced in factories. Students learn about the relationship between the Industrial Revolution and the growth of urban centers that resulted in depopulation of rural areas and migration to urban areas; a shift from an agrarian-based society to a manufacturing-based society; and a change in the pressures society places on natural resources.

Students can consider the multiple ways in which industrialization transformed people's daily lives in terms of providing many more merchantable goods in the marketplace and standardizing time and work schedules. Students can also learn about the negative consequences of industrialization: overcrowded cities and housing, poor sanitation, and unsafe working conditions, for example.

The leaders of world empires reacted to industrial change in various ways. Russia followed a model of government-sponsored development. In Japan, after overthrowing the Tokugawa Dynasty in a coup, the Meiji government rapidly embraced industrialization. Japanese government ministers adapted European military, bureaucratic, and educational techniques while also creating *zaibatsus*, a distinctively native form of business organization in which large family-owned

monopolies controlled broad sectors of the economy. Leaders in the Ottoman Empire and China engaged in limited industrialization, but their choices were constrained by the earlier establishment of informal European empires. This accelerated their gradual military decline, which had already begun by the 1700s.

The following question can help students place industrialization's impact upon nations in a comparative context: **How did industrial revolutions affect governments, countries, and national identity in similar and different ways?**

Although countries experienced industrialization in distinctive ways, they also faced some similar experiences. Most states experienced similar challenges in the shift to industrialized labor. Population growth accelerated in many regions of the world, and the number of cities with populations of 100,000 or more multiplied. Populations increasingly concentrated in urban areas where housing and sanitation infrastructure could rarely keep pace with the growth in need. Although the standard of living gradually improved throughout the world, the disparity between the wealthiest and the poorest people within countries grew.

To make sense of these broad shifts, students address the question **How did industrialization affect ordinary people, families, and work?** Addressing this question through literature of the time presents a valuable opportunity for history–social science teachers to collaborate with English teachers. Teachers may collectively design lessons in which students learn about daily life during industrialization by reading the works of Dickens, Dreiser, Sinclair, or a number of muckrackers, for example. At that time, European and American workers often protested the rigid time-discipline and poor conditions of factory work. Unions grew, often inspired by new ideologies of socialism, particularly Marxist concepts of inherent class conflict between the profit interests of capitalists and the concerns of laborers. Some socialist experimenters set up planned or utopian communities in Europe and the United States, most of them short-lived, where workers would share the products of their labor. Students can be introduced to the concept of socialism by addressing the following questions: **Why did socialist ideologies emerge? What were their key tenets?**

In pre-industrial societies, family units working in or near the home produced most goods. Industrialization separated home from work in function and location. Using relevant primary sources and literature, students can investigate the impact

of industrialization upon families. Middle-class families began to think of home as a separate sphere for women and children to be protected from the evils of the industrial environment. Women were discouraged from paid labor, and children were sent to school. In many poorer families, however, both women and children continued to work in the paid labor force. Although the mechanized production of goods and crops dramatically changed life in industrial nations, most of the world continued to engage in subsistence farming to meet basic needs.

Students may compare the similarities and differences in the consequences of industrialization in industrial and nonindustrial countries while evaluating the costs and benefits of industrialization. Students can compare and contrast child labor around the world today with child labor in the 1800s. To advance understanding of ordinary people's experiences with and responses to industrialization, students can examine a brief primary source: Samuel Smiles' 1882 work, *Self Help*. They may find especially useful the paragraph that begins with the sentence "The spirit of self-help, as exhibited in the energetic action of individuals, has in all times been a marked feature in the English character, and furnishes the true measure of our power as a nation." This and the following few paragraphs illustrate one perspective on how people felt about these years. Teachers may encourage students to read this as a document with a particular perspective and agenda about how English people should respond to their new world.

The Rise of Imperialism and Colonialism

- Why did industrialized nations embark on imperial ventures?
- How did colonization work?
- How was imperialism connected to race and religion?
- How was imperialism similar and different between colonies in Africa, Asia, and Latin America?
- What were the causes and effects of the Mexican Revolution?
- How did native people respond to colonization?

In this unit, students examine industrialized nations' worldwide imperial expansion, fueled by demand for natural resources and markets and aided by

ideological motives of a “civilizing mission.” The question **Why did industrialized nations embark on imperial ventures?** can help connect students’ earlier learning about industrialization with foreign policy. The economic strength of industrialized nations gave them an advantage of cheaper goods over nations that engaged in traditional manual production of goods. For much of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, local manufacturing in regions such as India, China, and Latin America declined dramatically. Some scholars use the label *informal empire* to refer to situations where countries, while not formally colonized, became increasingly dependent on industrialized nations, which sometimes threatened violence, to establish the terms and conditions of international commerce.

The race to secure raw materials spurred European, Japanese, and American imperialism. Students can also learn about the process of imperialism by considering the question **How did colonization work?** Tropical products, such as rubber and tea, and other resources for industrial use drove competing nations to claim political, economic, and territorial rights to colonies.

Students should read primary sources that reflect the motives behind European imperial efforts. F. D. Lugard’s *The Rise of Our East African Empire* explains in direct clear language why, in 1893, European leaders believed it to be necessary to expand their empires for economic reasons. To locate a useful excerpt from this text, teachers should search online for the paragraph that begins with the following sentence: “It is sufficient to reiterate here that, as long as our policy is one of free trade, we are compelled to seek new markets; for old ones are being closed to us by hostile tariffs, and our great dependencies, which formerly were the consumers of our goods, are now becoming our commercial rivals.”

Students may also read Joseph Conrad’s *Heart of Darkness* or Adam Hothschild’s *King Leopold’s Ghost*. Colonizers also justified their conquests by asserting arguments of racial hierarchy and cultural supremacy, offering a vision of civilization in contrast to what they argued were “backward” societies. Literature and poetry, such as Rudyard Kipling’s “The White Man’s Burden,” engages students with this period and deepens the ability of students to understand the era in its own context.

Students compare the perspectives of advocates for and against imperialism and consider the way each side presents evidence to support its claims. The question

How was imperialism connected with race and religion? can be addressed by a close reading and analysis of Kipling’s poem. Overall, students should understand the multiple interconnected causes and justifications for colonization: religious, racial, and political uplift; economic exchange; and geopolitical power.

Governments of industrialized nations also viewed overseas expansion as a means to strengthen their own global strategic position. The development of more advanced firearms, transportation, and communications than those of nonindustrial societies paved the way for a wave of imperialism. Britain, France, and other European nations established colonies throughout Africa and South and Southeast Asia, while the United States and Japan did the same around the Pacific Rim, often allying with local elites and exploiting colonized peoples as laborers despite sometimes strenuous resistance.

Indigenous leaders in various colonized regions engaged in protracted resistance to the colonizers, though they were ultimately outmatched by the military superiority of the colonial powers. In India, for example, students explore the environmental and social effects of Britain’s acquisition and control of raw goods and markets, and in South Africa, where its wealth of gold and diamonds provided the capital needed for further industrialization. Students learn how the competition for and decisions regarding natural resource acquisition and use influenced perspectives regarding the use of colonial lands and the nature of colonial rule (see appendix G for Environmental Principle V).

Only a few countries under European pressure—notably China, Thailand, Iran, and Ethiopia—retained their political independence. Students may study the Opium Wars in China to learn about the ways in which British attempts at controlling Chinese markets and opening ports led to extended and intense conflicts. Students can demonstrate their understanding of this period—and the different perspectives of both the industrialized and colonized nations—by writing editorials or government position papers, giving speeches, or creating multimedia documentaries for their classmates.

Although most Latin American nations were technically independent in this era, they often came under the influence of European nations and the United States after accepting large loans to help them develop transportation and communication networks. Latin American countries produced cash crops and

mined raw materials in exchange for cheap goods, which disadvantaged local industries. The resulting inequality between wealthy and poor states was mirrored by growing divisions between “haves” and “have nots” in many of these societies.

These tensions led to revolutions in Mexico and elsewhere with leaders competing over liberal and Marxist visions for their nations. Given students’ proximity to Mexico, students may wish to focus on Mexico’s experience during the era of imperialism and learn about its revolution in the context of colonization. Students can address the question **What were the causes and effects of the Mexican Revolution?** After teachers briefly review Spanish conquest, Mexican independence, and the decades-long leadership of Porfirio Diaz, with an emphasis on race and land ownership, students should learn about the high percentage of land and resources that were owned by foreign investors (mainly American) in the early twentieth century.

Next, teachers may wish to explain the experience of ordinary people like the *campesinos* and show art from the era such as Diego Rivera’s *Repression*. Teachers should divide the class into five groups that are each assigned a unique perspective and primary-source document from the period: (1) Porfirio Diaz, (2) moderates (represented by Madero, Huerta, and Carranza), (3) Emiliano Zapata and *campesinos* of the South, (4) Pancho Villa and the *vaqueros* of the North, (5) the United States.

To locate the sources that represent each of these perspectives, teachers can search online for the “Plan de Ayala”; “Pancho Villa’s Dream”; and consult Lucia Nunez’s *Episodes in the History of U.S.–Mexico Relations* as well as John Guyatt’s *The Mexican Revolution*. After each group has identified the perspective and goals assigned to it, the whole class should discuss areas of agreement and disagreement between groups, while the teacher charts them on the board and students take notes.

With so many competing interests in the revolution, students should come away with a sense that the extended conflict was a nationalist and socioeconomic revolution. After learning about the results and consequences of the revolution, students may write a paragraph expressing the perspective of the person they represented or make a brief speech about which leader in the revolution they would have supported and provide evidence for their position.

Students can continue to survey other examples of nations that stayed independent during the era of imperialism by considering examples from Asia. In China, Sun Yat-Sen's Republic of China replaced centuries of dynastic rule and, with great effort, fought off the imperialist aspirations of foreign countries. Students further research the important moments and leaders of the revolutions, including Sun Yat-Sen of China, José Martí of Cuba, and Menelik I of Abyssinia.

Students may continue to consider the question **How did colonization work?** in order to understand the concrete results of colonization in a variety of geographic contexts. Colonizers introduced new infrastructures, medicines, educational systems, and cultural norms. Print technology and more rapid transportation aided the growth of organized religion. These technological developments also facilitated integration of regional Indian religious traditions into the larger religious tradition of the subcontinent while still retaining their regional identity.

Christian missionaries made use of colonial institutions and infrastructure to educate and evangelize native peoples, helping to broaden Christian presence around the world. Some European thinkers joined religious beliefs to social Darwinian ideas about the evolution of races, leading to European efforts to “civilize” native peoples they perceived as “backward.” They also attempted to reform practices involving marriage and women's social roles.

Although some colonial peoples converted to European practices, others deeply resented the violent exploitation of their people and the disruption of traditional beliefs. Students should consider the question **How did native people respond to colonization?** in order to make sense of the multiple contexts and responses to colonization. Nationalist leaders, often educated in European universities, began to use ideologies rooted in the Enlightenment to challenge the injustice of Western and Japanese imperialism. Europeans, in turn, were shaped by their encounters with colonial peoples through their exposure to non-Western religions and systems of thought for the first time.

Imperial encounters strengthened European nationalism at home, as colonizers defined themselves in response to colonial “others.” In addition, internal tensions sometimes erupted between dominant and dominated groups within a state or empire. For example, European Jews had felt that Enlightenment ideals of equality and citizenship applied to them, although they were a minority in the countries in

which they lived. Anti-Semitic events, like the Dreyfus Affair in France, made Jews feel that they were not considered French and were viewed as outsiders. This realization led to development of *Zionism*, an expression of Jewish nationalism: namely, the belief in the right to self-determination for the Jewish people. The Affair also pointed to the tension between the rights of the individual versus the greater needs of the state. Though the label *globalization* is often restricted to the late twentieth century, students may explore the ways in which both the processes of industrialization and imperialism initiated transformations in transport and communication technologies, unprecedented levels of global migration, and accelerating global economic exchange.

Grade Ten Classroom Example: World History and World Literature

Background

This year at John Muir high school, the tenth-grade world literature teacher, Ms. Alemi, and the tenth-grade world history teacher, Ms. Cruz, have decided to collaborate and align their major units of instruction so that their students see the connections between the content taught in each discipline. A number of the reading selections and novels for the tenth-grade world literature class would support students' understandings of the historical concepts and time periods addressed in the world history course. The teachers first determine where their curriculum already intersects and then begin planning interdisciplinary units that align the content tasks with the literacy tasks in the two courses.

World History Lessons

Ms. Cruz's tenth-grade world history class is beginning a unit on the era of New Imperialism that took place roughly from the 1830s until the beginning of World War I in 1914. She introduces the historical investigation question for the whole unit: **What were the causes and effects of imperialism?** She then focuses students on the question for the first part of the unit: **How did Europeans justify the expansion of their colonial empires?**

Ms. Cruz introduces excerpts from the primary source *The Dual Mandate in British Tropical Africa* written by Lord Frederick Lugard, the first British

Example *(continued)*

governor-general of Nigeria. The book exemplifies the major justifications that European powers gave for building their colonial empires throughout the world and explains the nature of the *dual mandate*, or the belief that both the colonizer and the colonized benefit from colonial expansion.

She provides the students with the background of the various justifications (economic, religious, social Darwinism, and the like), and students work together to pull quotations from the document that exemplify the particular justifications. Students also must explain how the evidence they selected supports the justifications. Students gain additional information from their textbooks and other primary sources that discuss the motivations that European powers had for colonizing other nations.

In order for students to gain the perspective of the indigenous peoples that were colonized by European powers, Ms. Cruz gives students a number of firsthand accounts. Students find quotations in the texts that reflect both the perspective of colonial people and the impacts of colonization on their people and their nations. Ms. Cruz then leads a class discussion in which the students compare and contrast life before and after colonization as well as the perspectives of the colonizers and the colonized.

Next, students walk to different areas in the classroom in which several different primary-source images that depict colonization are posted on the wall. Some images are political cartoons and newspaper advertisements, but others are art created during the late nineteenth century. Students must walk through the gallery and record which European powers and colonies are represented in the image, the occurrence depicted in the image, the symbols that are present in the image, and finally whether the image is *anti* or *pro* colonization and explain their reasoning. Ms. Cruz then leads a classroom discussion so that students can explain the evidence that they recorded from each image.

Summary of World Literature Lessons

Meanwhile, in world literature, Ms. Alemi's students begin a unit on African literature by reading *Things Fall Apart*. Written in 1958 by Nigerian

Example *(continued)*

novelist Chinua Achebe, the novel takes place in eastern Nigeria at the end of the nineteenth century and deals with two stories: that of Okonkwo, a respected tribal leader and *strong man* who falls from grace in his Ibo village, and the clash of cultures and changes in values brought on by British colonialism. The story is conveyed through the life of Okonkwo and his family, the tragic consequences of his actions, and events that are beyond his control. In interviews, Chinua Achebe said that he became a writer in order to tell the story from his and his people's (the Ibo) own perspective. The novel was written in English (the language of the British colonizers) and was, in large part, a response and counter-narrative to colonial texts, such as Joseph Conrad's *Heart of Darkness*, which often portrayed Africans as savages or animals.

Ms. Alemi and Ms. Cruz selected the book because it expands students' knowledge of world literature and because the novel provides students with an opportunity to discover universal messages and themes through the lens of Ibo culture and linguistic and literary techniques that are central to the culture. The novel also supports the learning goals Ms. Cruz set for the students in world history. As the teachers research the novel, they learn "One of the things that Achebe has always said, is that part of what he thought the task of the novel was, was to create a usable past. Trying to give people a richly textured picture of what happened, not a sort of monotone bad Europeans, noble Africans, but a complicated picture" (Princeton University Professor Anthony Appiah, cited on the Web site Annenberg Learner). The teachers feel that their students are capable of exploring these complex ideas.

Ms. Alemi will facilitate students' deep analytical reading of the novel, which will prepare them to read other texts more carefully and critically, including a novel they select from contemporary Nigerian literature. Over the course of the unit, Ms. Alemi will engage her students in *digging deeply* into the novel, *branching out* to other texts, and *harvesting* the knowledge they have gained by applying it to other texts.

Source: See CDE 2015, 744–56, to see the complete lesson.

Example (continued)

Concluding Activities for World History

The students will use the information gathered from primary sources, their textbook, and *Things Fall Apart* to participate in several mini-debates where they speculate about the short- and long-term impact of the colonial experience. The debates, or small-group discussions, address various aspects of colonization, such as What impact will the colonial experience have upon the economies of the colonial powers and their former colonies? How will the colonial experience impact the standard of living, literacy rates, and public health in the developed and developing countries? What impact will the colonial experience have on relations between Europe and the developing countries in Asia and/or Africa? Students would be responsible for bringing specific examples from the novel and primary resources to further discuss the issue and explain which country or countries would benefit most from the experience.

In Ms. Cruz's class, students conclude the unit by writing an essay using the information gathered throughout the unit to address one of the following two questions: **What impact did the colonial experience have upon indigenous peoples and their countries? What impact did the colonial experience have upon Western colonial powers?** Students must provide a clear thesis statement and specific evidence from their text, primary sources examined throughout the unit, as well as examples from the novel *Things Fall Apart*. In addition, they must provide analysis that examines how the evidence that they provided supports the argument in their thesis.

Sources

Achebe, Chinua. 1958. *Things Fall Apart*. New York: Anchor Books.

Annenberg Learner Invitation to World Literature: Things Fall Apart (<http://www.learner.org/courses/worldlit/things-fall-apart/explore/key-points.html>)

CA HSS Content Standards: 10.4.1, 3

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9-12): Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View 4; Historical Interpretation 1, 3

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.9–10.1, 2, 6, 9, 10, WHST.9–10.1, SL.9–10.1, 4

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.9–10.1, 3, 5, 6a, 6b, 7, 10a, 11a; ELD.PII.9–10.2b

Causes and Course of World War I

- Why did the Great War become a World War?
- How was World War I a total war?
- What were the consequences of World War I for nations and people?
- Why did the Russian Revolution develop, and how did it become popular?

The Great War, later called World War I, began in 1914 as a result of nationalist tensions in Europe and the subsequent militarization that resulted from clashes between these states over colonial resources and markets. The question **Why did the Great War become a World War?** can guide students' initial investigation into the conflict. Insecurity led these powers to form alliances, which embroiled the great powers of Europe in a multiyear conflict that included soldiers from many parts of the world. The gradual disintegration of the Ottoman Empire, alongside a growing militarization of the European powers, created a climate of distrust that eroded the balance of power.

At the advent of the war, political leaders who faced social unrest at home saw the war effort as a way to divert popular criticism and stoke patriotism in support of a war effort. Students should learn about the complexity of why and how each state justified its entry into the war. To this end, European governments created propaganda aimed at encouraging the civilian population to support total war.

To deepen student understanding of the causes of World War I, teachers may divide the class into groups representing the major participants on both sides in the war. In their groups, students examine a collection of wartime propaganda and political cartoons by utilizing one of the many primary-source analysis tools available online. Students develop a visual analysis of the imagery to understand the link between claim and evidence in these texts. Based on wartime propaganda, students can find similarities and differences in terms of how nations portrayed their enemy states—for example, through dehumanizing their enemy or highlighting threats to their own liberty.

The war that was to be “over by Christmas” continued, as opposing armies on the Western Front settled into to a stalemate through strategies and tactics in

which each side dug in behind a wall of trenches that reached from the North Sea to Switzerland. The battles on the Eastern Front covered a wider territory but also remained largely a stalemate.

Using primary sources as well as literature such as Erich Maria Remarque's *All Quiet on the Western Front*, or poetry including Wilfred Owen, *Dulce et Decorum est*, students can come to appreciate the struggles faced by soldiers fighting in the trenches. For three years, the Western Front moved roughly three miles per year in any direction. Although the primary battles of World War I took place in Europe, colonial soldiers from Africa and Asia had participated in the war effort alongside soldiers from Australia, New Zealand, and the United States, which entered the war in 1917.

Both military and civilian casualties resulted from a war that had many fronts. To learn about the unprecedented deadliness of the war, students should address the question **How was World War I a total war?** Technological advancements, such as the machine gun, poison gas, aircraft, and high explosives, allowed for destruction of human life on a scale previously unknown. The advent of total war meant mobilizing not only the soldiers, but also civilians on the home front and in colonial territories. Entire societies and economies were focused on war. Combat in Western Europe, Eastern Europe, and the Middle East (highlighted in Scott Anderson's *Lawrence in Arabia*) left marks on these societies that were felt long after the fighting ended.

By 1918, 16 million military personnel and civilians had died and millions more returned home wounded; this toll was enlarged by that year's deadly pandemic of the Spanish Flu. The Ottoman, Austro-Hungarian, and Russian empires had disintegrated, and in their place new, independent states emerged, including Poland, Russia, Prussia, and Austria.

In 1915, as the Ottoman Empire declined, the Turkish government carried out a systematic genocide against the Armenian population that had been living on its historic homeland in what is now eastern Turkey. Turkish authorities first arrested hundreds of Armenian political and intellectual leaders, sending them to their deaths; Armenian men were conscripted into work camps where they were killed outright or died of exhaustion. The remaining Armenians were ordered onto death marches into the Syrian desert, where they were subjected to rape,

torture, mutilation, starvation, holocausts in desert caves, kidnapping, and forced Turkification and Islamization.

More than 1.5 million Armenians, more than half of the population was eliminated in this way; virtually all their personal and community properties were seized by the government, and more than 500,000 innocent people were forced into exile during the period from 1915 to 1923. When the war ended in 1918, the Armenian population was reduced by 75 percent and their historical lands were confiscated by the Turkish government.

Students may examine the reactions of other governments, including that of the United States, and world opinion during and after the Armenian Genocide. Teachers can introduce the history of the Near East Relief organization established by the former U.S. ambassador to the Ottoman Empire, Henry Morgenthau. Near East Relief came to the aid of hundreds of thousands of Armenian Genocide survivors through the establishment of orphanages, food and vocational programs, and the like. Teachers can also use the example of the first international aid project of the Red Cross in helping Armenian Genocide survivors, and the phrase, “Remember the starving Armenians!” as a means to demonstrate to students the profound effect the Armenian Genocide had on the American public.

The Red Cross’s aid to Armenian Genocide survivors also demonstrates the worldwide humanitarian response to the crisis and the emerging role of the International Committee of the Red Cross as an international nongovernmental humanitarian organization. They should examine the effects of the genocide on the remaining Armenian people, who were deprived of their historic homeland, and the ways in which it became a prototype of subsequent genocides. To connect the effects of war, students can consider the following question: **What were the consequences of World War I for nations, ethnic groups, and people?**

The decline of the imperial powers that resulted from the Great War led to new political structures and political dissent in many European countries, most notably a revolutionary uprising in Russia. Students can address the following question: **Why did the Russian Revolution develop, and how did it become popular?** In 1917, the ineffectual Czarist leadership was overthrown. The communist Bolsheviks seized power and struggled to create a new form of government that established the political monopoly of the Communist Party and workers’ soviets.

Students analyze primary and secondary sources to consider the dramatic social, political, cultural, and economic effects that resulted from the revolution. Students may focus their research on a specific group, such as rural women, to explain cause-and-effect and change over time.

Effects of World War I

- How did World War I end? What were the consequences of the postwar agreement?
- How did agreements dating from the World War I and postwar periods impact the map of the Middle East?
- What were the effects of World War I on ordinary people?
- Why does the term “lost generation” refer to those who lived through or came of age during these years?
- How did the post-World War I world order contribute to the collapse of the worldwide economy?

In 1919, the victors of World War I—France, Britain, and the United States—turned efforts toward settling the war, organizing peace, and punishing the losers. Students can address the following questions as they study the short-term consequences of the Great War: **How did World War I end? What were the consequences of the postwar agreement?** President Woodrow Wilson offered a vision of a peaceful postwar world order based on the principles of national self-determination and free trade in his Fourteen Points. However, only some of his principles were embraced by Britain and France in the Treaty of Versailles. The leaders of the victorious countries drafted the treaty, which required the losing powers, particularly Germany, to assume responsibility for starting the war, and for paying the victors reparations with large amounts of currency and land.

New states were created in Eastern Europe, carved from the territories of the German, Austrian, Ottoman, and Russian empires. The Treaty of Versailles also established the mandate system, which granted many of the Allied Powers, including Japan, administrative governance over former territories and colonies of Germany and the Ottoman Empire.

However, in Africa and Asia, colonized peoples who had fought for the British and French soon realized that they would not be granted self-determination as Eastern Europeans were. Consequently, nationalist leaders began to organize independence movements to oppose the authority of colonial powers. The political and social map of the Middle East continued to be redrawn through European involvement during and following World War I.

Students should learn about the significance of critical documents and agreements dating from World War I and the postwar period in setting the world map and as a basis for future conflicts by addressing this question: **How did agreements dating from the World War I and postwar periods impact the map of the Middle East?** Students can deepen their understanding of the effects of treaties that ended World War I and the legacy left behind. The teacher, through simulations, may divide the class into states—including Great Britain, Germany, the Ottoman Empire, Russia, and newly independent nations, such as Czechoslovakia—to debate political and economic policies of the postwar period.

The last of Wilson’s Fourteen Points was the creation of a League of Nations to promote permanent peace. Although Wilson arduously rallied for Congress to join the League, American isolationists were reluctant to enter into potentially indefinite alliances and thus never consented to join. American failure to participate undermined the League’s effectiveness in implementing its goals.

At the end of the war, society and culture were dramatically altered. Students should address the longer-term consequences of World War I by considering this question: **What were the effects of World War I on ordinary people?** Veterans came home often injured mentally (what is now termed *post-traumatic stress disorder* or traumatic brain injuries) and physically. These men, along with the millions that did not return home, served as a constant reminder of the horrors of modern warfare.

Individuals and groups reacted to the dislocation they felt from the war experience by turning to novel cultural expressions and social organizations. Artists and authors created counter-cultural art movements summed up in the term *modernism*, which expressed the disillusionment felt by many and challenged entrenched styles, traditions, and hierarchies. For example, Pablo Picasso and the self-identifying “lost generation,” which included Gertrude Stein,

Ernest Hemingway, and F. Scott Fitzgerald (among others), represented and documented the cultural shift initiated by the experience of war. Students can survey the artistic expressions of these years by addressing the broader question: **Why does the term “lost generation” refer to those who lived through or came of age during these years?**



It is also extremely important for students to understand the connection between the postwar world and the Great Depression; this question can help students make that link: **How did the post-World War I world order contribute to the collapse of the worldwide economy?** Europe’s economy was weakened as a result of the economic and social costs of World War I and was increasingly supported by American loans. Germany alone was saddled with \$33 billion in war reparations. Worldwide agricultural production increased, leading to falling prices and lack of buying power by rural consumers seeking manufactured goods. Industrialized nations reacted by increasing protective tariffs, which stifled international trade. These economic trends, along with the crash of the stock market and the collapse of the international banking system, led to the Great Depression, a time when incomes eroded and unemployment increased throughout the world.

This economic collapse further undermined liberal democratic regimes and was a major blow to global trade. As a result, many nation-states developed policies that strengthened the national economy and raised tariffs, turning away from the free market and open trade. Students can learn about change over time and understand the worldwide slowdown by comparing levels of productivity, rates of unemployment, and gross domestic income in several industrialized nations in the years 1929, 1931, and 1934.

Rise of Totalitarian Governments after World War I

- Why did communism and fascism appeal to Europeans in the 1930s?
- What were key ideas of communism? How were the ideas translated on the ground?
- What was totalitarianism, and how was it implemented in similar and different ways in Japan, Germany, Italy, and the Soviet Union?
- How did Nazis come to power? Why did ordinary people support them?

With the collapse of the capitalist market system that caused the Great Depression, political alternatives to liberal democracies emerged, particularly communism and fascism. Through the use of graphic organizers, debates, and position papers, students may compare and contrast how these communist and fascist governments responded to the collapse of the capitalist system during the Great Depression. With a side-by-side comparison of these political alternatives, students can provide an answer to the following question: **Why did communism and fascism appeal to Europeans in the 1930s?**

After the Russian Revolution, communism emerged as an alternative to Western-style capitalism in the Soviet Union. Lenin's New Economic Policy temporarily allowed capitalism until the Soviet economy stabilized after the civil war that followed the Revolution. The following questions can help students grapple with the ideals versus the realities of developments in the Soviet Union: **What were key ideas of communism? How were the ideas translated on the ground?** Joseph Stalin rose to leadership after the death of Lenin, and Stalin's Five-Year Plans provided a Marxist model of state-run development in direct opposition to capitalism. Under Stalin, the Soviet Union achieved extraordinary economic growth between 1928 and 1939, but this expansion came at a huge human cost.

Stalin's industrialization plan included forced collectivization of peasant farms, which ultimately resulted in a massive loss of life. The government established a system of *Gulag* labor camps in the Soviet Union and Siberia to contain political opposition. Stalin's political consolidation led to the imprisonment and death of many, including wealthy peasants, non-Russians, Jews, and members of the Communist Party suspected of disloyalty.

Students should learn about the magnitude of the imprisonment, persecutions, and death caused by totalitarian rule. Students should learn about the connection between economic policies and political ideologies, including the crushing of workers' strikes. With this background, they can also examine the famine in Ukraine that led to the starvation of millions of people; the political purges of party leaders, artists, engineers, and intellectuals; and the show trials of the 1930s.

The following primary sources are particularly useful in communicating the appeal of Revolution, the importance of the cult of personality in maintaining support for it, and the perspective of ordinary people: (1) Lenin's Proclamation of 7 November, 1917; (2) Joseph Stalin, *Industrialization of the Country* (search online for a passage that starts with the phrase "The whole point is that we are behind Germany in this respect and are still far from having overtaken her technically and economically."); (3) Hymn to Stalin; (4) Lev Kopelev's, *Education of a True Believer* (search online for the phrase "Stalin said the struggle for grain was the struggle for revolution"); (5) posters in support of revolutionary goals. In addition, by analyzing examples of socialist realist art or reading George Orwell's *Animal Farm*, Arthur Koestler's *Darkness at Noon*, or Aleksandr Solzhenitsyn's *Gulag Archipelago*, students can acquire deeper insights into this period.

One way that some historians have compared transformations in Europe during the interwar years is through the concept of totalitarianism, or a centralized state that aims to control all aspects of life through authoritarian use of violence. The following questions about totalitarianism can help frame students' comparative explorations of governments and social systems during these years: **What was totalitarianism? How was it implemented in similar and different ways in Japan, Germany, Italy, and the Soviet Union?** Students can examine the similarities and differences between the political structures of the Soviet Union, Germany, and Italy in the 1930s. The Weimar Republic had emerged from World War I as an example of the implementation of liberal democratic principles. However, because of the debts of World War I, soaring inflation, and the Depression, portions of the populace and political establishment who were anxious about radicals turned to the leadership of Adolf Hitler.

Although Hitler's Nazi party never won an outright majority in any German election, he was able to exploit enough fear and uncertainty and form alliances with other parties that opposed Weimar democracy and gain the position

of Chancellor in 1933. Once they had a foothold in government, the Nazis consolidated their power by limiting dissent and imprisoning opponents, homosexuals, the sick and elderly, restricting the rights of Jews and other “non-Aryans,” and rearming the German military. Students can learn about the rise of the Nazis by addressing the following questions: **How did Nazis come to power? Why did ordinary people support them?**

Fascism provided a nationalist and militaristic alternative to both the individual rights privileged in liberal democracies and to communism. The Fascists in Italy and the Nazis in Germany established state-directed economies, rearmed their militaries, and imposed gender, religious, and racial hierarchies in the name of an ultrapatriotic nationalism.

Causes and Consequences of World War II

- Why was the death toll so high during World War II?
- What were the key goals of the Axis and Allied powers? How was the war mobilized on different fronts?
- How did technology affect World War II?
- How was World War II a total war? How did World War II’s actors, goals, and strategies compare with those of World War I?
- How was the Holocaust carried out?

The study of Nazism and Stalinism leads directly to an analysis of World War II and its causes and consequences. The war itself was truly global and included battlefronts in Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Pacific. Historians estimate that 60 million, or 3 percent of the total population, died as a result of World War II. This toll includes a large casualty rate among civilians who were swept up in ground campaigns and were victims of bombing. An overall question students should consider at the outset and continually throughout their studies of World War II is **Why was the death toll so high during World War II?**

To become oriented to the leading nations in the conflict, students continue to learn about the German, Italian, and Japanese attempts to expand their empires in the 1930s. As in Italy and Germany, Japan’s authoritarian government was

increasingly dominated by the military, controlled portions of the economy, and furthered imperial ambitions. The expansionist goals of Italy, Germany, and Japan translated into specific instances of military aggression, first in China, then in Europe, and finally in the United States, that drew the Allies into war with these Axis Powers.

In Germany, as Hitler began to stretch his empire toward Austria and Czechoslovakia, both Britain and France initially employed a policy of appeasement, while the United States Congress passed a series of “Neutrality Acts” to keep the nation on a path of nonintervention. Both Europe and the United States were entangled in domestic financial crises, and the American populace especially displayed strong isolationist impulses, even convincing Congress to hold investigations about possible malicious business interests that had led the country to enter World War I.

Appeasement of Hitler finally came to an end when Germany invaded Poland on September 1, 1939, and World War II began in Europe. By then, Japan, an imperial power that had already colonized Korea in 1910 and occupied Manchuria in 1931, invaded China.

Students should learn about the Sino-Japanese War as context for making comparisons between ideologies, goals, and strategies of the Axis Powers. In China, Japanese military advances led to the death of thousands of civilians, including the horrors of the Rape of Nanjing. Once war broke out in Europe, the Japanese took advantage of Hitler’s conquests in Western Europe to seize European colonies in Asia. However, the Japanese saw American power in the Pacific as an obstacle to their imperial plans, leading them to bomb the United States naval base at Pearl Harbor in 1941.

Through map study, students should identify formation of Allied and Axis alliances, as well as changes in the makeup of the alliances. They can consider the following questions to understand the broad outlines of wartime alliances: **What were the key**



goals of the Axis and Allied Powers? How was the war mobilized on different fronts? Students should learn about the significance of the Stalin–Hitler Pact of 1939 and its effects in partitioning Poland and bringing Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia under Soviet control. They should also identify the pact’s breakdown and the subsequent Soviet alliance with the Allied nations.

“This war is a new kind of war . . . It is warfare in terms of every continent, every island, every sea, every air lane in the world.” As President Franklin Delano Roosevelt’s statement of 1942 reveals, soldiers throughout the world used tanks, airplanes, and submarines more extensively than in World War I, wreaking massive destruction on military and civilian populations alike.

This question can frame students’ investigations into the unique advances in warfare technology: **How did technology affect World War II?** Deploying a highly mechanized army and *blitzkrieg* warfare, Germany’s military conquered large portions of Europe in a short time and expanded the war to include both Western and Eastern Fronts. Bombing of civilians brought fear, death, and destruction to populations in Europe, Japan, and elsewhere. Through the use of primary sources, such as excerpts of radio programs, newsreel shorts, eyewitness accounts, newspaper articles, and photographs from the period, students can gain a better understanding of the struggles faced by both soldiers and civilians.

These questions will encourage students to make claims, supported by reasons and evidence: **How was World War II a total war? How did World War II’s actors, goals, and strategies compare with those of World War I?** The activity could be used to explore war aims and strategies at the outset, in the midst of it, or at the conclusion of the war. Students may use documents including the Atlantic Charter, Four Freedoms Speech, and others to support their claims.

For much of the European war, the Soviet Union bore the brunt of German aggression on the Eastern Front, leading to the death of tens of millions of soldiers and civilians. With America’s entry into the war, the Allies organized a counteroffensive that mobilized massive civilian resources to combat the Axis Powers. The Allies retaliated with land and aerial campaigns in North Africa, the Middle East, Italy, and occupied France, which weakened the overstretched Axis Powers. Overland resupply routes, like those in Iran, were critical to the war effort while greatly impacting the local populations. The question **How was the war**

mobilized on different fronts? can help students make comparisons of different areas. Students may explore the tensions that existed between the Allied Powers and how these served as a prelude to the divisions between the West and the Soviet Union in the postwar period.

The war ended with the collapse of the Axis regimes. Heavy fighting in both Western and Eastern Europe crushed the German military, while the island-to-island skirmishes in the Pacific pushed back the Japanese forces, culminating in a heavy bombing campaign against the Japanese islands. Students can learn about the on-the-ground realities of fighting on the Pacific front by learning about key battles like Midway, the role of the Filipino-American alliance, and the intense brutality of fighting due to racialized understandings that Japanese had toward American soldiers and vice-versa.

“Comfort Women” is a euphemism that describes women who were forced into sexual service by the Japanese Army in occupied territories before and during the war. Comfort Women can be taught as an example of institutionalized sexual slavery; estimates on the total number of Comfort Women vary, but most argue that hundreds of thousands of women were forced into these situations during Japanese occupation. On December 28, 2015, the governments of Japan and the Republic of Korea entered into an agreement regarding the issues of Comfort Women. Two translations of this document can be found at http://www.mofa.go.jp/a_o/na/kr/page4e_000364.html (accessed June 29, 2017) and http://www.mofa.go.kr/ENG/press/ministrynews/20151228/1_71575.jsp?menu=m_10_10 (accessed June 29, 2017).

Finally, in August 1945, the United States unleashed its most deadly weapon, the atomic bomb, in Hiroshima and Nagasaki, killing more than 200,000 people, forcing Japan to surrender, and ending World War II. Teachers may ask students to debate the controversies regarding the American decisions to launch the attacks.

Before and during the worldwide conflict, the Nazis implemented racial policies across the portions of Europe they controlled. The question **How was the Holocaust enacted?** can guide students’ exploration into the magnitude, terror, and loss of life caused by Nazi policies. These policies drew upon racial and eugenicist ideologies. Jehovah’s Witnesses, Poles, Gypsies, homosexuals, and political activists faced harassment, imprisonment, and death. Jews were the

particular targets of Nazi violence. Adolf Hitler said to his generals on the eve of the invasion of Poland, “Who, after all, speaks today of the annihilation of the Armenians?” Numerous German military officers who had been stationed in Turkey during World War I were aware of the Ottoman regime’s plan to destroy the Armenians, and some of them even issued orders for the deportation of Armenians. Without penalty, some later became leaders in the Nazi military apparatus that carried out the Holocaust. Nazi policies and actions evolved over time with the initial stripping of rights through the passage of the Nuremberg Laws, an escalation of persecution through events such as Kristallnacht, the establishment of concentration camps, and then genocide. Germans and their allies ultimately murdered six million Jews and millions of others through starvation, forced labor, and by shooting and gassing victims.

Sensitivity and careful planning are needed to bring the history of this period to life for students in a thoughtful and responsible way. The sheer scope, the action (or inaction) of civilians, and the inhumanity of the Holocaust can be overwhelming to some students. By utilizing memoirs, such as Elie Wiesel’s *Night*, teachers can provide students with a deeply personal understanding of the Holocaust, as can the use of carefully selected primary-source materials.

Students can also review recorded testimonials of Holocaust survivors, and teachers can reach out to academic and public institutions like the United States



Holocaust Memorial Museum to find ways to connect students to the Holocaust. Students may also examine instances of resistance to the Holocaust by Jews and others. While on the one hand it is incredibly challenging to teach the enormity and severity of the Jewish experience during the war, teachers also often face challenges when trying to explain to students how “the final solution” could be carried out

by Germans. It took thousands of ordinary Germans to operate the machinery of death; the German military, infrastructure, and even the economy were mobilized to kill people.

It is important for teachers and students to examine how, in wartime, ordinary people might do terrible things and they should trace how the German machinery of death grew as large as it did and why Germans were complicit in it. Primary sources from the Nuremberg Trials and wartime statistics can help students learn about the scale of the Holocaust. Immediately after the war, genocide—the systematic killing of members of an ethnic or religious group—was established as a crime under international law through the development of the United Nations.

International Developments in the Post–World War II World

- How did the Cold War develop?
- How was the Cold War waged all over the world?
- How did former colonies respond to the Cold War and liberation?
- How and why did the Cold War end?

The effects of World War II reverberated around the world, intensifying three earlier trends whose effects persisted well into the twenty-first century: decolonization, the Cold War, and globalization. The war accelerated the decline of European power worldwide and the rise of the United States militarily, economically, and culturally. Nationalist movements fueled by colonial subjects' participation in war efforts placed increasing pressure on European powers to grant independence. The postwar period also witnessed an escalation in hostility between the U.S. and the Soviet Union. Throughout the Cold War, the U.S. and the Soviet Union intervened politically, militarily, and economically in dozens of nations in Asia, the Middle East, Africa, Latin America, and the Caribbean in an effort to protect their strategic interests. Also during the postwar period, economic globalization produced the largest world market in history, spreading both products and cultural values around the world.

One of the most significant effects of World War II was the emergence of the Cold War, which ultimately affected much of the world, including the developing world in Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and Latin America. Students can begin their Cold War studies by addressing the question **How did the Cold War develop?** Students should explore the differences between the capitalist-democratic

United States and the communist-authoritarian Soviet Union. These differences were apparent before the war, although they did not prevent an alliance against the Axis Powers. After the war, hostility increased as the two nations disagreed sharply over plans for postwar Europe, especially for Germany. The fragile alliance forged by Stalin, Roosevelt, and Churchill and preserved at the Yalta Conference at a terrible cost to Poland, in February, 1945, disintegrated months later, after Roosevelt's death and the dropping of the atomic bombs.

American distrust of the Soviet Union grew after its expansion into Eastern Europe, while the Soviets justified large troop concentrations based on the recent German invasion from the West. Both the United States and the Soviet Union competed to bring nonaligned and newly liberated countries into their respective camps. Through the use of structured primary-source analysis activities, teachers can develop student understanding of this period.

Students can also develop their critical thinking and oral language in their study of the Cold War by engaging in a simulated Yalta press conference. The class is divided into representatives of the United States, the Soviet Union, and Great Britain, as well as members of the press corps. Students can also view a variety of postwar speeches, articles, and military decisions to debate when the Cold War actually began. For example, they can read Winston Churchill's "Sinews of Peace" speech delivered in 1946 and Joseph Stalin's interview in *Pravda* from March 14, 1946. By reading them closely, students will learn about how Churchill and Stalin each laid blame on the other nation for intensifying relations.

Through a variety of primary-source documents, pictures, and maps from the era, students examine the two superpowers' different plans for Europe after the war. The following question will help frame students' comparative learning about the multiple fronts and strategies of waging the Cold War: **How was the Cold War waged all over the world?** The Soviet Union consolidated its control over central Europe with the division of Germany and the creation of satellite states in eastern and southeastern Europe. The Soviets consolidated their empire in Eastern Europe by using repressive tactics that had been used in their home state.

The United States became involved in supporting the re-establishment of liberal democratic states in Western Europe. It developed the Marshall Plan, a massive American economic recovery project for Western Europe, and the Truman

Doctrine, which affirmed American support for people fighting against communist insurgents. The Soviet Union viewed the plans as an effort to protect American hegemony in Europe.

In response to the formation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), a 1949 military alliance between the United States, Western European nations, and Canada, the Soviet Union initiated the Warsaw Pact of 1955. The Pact aimed to protect its eastern European territory and broader sphere of influence. Uprisings in Poland and Hungary (1956) and Czechoslovakia (1968) exposed fractures within the Soviet sphere of influence by revealing insurgent sentiment from those presenting what they considered a purer and less repressive form of communism, as well as by anti-communists.

The Cold War grew in intensity as the Soviet Union developed atomic weapons in an effort to catch up militarily to the U.S. An arms race continued for decades, as the superpowers competed over advancements in nuclear weapons technology. After a long civil war, communists, led by Mao Zedong, came to power in China, expanding the geographic scope of the Cold War. The presence of communist China complicated the earlier bipolar Cold War world, as tensions developed between the two communist powers. The Great Leap Forward (1958–1961) and the Cultural Revolution (1966–1976) caused massive turmoil in China. Students should learn about the unrest and disorder in China during these years; elites were made to work on farms; revolutionary justice was arbitrarily applied; and the Red Guard even turned on members of Mao’s own party.

The question **How was the Cold War waged all over the world?** can continue to frame students’ understanding of the Chinese experience. Moreover, if students learn about the ascent of communism in China in the middle of the twentieth century, the groundwork will be laid for their understanding of its later status when its markets opened, but its political system did not.

Cold War competition spread throughout East and Southeast Asia, the Middle East, Africa, and Latin America. Both superpowers constructed regional alliances in an effort to counter their opponents’ power. Given the high stakes of nuclear war, the two superpowers engaged in a number of wars by proxy. Using a variety of maps, primary sources, and classroom simulation activities, students learn that throughout the Cold War, the United States and the Soviet Union intervened

politically, militarily, and economically in dozens of nations in Asia, Africa, Latin America, the Middle East, and the Caribbean in an effort to protect their strategic interests.

While students will learn about the war in Vietnam in eleventh grade, teachers should select examples of Cold War proxy wars from each continent affected by the global conflict. Students should consider the varied perspectives of the people on the ground in each nation, as well as the American and Soviet interests. This question can help students connect decolonization to Cold War struggles and place them in a comparative context: **How did former colonies respond to the Cold War and liberation?**

These “Third World” interventions intersected with movements for independence and nation-building, creating opportunities for nationalist leaders to improve their political position by playing superpowers against each other. But superpower interventions also complicated internal developments in those regions, often compelling leaders or factions to align with one or the other superpowers and follow their development plans.

Teachers should consider assigning a research project in which students study in depth one “hot spot” in the Cold War, a site of intense conflict outside of the Soviet Union and United States. The Cold War Blueprint provides detailed instructions and sources for these ten hot spots: Algerian War of Independence (1954–1962), Afghanistan (1979–1989), Cambodia (specifically the Cambodian genocide), Angola, Nicaragua, Guatemala, the Congo, Iran, Hungary, and Cuba. The Blueprint is a curriculum developed by the California History–Social Science Project and available for download free of charge (<http://chssp.ucdavis.edu>). A

wave of new states formed throughout Asia and Africa, promising liberal democratic governments and market economies. India led the way in 1947, becoming the world’s largest democracy. Reduced economic opportunities after the oil crisis of the 1970s prompted a wave of migrations from former colonies to imperial metropolises, or former imperial centers. Britain, France, and other Western European nations became increasingly diverse as former subjects relocated there permanently in search of economic opportunity.

As industrialized nations grew more dependent on foreign oil, the Middle East became a central battleground of the Cold War. Students can continue their

comparative studies of the Cold War in the Middle East by considering this question: **How was the Cold War waged all over the world?** In the Middle East, nationalism emerged as powerful force. For example, Iran nationalized its oil industry after World War II, provoking an international backlash that ultimately ended in a CIA-led *coup d'état* in 1953.

Middle Eastern nations also often tried to play one superpower against the other. The legacy of the Holocaust greatly influenced world opinion in favor of the idea of a Jewish state. In 1947, the United Nations passed a partition plan that would have divided the British Mandate for Palestine into separate Jewish and Arab states. When the British Mandate for Palestine expired in 1948, David Ben-Gurion established the Jewish state of Israel. Arab nations, such as Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, Iraq, and parts of Turkey, also achieved their independence through their respective mandates.

Students should return to the Balfour Declaration and recall the competing interests in the creation of Israel. In response to an independent Israel, the Arab states surrounding Israel launched an invasion of the newly declared nation. Students should use this postcolonial and Cold War background as part of the context that frames the ongoing struggles in the Middle East.

After nearly half a century of proxy wars and worldwide tensions related to the Cold War, the Soviet Union collapsed from both internal and external weaknesses. Students consider the question **How and why did the Cold War end?** to chart developments that led to the dissolution of the Soviet Union. Economic problems within the nation and an overburdened military weakened the country. Mikhail Gorbachev's reform policies unintentionally encouraged dissidents to push for even greater change, ultimately leading to the breakup of the Soviet Union. Its disintegration spawned several independent republics, reflecting the principles of national identity and self-determination.

Teachers can use the Cold War Blueprint lesson on the end of the Cold War to help students identify change over time and cause-and-effect in bringing about the end of the Cold War. The lesson highlights the breakdown of *détente*, pressures on the Soviet Union such as the ongoing war in Afghanistan and dissidents, developments in the United States, and the diplomatic relations between the American leaders. These complex interconnected causes help students to navigate the web of worldwide relations through the late 1980s.

Nation-Building in the Contemporary World

- How have nations organized in the post–Cold War world?
- How have nations struggled in similar and different ways to achieve economic, political, and social stability?
- How have developing nations worked together to identify and attempt to solve challenges?

From the World War II years through the contemporary period, former colonies and dependent nations have embraced different political and economic systems in an effort to provide stability and security. Students can study the past 30 years of global history in a comparative context by addressing this question: **How have nations organized in the post-Cold War world?** Through the study of diverse regions and peoples, students learn in this unit that many nations share similar challenges in attempts to unite.

This question can help guide students as they explore common challenges faced by nations: **How have nations struggled in similar and different ways to achieve economic, political, and social stability?** For example, as in some European countries, the presence of multiple ethnic, linguistic, and cultural groups within the borders of an individual state influenced nation-building efforts in developing regions. Further, many places have experienced civil wars or regional disputes that led to civilian casualties. Dictators continue to rule several nation-states. At the same time, other countries have shifted to civilian governments and popular, free, multiparty elections.

In this unit, students can engage in a comparative analysis of postcolonial developments in at least three of the following regions: Africa, the Middle East, Latin America, or China. Students can demonstrate their understanding of the contemporary world through multimedia projects, written reports, or structured oral presentations. Teachers may also want to add a civics component to this unit, in which students are asked to participate in a virtual or real-life situation that connects them to the region or topic of study.

Newly independent nations faced many challenges in the postcolonial era. These new countries inherited colonial borders that artificially divided some ethnic groups into multiple states. The opposite process was equally destructive: new

governments used coercive and authoritarian means in attempts to unify multiple ethnic groups within their inherited colonial borders into nation-states where loyalty centered on the state. In many cases, European nations continued to exercise considerable political and economic influence over former colonies, challenging the autonomy of these states.

Serious problems in achieving economic development contributed to the lowest longevity rates in the world. Although most residents in sub-Saharan Africa experienced modest living for decades, many states have experienced rising standards since the beginning of the millennium. Students may consider more recent developments in Botswana to learn about rising standards of living and engaged citizenship. Several countries have important natural resources, including petroleum, which may assist economic development and improve quality of life in coming years. One of the greatest challenges to stability in Africa has been the AIDS epidemic, which has killed or disabled otherwise productive laborers and taxed economic resources.

Several stable republics exist, however, including Botswana, Ghana, Morocco, and South Africa, where *apartheid* gave way to multiparty democracy in the 1990s, though these countries continue to be challenged by an unequal distribution of wealth, corruption, and one-party rule.

In the Middle East, tensions between Israel and its neighbors remain high, especially over a future Palestinian state (typically referred to as the *two-state solution*) and Arab recognition of Israel. Differences within Islam between Sunni and Shia communities have provided ideological fuel for political controversies. The emergence of Iraq as the first Arab Shia-controlled nation has complicated regional relations. Iran has been a Shia-controlled country for centuries and, since the Islamic Revolution in the late 1970s, has been ostracized by the international community and most regional states.

The fragile political affairs of the area are further aggravated by its strategic importance as a supplier of global oil, unresolved problems of displaced Palestinian refugees, the recurrent use of terrorism, and territorial disputes. The 2009 presidential election protests in Iran and the widespread unrest and political change that began in 2011 (often called the Arab Spring) are important examples of contemporary political change in the region. Careful study of political and

natural resource maps help students understand the relative location and the geopolitical, cultural, military, and economic significance of such key states as Saudi Arabia, Turkey, Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, Israel, Kuwait, Iraq, and Iran.

Latin American conflicts have often reflected differences between indigenous people and *mestizos*, as well as between leftist and conservative ideologies and socialist and capitalist economies. In the 1980s, several Central American states experienced protracted civil wars, but by the 1990s these conflicts had subsided, though the underlying issues remained unresolved. Some states, such as Costa Rica and Peru, have long-lived stable democracies while achieving growth in a globalized economy.

As a case study, students may look at present-day Mexico, a nation shaped by its revolution of 1910–20 and the political, economic, and social system that emerged from it. Among Mexico’s strengths are its sense of national identity, relative political stability, and successful economic development. Students can compare Mexico’s experience in an international context, emphasizing its ties to other Latin American nations as well as its complex relationship with the United States, especially in light of the North American Free Trade Agreement. Students might also investigate why the drug trade (and the violence it spawns) is a serious problem in Mexico and several states in South America. They should also learn about immigration from the Mexican perspective, understanding the plurality of push-and-pull factors that have encouraged Mexican migration over the past thirty years.

Students can explore countries collectively in the developing world by addressing the question **How have developing nations worked together to identify and attempt to solve challenges?** Petroleum exports have been a source of economic vitality for the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) in the Middle East and Latin America. But many other Latin American and African nations have often been forced to rely on the export of a few raw materials as the basis of their economies, which can also fluctuate in value drastically on the world market. As a result, some nations have ended up deeply in debt to foreign banks. They have often turned to international financial institutions, such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) for assistance, which generally require governments to undertake drastic cuts in social services as a condition for receiving loans.

Since the 1980s, several Asian countries (particularly China, Singapore, Hong Kong, South Korea, and Japan) became notable economic success stories. China, in particular, skyrocketed as a major manufacturer of inexpensive goods, which increasingly included electronics. Many historians and political scientists have debated the degree to which China's capitalism is likely to prompt changes in its authoritarian, single-party government.

Some economists project that China, along with India, may lead to Asia's re-emergence as the center of the global economy sometime in the twenty-first century. To understand the full complexity of these new centers of power, students may consider the degree to which governments in these regions support democracy and individual liberties, especially as they seek to confront violence and instability. As students explore future economic trajectories in these regions, they may consider the relationship between capitalist economies and varying degrees of democratic forms of government.

Grade Ten Classroom Example: The End of the Cold War

Ms. Smith's class has been learning about international developments of the 1980s and 1990s. The class has studied developments in South Africa, India, Israel, and Mexico. The last case-study is China. Ms. Smith guides her students through a short lesson that addresses the question **How did China pursue an "alternative path" to reform in the 1980s?** Her goal is to show students how China's economy underwent significant transformations starting in the 1980s and escalating in the 1990s.

Ms. Smith has her students read a three-paragraph secondary source that comes from the *History Blueprint Cold War Unit*, "The End of the Cold War." Her students learn how in the 1980s the Chinese government was controlled by the Communist Party, which was led by Deng Xiaoping. During that decade, the government began a program of economic reforms. In several ways, these reforms abandoned the communist economic model and switched to capitalist incentives. For example, the government broke up many of the communes and allowed each farming household to make its own decisions and sell its produce in the market. Students learn from the secondary source that China's political system did not undergo reform; in fact a series of humanitarian crises,

Example *(continued)*

especially the Tiananmen Square massacre, revealed the differences between open economic and closed political systems.

After going through this secondary source, students read two primary sources and answer scaffolded questions about each: (1) *Deng Xiaoping's Remarks to the Central Committee, February 24, 1984*; and (2) *U.S. State Department Summary, June 5, 1989*. Together, these two documents help students understand China's complex developments. They also provide the necessary context for understanding the role that China plays in the world in contemporary times, which they will learn about in the last unit that focuses on globalization.

Source: This classroom example is a summarized version of the “The End of the Cold War” lesson from *The History Blueprint: The Cold War*, Copyright © 2013, Regents of the University of California, Davis Campus. The History Blueprint is a curriculum developed by the California History–Social Science Project (<http://chssp.ucdavis.edu>). It is designed to increase student literacy and understanding of history. Three units are available free of charge for download from the CHSSP's Web site, including The Cold War, a comprehensive standards-aligned unit for tenth- and eleventh-grade teachers that combines select excerpts of primary sources, original content, and substantive support for student literacy development. For more information or to download the curriculum, visit <http://chssp.ucdavis.edu/programs/historyblueprint>.

CA HSS Content Standard: 10.10

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12): Historical Interpretation 2

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.9–10.2, 3, 9

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.9–10.6a

In their study of the two world wars, students examined the origins and consequences of the Armenian Genocide and the Holocaust. Students should understand that genocide is a phenomenon that has continued throughout the twentieth and into the twenty-first century. Students examine the root causes of the genocides in Cambodia, Rwanda, and Darfur. They should be able to engage in discussions about how genocides can be prevented by the international community. They should also be able to examine arguments and evidence for and against

intervention, the role of public support for the intervention, and the possible consequences of such interventions. In covering this topic, teachers may integrate survivor, rescuer, liberator, and witness oral testimony to students, but should be aware of how images and accounts of genocide may be traumatic for teenagers. The United States Holocaust Memorial Museum has published guidelines for teaching the Holocaust that can be applied to other genocides as well.

Economic Integration and Contemporary Revolutions in Information, Technology, and Communications

- How has globalization affected people, nations, and capital?
- How has the post–Cold War world and globalization facilitated extremist and terrorist organizations?

World War II accelerated the trend of globalization, the freer and faster movement of people, ideas, capital, and resources across borders. The question **How has globalization affected people, nations, and capital?** can guide students' investigation through this last unit. Globalization was seen in transnational developments such as the formation of international organizations such as the United Nations, which attempted to create a forum for nations to resolve their differences and to work collaboratively on global issues. For example, the United Nations established universal standards for human rights and became a forum for women's rights and civil rights activists. Knowledge of scientific and medical breakthroughs has spread worldwide through international efforts to address problems of disease, natural disasters, and environmental degradation.

Economic globalization took the form of multinational corporations and international financial institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank, and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), which supported loans for development and endorsed the principle of free trade. The World Trade Organization (WTO) replaced GATT in 1995. Regional trading blocs also developed, most notably in Europe and later in North America.

Key to economic globalization was the development of communications technology that enabled financial information and funds to move easily across

borders. New technologies also facilitated the spread of consumer products and popular films, television shows, advertising, and other media events around the globe. New economic opportunities and liberalized immigration laws prompted the revival of global migration beginning in the 1960s and accelerated global economic exchange. Global consumption patterns created homogenized cultural experiences in the global cities that sprang up around the world; for example, critics assert that the “McDonaldization” of the world effectively Americanizes diverse cities.

Other negative effects of globalization have become apparent. Critics point to environmental concerns, the impact on child labor, women’s rights, and other issues. Using cost–benefit analysis, students may examine the differential impact of globalization by dramatizing a mock Congressional hearing on NAFTA, including roles for American, Canadian, and Mexican business owners, farmers, and workers. Students may also work through a variety of globalization issues through Model United Nations simulations.

Globalization also contributed to breakthroughs in medical and scientific technology, which have improved average health and longevity worldwide. Health problems did not disappear, however. Disease and mortality worldwide remained a function of location and financial resources, with the poorest people—typically in Africa and parts of Asia—facing the most intractable problems. Ironically, other health problems such as obesity and heart disease were greatest in the most prosperous nations, where overabundance of food rather than scarcity was the greater challenge.

As the twenty-first century began, researchers, international aid organizations, and intergovernmental groups continued to work to address a variety of health challenges worldwide. Advances from a green revolution in agriculture as well as inexpensive and efficient methods of accessing water and energy have offered hope to confront the enduring problems of accessing resources.

Globalization and its critics have contributed to the rise and spreading popularity of extremist movements. Students can learn about twenty-first century developments related to globalization by addressing this question: **How has the post-Cold War world and globalization facilitated extremist and terrorist organizations?** Students should address this question and related topics with the complexity that it deserves. One way to explore worldwide developments is by

investigating themes that characterize recent history and world affairs. Students should be encouraged to bring their studies up to date, to read and view primary sources that represent a wide variety of perspectives from people around the globe, and to analyze the historical roots of these developments.

The following four thematic topics that frame recent history are excerpted and adapted from appendix D, “Teaching the Contemporary World.” In the contemporary world, there has been a tension between integrative and disintegrative forces. The first topic, “The New Geopolitics,” asks whether the world is becoming more or less peaceful and whether the nature of conflict is changing. The second topic, “The Impact of Globalization,” highlights processes of economic globalization and asks what benefits they have brought—and at what costs. The third topic, “Rights, Religion, and Identity,” asks how ideas about universal human rights may relate to other value and identity systems in the contemporary world, including resurgent religiosity. The fourth topic, “A New Role for the West,” asks whether the Western world, the dominant force in world politics since the late fifteenth century, is in decline today.

What is the role of the West now that the colonial era has ended, now that Western prosperity depends on borrowing from East Asia, and now that the international influence of Western powers is being supplanted by rising states, notably Brazil, Russia, India, and China?

The New Geopolitics

Over the past 20 years, the world has oscillated between dreams of perpetual peace and the despair of enduring conflict. A new era began on November 9, 1989, when the Berlin Wall tumbled, marking the Cold War’s peaceful end—a *denouement* to a 40-year conflict that few had dared to entertain. That era seemed to end on September 11, 2001, when 19 Islamic extremists sponsored by Al Qaeda in an effort to make a political statement, hijacked and crashed civilian airliners into the World Trade Center in New York City and the Pentagon building in Washington, D.C., murdering almost 3,000 civilians. Since 9/11, the hopes for a more peaceful world that the end of the Cold War spawned have been displaced by a resurgence of international conflict, especially in the Middle East and Central Asia. Although the major powers have avoided war with each other, the tenor of international relations became more hostile after 9/11, as long-standing

international friendships (e.g., between the United States and Europe) deteriorated and old animosities rekindled (e.g., Russia and the West).

When the Cold War ended with the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 and the breakdown of the Soviet Union in 1991, what kind of world did it bequeath? Why did the vision of a “New World Order” that U.S. President George H. W. Bush articulated in 1990—a vision of a world more stable, pacific, and predictable than the world of the past—fail to come to pass? Did 9/11 change everything? Or was the world in the 1990s less stable than it might have appeared at the time?

The Impact of Globalization

Globalization has become a buzzword of the post-Cold War era, but it is not the first era to have experienced significant economic, social, and cultural integration. During the late nineteenth century, the transatlantic economy was at least as globalized as it is today, with capital and goods flowing freely across the ocean and labor moving between countries without the legal barriers that restrict immigration today. The world since the 1970s has experienced a return to the globalizing patterns of the past. The advent of electronic communications, the dramatic decline in international transportation costs associated with containerized shipping, and the deregulation of markets have led to economic integration of nations and even a convergence in social trends, cultural patterns, and consumption habits.

In part because of globalization, a new range of nonstate or “transnational” international actors—including multinational corporations, offshore banks, and international nongovernmental organizations (NGOs)—have come to coexist, sometimes uneasily, with the nation-states that remain the dominant elements of international society.

Economists generally credit economic globalization with having increased the world’s overall levels of wealth and well-being. Yet globalization has not necessarily reduced economic inequalities among societies. In part, this is because the mobility that capital (i.e., money) and goods enjoy in a globalized economy is not fully shared by labor. Although manufacturers in a high-wage country, like the United States, can now easily relocate production for the American market to a low-wage country, like Mexico, in order to reduce costs, it is much more difficult for Mexican workers to immigrate legally to the United States and vice versa.

These differences in the treatment of capital, goods, and labor may explain why globalization in the contemporary era has not reduced income inequalities among nations as effectively as it did in the late nineteenth century, when mass migration diminished transatlantic income inequalities. Although globalization has increased overall global wealth, it has also bred discontent. Critics in the industrialized world blame globalization for “exporting” jobs. In the developing world, critics accuse multinational corporations of exploiting low-wage and child laborers, proliferating slums, polluting local ecosystems, and sustaining an Americanizing consumer culture.

Although globalization has bound societies together in mutual interdependence, it has also promoted the spread of multinational corporations whose activities far transcend the jurisdictions of individual nation-states. These corporations include some of the most iconic and successful companies in the world today. Although the history of the multinational corporation reaches back to the Dutch and English East Indian trading companies of the seventeenth century, what makes the modern multinational corporation distinctive is its capacity to spread the production process across different countries. Apple’s iPod, for example, is designed in northern California and assembled in China, from components that originate in Japan, Taiwan, Korea, Singapore, and many other countries. A leading example of “modular” production, the iPod’s cosmopolitan origins reflect the new realities of the integrated twenty-first century economy.

Globalization does not affect only production, it has also shaped the tastes and expectations of consumers. The ascent of multinational business and new marketing techniques in the second half of the twentieth century have contributed toward the convergence of consumer tastes and preferences, often around instantly recognizable “global” brands. Such transformations lead some critics to argue that globalization has displaced local cultures with a single, homogenizing, global fashion.

Yet globalization, as most social scientists understand the term, involves more than simple economic integration. It implies the convergence of societies around a common version of modernity; it suggests that the world is shrinking and the peoples who inhabit it are becoming more like one another. Globalization empowers big, multinational business, but it has also brought the rise of transnational organizations. These include both activist networks such as Amnesty

International and Greenpeace and, more troublingly, criminal and terrorist organizations that work across national borders.

As globalization has limited the autonomy of nations and has empowered nonstate actors, it may have troubling implications for the modern nation-state. As students will have learned in grade ten, the nation-state grew in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries in response to larger, modernizing changes. Industrialization, class conflict, and the business cycle in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries all contributed to the expansion of state authority, as governments assumed responsibilities for the well-being of their citizens and the stability of their national economies.

In the contemporary world, however, the authority of the nation-state appears increasingly feeble in relation to the globalization of economic and other activities. Consequently, there are challenging questions about the future of governance in an integrating global society. The United Nations resembles an international forum rather than an international government, and its ability to impose standards (such as environmental regulations or consumer protection law) on its own members remains very limited. Students should be able to identify a range of issues—including sustainable development—that could be described as “transnational” in scope. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the United Nations when it comes to dealing with problems (whether economic, criminal, or environmental) that cross international borders? What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of being able to draw world powers together in one place but not being able to independently enforce the agreements they may enter into?

Rights, Religion, and Identity

During the Enlightenment, as students will have learned, the proponents of “natural rights” argued that all human beings enjoyed inalienable freedoms—including the freedom to oppose oppressive governments. This claim was enshrined in the American Declaration of Independence (1776) and the French Assembly’s Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen (1789). Yet the Enlightenment’s vision of universal natural rights was not incorporated into international law until 1948, when the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, building on an upsurge in concern for human rights associated with World War II, affirmed a broad range of freedoms for all individuals regardless of their

citizenship, ethnicity, or gender. These rights fell into two broad categories: legal and political rights, including freedom from persecution and bodily harm; and social and economic rights, including rights to material sustenance, health, education, and to gainful employment.

Yet, the Universal Declaration, for all the nobility of its sentiments, was largely subordinated during its first decades to the convention of state sovereignty. In this respect, the limits of the Universal Declaration mirrored those of the United Nations: although it asserted the human rights accruing to all men and women, regardless of their citizenship, the Universal Declaration included no mechanisms to compel recalcitrant governments to respect the rights of their citizens.

Since the 1970s, concern for human rights began to rise. In part, the ascent of ideas about human rights had to do with NGOs such as Freedom House, Human Rights Watch, and Doctors Without Borders and those NGOs committed to increasing public knowledge about human rights and humanitarian law such as Human Rights Education Associates (HREA), the Education and Outreach program of the International Committee of the Red Cross, and more recently HRE USA. Such groups publicized human rights abuses perpetrated by both right- and left-wing regimes. Their work was facilitated by innovations in communications technologies, including satellite broadcasting, which made the abuse of human rights more visible than had previously been the case in foreign countries. From this perspective, the growth of concern for human rights in the contemporary era was part of a larger globalizing process.

At the same time, the emergence of human rights as a major foreign policy concern for the United States and other Western countries also had to do with the Cold War. From the 1970s, the U.S. and its allies promoted human rights as a way to attack the legitimacy of the authoritarian Soviet Union—a country that routinely abused its own citizens. The tactic enjoyed considerable success, and human rights activists such as Pope John Paul II, Lech Walesa (Poland), Vaclav Havel (Czechoslovakia), and Andrei Sakharov (Russia) played an important role in eroding the legitimacy of communist rule, helping to bring the Cold War to an end.

Western countries, for the most part, tend to have more complex relationships with the idea that human rights have become an international concern. Most Western countries now describe the promotion of human rights in foreign

countries as a central objective for their own foreign policies, even though most of them face criticism from groups such as Amnesty International for conditions at home (e.g., overcrowded prisons, wrongful convictions, or the death penalty, or the persistence of conditions inconsistent with standards of economic, social and cultural rights).

If the campaign for human rights is a universalizing movement that asserts the basic similarity of human expectations across time and place, the contemporary era has also witnessed a dramatic movement toward diversity in the form of a worldwide religious revival. Reflecting on the history of modern nationalism, students may perceive some similarities in the ways in which both human rights and religion assert the existence of authorities higher than national governments, whether in the form of “natural law” or holy law. Both religious leaders and human rights activists affirm that the individual is not only a citizen of his or her country; he or she may also be a member of an “identity community” far larger than the nation-state, whether the entire human race or a community of religious believers spanning many different countries.

The global revival of religiosity has been a defining characteristic of the times. It is also a development that would have surprised academic theorists of secularization in the 1960s and 1970s who argued that religion was in irrevocable decline. In a reflection of the resurgence of religion in many parts of the world over the past 30 years, politics has become increasingly infused with the language of faith.

The revival of religion has, in some respects, created new cleavages in world politics, both within and among societies. Anti-Western violence perpetrated by the followers of a fundamentalist version of Islam has contributed to the



appearance of deep conflict between the Islamic and Western worlds, especially since 9/11. Students should learn about the roots of modern Islamic extremism by reading a variety of sources—for example, from Egyptian writers and the Muslim Brotherhood. In numerous societies, such as Nigeria, the Sudan, and India, the revival of religion—and of religion

as an expression of political identity—has bred tension and even outright violence among members of neighboring religious communities.

In societies around the world, the proponents of religious orthodoxies have found themselves in conflict with secularists, whether in battles over headscarves in Istanbul and Paris or over prayer in American schools. Although the resurgence of religion has been a transnational phenomenon affecting many different countries, students ought to be aware that it has been less pronounced in some areas of the world, notably Western Europe and China, than in others. Students may investigate whether the world is becoming more or less religious, and what the implications of religion are for international relations and for domestic politics in the United States and other societies. Why has Western Europe (so far) seemed to remain separated from this global trend?

A New Role for the West

Perhaps the most dramatic story of the second millennium (1000–1999 CE) has been the rise of Europe—a remote, salty, and windswept corner of Eurasia—to global dominance. The “Rise of the West” was a transformative movement in world history, and it brought tumultuous consequences for the entire world. Students should have studied the reasons for Europe’s rise to dominance in the early modern era, from the growth of the seaborne trading companies of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries to the spread of colonies in the eighteenth and nineteenth. Have Europe and its Western offshoots, including the United States, now entered a phase of relative historical decline? This is a historical transformation that students should consider carefully, especially insofar as it relates to the “rise” of new powers such as India and the People’s Republic of China.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, Europe was dominant, and its eclipse was a central theme. Exhausted by two world wars and unable to hold back powerful nationalist movements in the colonial world, the European colonial empires collapsed in the thirty years after 1945. Simultaneously, the major west European countries created among themselves a novel confederal apparatus—the European Union—to integrate their economies and to provide a modicum of political unity. As an economic initiative, the European Union has been highly successful: per capita incomes in Europe remain very high, and the west European region has enjoyed an unprecedented phase of peace and cooperation. Yet Europe

remains dependent on U.S. commitments to NATO (the North Atlantic Treaty Organization) for its military security, and even the leading European powers are now unable or unwilling to exert significant military force beyond the European continent. Global movements of refugees and global economic forces also challenge the stability achieved by the European Union.

Although the United States, in contrast to Western Europe, remains the most powerful state in the international system, it faces similar challenges. Like Europe, the United States is committed to large welfare and social security programs that may prove difficult to fund in the future, as the postwar baby boomers retire and the country's working population shrinks due to the large number of retirees. In the world economy, the United States appears less dominant than it once was. No longer a net exporter of manufactured goods to the rest of the world (as it was from the 1890s to the 1970s), the U.S. accumulates trade deficits and borrows from foreign countries to finance its imports. Its position in the global economy has become that of a consumer of last resort, a role that it can sustain only so long as others remain willing to extend financial credit to cover its deficits.

China has come to play a very different kind of role in the international economy. Already the world's most populous country, China is projected to overtake the U.S. as the largest economy by the middle of the twenty-first century. At some point during the twenty-first century, India will overtake China as the world's most populous country. Together with Japan, a country whose remarkable postwar recovery in the 1950s and 1960s made it a leading economic power, it seems clear that Asia will be the center of global economic activity in the twenty-first century.

Contemporary trends—the diversification of economic power and the globalization of production, Europe's military decline, and a shift in the world's demographic center of gravity away from the North Atlantic—are finally reversing what historians have called the “Great Divergence” of the eighteenth century: a shift in which European growth rates leaped ahead of Asian ones. Among the most significant developments of this era, then, has been Asia's return to the leading position in the world that it occupied before the rise of the West.

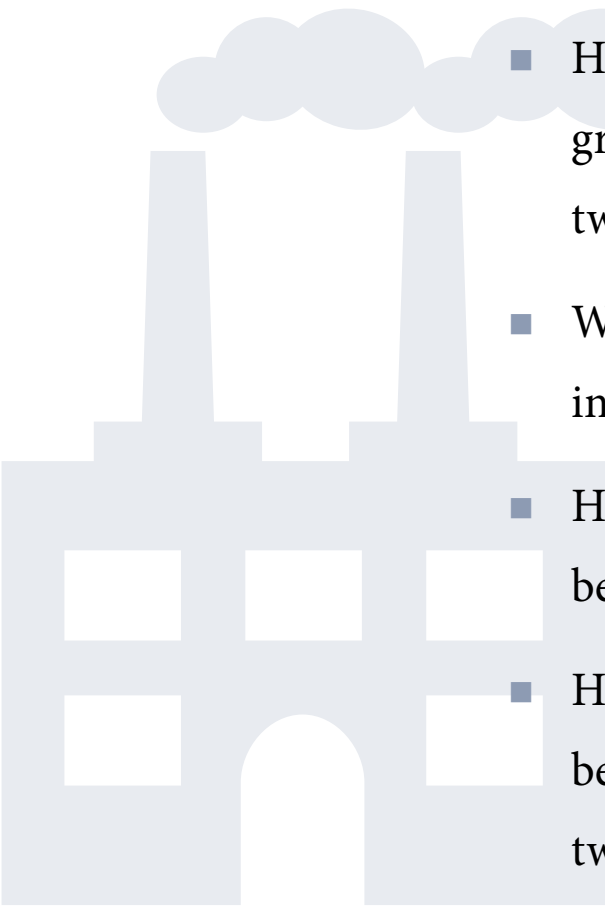
Exacerbating the West's relative decline, oil-rich states such as Saudi Arabia, Iran, and Venezuela control the energy supplies on which its prosperity depends. At the

same time, climate effects traceable in part to the environmental consequences of reliance on fossil fuels are leading to demands for changes in the way energy is produced and used. Meanwhile, climate change has contributed to political and economic upheavals that are changing patterns of human migration and fueling regional conflicts. Elsewhere, countries such as Brazil have broken out of former patterns of Cold War subservience and economic dependency to become dominant regional and, increasingly, global powers. The present global scene now appears less predictable, less hierarchical, and—potentially—less stable than in past centuries.

This page is left blank intentionally.

CHAPTER 16

United States History and Geography: Continuity and Change in Modern United States History

- 
- How did the federal government grow between the late nineteenth and twenty-first centuries?
 - What does it mean to be an American in modern times?
 - How did the United States become a superpower?
 - How did the United States' population become more diverse over the twentieth century?

In this course, students examine major developments and turning points in American history from the late nineteenth century to the present. During the year, the following themes are emphasized: the expanding role of the federal government; the emergence of a modern corporate economy and the role of organized labor; the role of the federal government and Federal Reserve System in regulating the economy; the impact of technology on American society and culture; changes in racial, ethnic, and gender dynamics in American society; the movements toward equal rights for racial, ethnic, religious, and sexual minorities and for women; and the rise of the United States as a major world power.

As students survey nearly 150 years of American history, they learn how geography shaped many of these developments, especially in terms of the country's position on the globe, its climate, and abundant natural resources. In each unit, students examine American culture, including religion, literature, art, music, drama, architecture, education, and the mass media.

The content covered in grade eleven is expansive, and the discipline-specific skills that are to be taught are equally demanding. To highlight significant developments, trends, and events, teachers should use guiding questions around which their curriculum may be organized. Organizing content around questions of historical significance allows students to develop their understanding of that content in greater depth. Guiding questions also allow teachers the leeway to prioritize their content and highlight particular skills through students' investigations of the past.

Questions that can frame the year-long content for eleventh grade are as follows: **How did the federal government grow between the late nineteenth and twenty-first centuries? What does it mean to be an American in modern times? How did the United States become a superpower? How did the United States' population become more diverse over the twentieth century?**

As students learn American history from the late 1800s through the 2010s, they should be encouraged to develop reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills that will enhance their understanding of the content. As in earlier grades, students should be taught that history is an investigative discipline, one that is continually reshaped based on research in primary sources and on new perspectives that can be uncovered. Students should be encouraged to read multiple primary and

secondary sources; to understand multiple perspectives; to learn about how some things change over time and others tend not to; and they should appreciate that each historical era has its own context and it is up to the student of history to make sense of the past on these terms by asking questions about it.

Connecting with Past Studies: The Nation’s Beginnings

- What are key tenets of American democracy?
- How did the country change because of the Civil War and Reconstruction in the nineteenth century?

The course begins with a selective review of United States history, with an emphasis on two major topics—*the nation’s beginnings*, linked to the tenth-grade retrospective on the Enlightenment and the rise of democratic ideas; and *the industrial transformation of the new nation*, linked to the students’ tenth-grade studies of the global spread of industrialism during the nineteenth century.

Special attention is given to the ideological origins of the American Revolution and its grounding in the democratic political tradition and the natural rights philosophy of the Founding Fathers, especially the ideas of liberty, equality, and individual pursuit of happiness. This framing of the Constitution provides a background for understanding the contemporary constitutional issues raised throughout this course.

Students may wish to participate in any number of Constitution Day activities on September 17. Students address the question **What are key tenets of American democracy?** Teachers may want to highlight the emergence of a free, democratic system of government alongside an entrenched system of chattel slavery that lasted for nearly a century. The question **How have American freedom and slavery coexisted in the nation’s past?** reminds students of the parallel—and seemingly paradoxical—relationship.

Students can continue with a selective review of American government by considering this question: **How did the country change because of the Civil War and Reconstruction in the nineteenth century?** The events leading up to the Civil War, the successes and failures of Reconstruction, and informal and formal

segregation brought on by Jim Crow laws also provide context for understanding racial inequities in late-nineteenth-century America. To help students understand the history of the Constitution after 1787, teachers pay particular attention to the post-Civil War amendments (Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth), which laid the foundation for the legal phase of the twentieth-century civil rights movement.

The amended Constitution gave the federal government increased power over the states, especially for the extension of equal rights and an inclusive definition of citizenship. A focus on these topics later on in the course allows for a comparative study of the civil rights movement over time as ethnic and racial minorities experienced it.

In addition to the civil rights groundwork laid by the Reconstruction-era Constitutional Amendments, students should closely read the Fourteenth Amendment as it has been continually reinterpreted and applied to different contexts by the courts; for example, sometimes it has been employed as a protection for workers and other times as a protection for corporations. In the context of the late nineteenth century, civil right advocates such as Booker T. Washington, the founder of Tuskegee Institute and author of the 1895 Atlanta Exposition address, and W. E. B. Du Bois, a founder of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and author of *The Souls of Black Folk*, had different perspectives on the means of achieving greater progress and equality for African Americans. Racial violence, discrimination, and segregation inhibited African Americans' economic mobility, opportunity, and political participation.

As background for their later studies about challenges to Jim Crow segregation, students understand the meaning of “separate but equal,” as both a legal term and as a reality that effectively limited the life chances of African Americans by denying them equal opportunity for jobs, housing, education, health care, and voting rights.

Industrialization, Urbanization, Immigration, and Progressive Reform

- How did America's economy, industries, and population grow after the Civil War?

- Who came to the United States at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century? Why did they come? What was their experience like when they arrived?
- How did the federal government impact the country's growth in the years following the Civil War?
- Why did women want the right to vote, and how did they convince men to grant it to them?

In the second unit, students concentrate on the nineteenth-century growth of the nation as an industrial power and the resulting societal changes. This question can frame students' initial investigation of this era: **How did America's economy, industries, and population grow after the Civil War?** A brief retrospective of the grade-ten study of the industrial revolution helps to set the global context for America's economic and social development. *Industrialization* —an umbrella term that describes the major changes in technology, transportation, communication, the economy, and political system that fostered the growth—allowed for ballooning prosperity at the turn of the century.

New technology in farming, manufacturing, engineering, and the production of consumer goods created material abundance. The flood of new items supported a larger and more urban population, and it made the producers of the goods very wealthy when prices were stable. Industrialization made possible the wide-scale use of McCormick Reapers, hydropower mining, assembly lines, high-rise buildings, chain stores, and eventually automobiles, among many other technological feats from the turn of the century. These and other features of modern life seemed to confirm the idea of unending progress.

By pooling together capital to minimize risk and increase profits, American entrepreneurs generated unprecedented wealth. Some large businesses in the nineteenth century grew by organizing into trusts and monopolies and through integration. Students can learn about different kinds of business growth in the nineteenth century by comparing vertical integration with horizontal integration. In the Gilded Age, the meatpacking industry integrated vertically by consolidating the many levels of bringing meat to the marketplace, but the oil industry integrated horizontally by having one company (Standard Oil) take over all refineries. Students may compare the strategies used by businesses in employing these two

organizational strategies as well as the potential impact on consumers. Students also examine the emergence of industrial giants, “robber barons,” anti-union tactics, and the gaudy excesses of the Gilded Age.

Widespread corruption among industrialists and governing officials resulted in city bosses and local officials consolidating a great deal of power. The perceived economic progress of the late nineteenth century was repeatedly disrupted by prolonged periods of severe financial distress; the country suffered several economic recessions during the intense boom-and-bust cycles at the end of the nineteenth century.

Industrialization also had a serious impact on farmers, which students may learn about by considering the following questions: **How were farmers affected by industrialization? How did they respond to industrialization?** Advances in the nineteenth century, like the McCormick Reaper, made agriculture much more efficient, but it also meant that farmers had to invest in new technology to stay afloat. As farms became more productive, prices of agricultural products fell. In 1865 the price of a bushel of wheat was \$1.50; by 1894 the price of that same bushel was \$0.49.

To stay afloat and compete, some farmers entered a cycle of debt that often included tenant farming or sharecropping as well as the borrowing of seeds and tools from a furnishing merchant. The problem quickly grew as furnishing merchants charged farmers exorbitant interest rates of about 60 percent. This cycle left farmers in a state of debt peonage. Farmers started to feel that they had lost their independence because they were dependent on furnishing agents, banks, and railroads, who also charged farmers high interest rates.

Because of these shared economic grievances, farmers started to organize and unite in protest. The first Farmers Alliance started in Texas in the 1870s, and by the 1880s there were millions of members in the Midwest and the South. Serving a social, cultural, and political purpose, Farmers Alliances started to create cooperatives that collectively demanded lower shipping and storage rates from railroads and better loans from banks. They pooled their economic resources into local granges to afford the newest and most efficient equipment and to lobby for cheaper prices for materials. The cooperatives even asked the federal government to establish the Subtreasury System whereby the government set up storage silos

(or subtreasuries) in urban centers, and when a farmer deposited a crop in the silo, the government would loan the farmer a percentage of the crop value to buy new seeds for the next season at a low interest rate.

To promote their ideas, farmers created a third political party in 1890, which by 1892 became national in focus and was called the People's Party, or the Populists, which called for a government that would serve "the plain people." Throughout the 1890s, the Populists united farmers in the South and the West. Though by the 1896 election, the Democratic candidate—William Jennings Bryan—effectively co-opted much of the Populist platform and ideology, and farmers threw their support behind the Democrats.

The people who fueled industrialization in the nation's expanding urban centers migrated domestically from more rural areas and came from nations all over the world. Students may consider these questions to organize their study of immigration: **Who came to the United States at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century? Why did they come? What was their experience like when they arrived?** A distinct wave of southern and eastern European immigration between the 1890s and 1910s (distinct from an earlier mid-nineteenth-century wave of immigration that resulted from European developments such as the Great Irish Famine) brought tens of millions of darker-skinned, non-English-speaking, non-Protestant migrants to American cities.

Pushed from their homelands for economic, political, and religious reasons, this diverse group was pulled to America with hope for economic opportunities and political freedom. Asian immigration continued to affect the development of the West despite a series of laws aimed to restrict migration from the Western Hemisphere, including the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 and the Alien Land Act of 1913. The southwest borders continued to be quite fluid, making the United States an increasingly diverse nation in the early twentieth century.

Industrialization affected not only the demographic makeup and economic growth of the country; it changed the way that ordinary people lived, worked, and interacted with one another. At the turn of the century, a growing number of the U.S. population lived in urban areas in small, crowded quarters, often termed *tenements*. Designed to house as many individuals as possible, tenements were notorious for poor ventilation, lack of sanitation, and substandard construction.

These qualities made crowd-diseases and fires especially deadly in cities like Chicago and New York. In addition to living in unsafe housing, many workers—especially immigrants who recently arrived—found work in urban factories where low wages, long hours, child labor, and dangerous working conditions were all commonplace. Students study the labor movement’s growth, despite the repeated efforts of corporations to use violence against labor protests. To learn about the labor movement on the ground, students might conduct a mock legislative hearing to investigate the causes and consequences of the Haymarket riot in Chicago in 1886.

Grade Eleven Classroom Example: Working Children

Mr. Gavin’s eleventh-grade U.S. history class gets an up-close view of daily life for working-class children in their studies of industrialization. On the first day, he poses a question to the class: **How old should you have to be to work?** After discussing with students how most Americans (until the end of the nineteenth century) lived on farms and the children worked alongside parents during most harvesting seasons, Mr. Gavin asks students to speculate as to the similarities and differences between working on a family farm and working in a factory. Using a *Child Labor Law Pamphlet* from the California Department of Industrial Relations and their own personal experience, students brainstorm a list of current age-related labor restrictions. While students compile their list, Mr. Gavin asks whether jobs should have age limits at all, especially if the wages the child brought home would enable the family to have enough to eat, for example. After listing on the board important factors that guide understanding of age limits in the workplace, Mr. Gavin then tells students they will do a gallery walk to learn about child labor around the turn of the century.

Mr. Gavin has displayed on the walls of his classroom a number of Lewis Hines photographs that document child labor. He has organized four stations with each one containing a few images around a theme. The themes are (1) children and factory work, (2) children and mining, (3) children posed alone, (4) children in their homes. Before students start viewing the images, he hands them a photograph-analysis page and instructs them to select one photograph at each station to report on and closely analyze. On the photograph-analysis

Example *(continued)*

page, students are directed to (1) collect all available bibliographic information (time, date, subjects, for example); (2) write a one-sentence explanation of what they see in the photograph, including an estimation of the child's age; (3) collect information about what the child is wearing or not wearing that might provide clues about status (e.g., Is a child working in a factory wearing shoes? What might this reveal about money?); (4) assess what they think the perspective or agenda of the photographer is and provide one piece of evidence why they think that (encourage students to think about the role of the photographer beyond bringing an objective lens); (5) make connections to historical content already studied (e.g., Does it relate to industrialization or immigration?).

After students have viewed the stations, collected information about the four images, and documented it on their graphic organizers, they report to the class. They follow a structured discussion protocol in which students are paired and take turns synthesizing their responses from the graphic organizer, using sentence starters (“Overall, we can say that . . .,” “The main point seems to be . . .,” “As a result of this conversation, we think that . . .,” “A summary of our evidence might be . . .,” “The evidence seems to suggest . . .”) to ask probing questions about the partner's reports. Finally, Mr. Gavin has a brief conversation with the whole class and asks them to focus closely on what Lewis Hines hoped to communicate, pointing out that most images are posed photographs. Mr. Gavin also asks students to return to the original question about how old children should be to work, by asking students to write a letter to the editor of a newspaper that had just published Hines' photographs. In their letters, students are encouraged to discuss their analysis of Hines' work, as well as both the justification(s) for and problems resulting from child labor in an argumentative essay format, using evidence from the photographs, as well as other primary sources depicting or describing life during the industrial age.

Mr. Gavin concludes this lesson by building upon the themes outlined in his students' essays as he transitions to a discussion of Progressive-era reformers.

Example *(continued)*

Source: Classroom activity adapted from teacher Jessica Williams’ structured discussion lessons, as detailed in “Conversations in the Common Core Classroom,” by Letty Kraus, in *The Source*, pp. 26–30, a publication of the California History–Social Science Project. Copyright © 2015, Regents of the University of California.

CA HSS Content Standard: 11.2.1

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12): Chronological and Spatial Thinking 1; Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View 4; Historical Interpretation 3

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.11–12.1, 2, 7, 8, WHST.11–12.1, 9, SL.11–12.1c

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.11–12.1, 3, 6b, 10a, 11a

Nevertheless, in the problem-ridden environments of recently industrialized cities, many people found the opportunities of city life to be exciting. Thriving urban centers became havens for the middle-class single women who played an important role in the settlement house movement. These women established collective homes in the poor areas of cities and often formed marriage-like relationships, known as “Boston marriages,” with one another as they worked to provide services.

In addition, in these growing cities, poorer young women and men who moved from farms and small towns to take employment in factories, offices, and shops found themselves free from familial and community supervision in the urban environment. At nights and on weekends, they flocked to new forms of commercialized entertainment such as amusement parks, dance halls, and movie theaters, and engaged in less restricted forms of intimacy, alarming some middle-class reformers. The more anonymous environment of cities also made space for men and women seeking relationships with one another and with someone of the same sex. By the end of the century, concepts of homosexuality and heterosexuality became defined as discrete categories of identity. This had consequences for the ways that people thought about intimate relationships between people of the same gender.

While primarily working-class youths found excitement in the opportunities of the city, a group of reformers—broadly termed *progressives*—also emerged around the turn of the century and sought to remedy some of the problems arising from industrialization. Primarily composed of white, middle-class, Protestant, college-

educated people (often women), progressives aimed to identify urban problems, work closely with communities to solve them, and then lobby the government to institute broader reforms to prevent future suffering.

One of the first tasks was to take on the widespread corruption of bosses and government officials, as well as civil service reform. Female reformers took advantage of new opportunities for education and employment previously reserved for men. Students may study Jane Addams, Florence Kelley, and Margaret Culbertson, who engaged in progressive work such as forming alliances with labor unions and business interests to press for state reforms in working conditions, lobbying to clean up local government corruption, seeking to improve public services, and establishing rescue or settlement homes.

Progressives, in particular, tried to address problems of immigrants, and especially the children, through advocacy of the Americanization movement, which sought to assimilate European immigrants into becoming Americans through schooling, cultural and social practices, and at work. Although the approach taken by the movement is questionable by today's standards, which generally embrace having a plurality of experiences in the country, analyzing the Americanization movement offers students an opportunity to think historically, employing cause-and-effect and the skill of contextualization to understand the movement as a product of its time.

The historical context that gave rise to the Americanization movement also included social Darwinism, laissez-faire economics, as well as the religious reformism associated with the ideal of the Social Gospel. Together these ideas reinforced the notion that those with the will and strength for hard work could attain individual progress. But these notions also reflected an increasing concern about the changing face of America, and some leaders called into question whether all people could be fit for citizenship.

Although attempts to build new political parties, such as the Populists and Progressive Party, around the cause of reform ultimately failed, progressive legislation led to an expansion of the role of the federal government in regulating business, commerce, labor, mining, and agriculture during the administrations of Presidents Roosevelt, Taft, and Wilson. Students may investigate this question as they consider shifts in the government: **How did the federal government impact**

the country's growth in the years following the Civil War? During these same years, progressive state legislation regulated child labor, the minimum wage, the eight-hour day, and mandatory public education, as well as supplied women in many states with the vote. The president who is most often associated with implementing progressive reforms is Theodore Roosevelt. After the assassination of Republican President William McKinley in 1901, Roosevelt instituted significant national reforms, expanded the role of the federal government in order to do things like control trusts, and took charge of national land to develop the national parks system. He embodied the progressive sentiment that called upon the government to restore and preserve freedom because the sense was that only by working through the government could the power of big business be harnessed and people protected.

Because progressivism called for an expanded government to protect individuals, it is only natural that expanding voting rights were deemed equally important. In California, women received the right to vote in 1911; on the national level, it took several more years. Students read about leading suffragists and their organizations, especially the National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA) and the National Women's Party (NWP). This question can frame students' exploration of the woman's suffrage movement: **Why did women want the right to vote, and how did they convince men to grant it to them?** Progressive impulses also challenged big-city bosses and government corruption; rallied public indignation against trusts; pushed for greater urban policing, social work, and institutionalization related to gender, sexuality, race, and class; and played a major role in national politics in the pre-World War I era.

Moreover, labor and social justice movements also called for education reform, better living conditions, wage equality, more social freedom for women, and sometimes acceptance of, or at least tolerance for, women and men living outside of traditional heterosexual roles and relationships. Excerpts from the works of muckrakers, reformers, and radical thinkers such as Lincoln Steffens, Jacob Riis, Ida Tarbell, Helen Hunt Jackson, Joseph Mayer Rice, Emma Goldman, and Jane Addams and novels by writers such as Theodore Dreiser, Upton Sinclair, and Frank Norris will help set the scene for students.

The Rise of the United States as a World Power

- How did America’s role in the world change between the 1870s and 1910s?
- Did the United States become an imperial power? Why or why not?
- How did America change because of World War I?

In grade ten, students studied America’s growing influence as a world power in the global context of nineteenth-century European imperialism. The United States protected and promoted its economic and political interests overseas during this intense period of global competition for raw materials, markets, and colonial possessions. In grade eleven, students learn about these developments from an American perspective. This question can frame their studies of this topic: **How did America’s role in the world change between the 1870s and 1910s?** Presidents William McKinley, Theodore Roosevelt, William Taft, and Woodrow Wilson all sought to expand the United States’ interests beyond its borders. A noteworthy example of this was the Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine, which argued for American intervention in Latin America. American foreign policy aimed to promote business interests abroad because of concerns about oversaturated markets at home.

This concern for encouraging open markets that would be friendly to business interests became tied to promotion of American-style democracy and civilizing missions. As President Woodrow Wilson once told a group of American businessmen: “Lift your eyes to the horizons of business, let your thoughts and your imagination run abroad throughout the whole world, and with the inspiration of the thought that you are Americans and are meant to carry liberty and justice and the principles of humanity wherever you go, go out and sell goods that will make the world more comfortable and more happy, and convert them to the principles of America.”

Students may consider the nation’s objectives and attitudes about other nations and diverse people in analyzing its immigration policy, limitations, and scrutiny of those already in the U.S., and exclusion of people considered to have disabilities, as well as foreign policy, including the American Open Door policy, and expansion into the South Pacific and Caribbean following the Spanish-American and Philippine-American Wars.

Moreover, American intervention in the Panama Revolution helped secure control over the Panama Canal and certified America's emergence as a global economic and military power. President Roosevelt portrayed his "big stick" policies as necessary extensions of American strength and racial destiny onto a world that needed U.S. leadership. The voyage of the Great White Fleet and the United States' involvement in World War I are additional examples of America's complicated expansion into world affairs. These seemingly simple questions can help students to form a nuanced analysis: **Did the United States become an imperial power? Why or why not?**

World War I began in 1914, and while the US began to supply the Allies with weapons and goods that year, American soldiers did not join the conflict until three years later. Although American entry into the Great War came later than the Allied Powers hoped for, when Wilson asked Congress for a declaration of war in April 1917, he did so in an effort to continue promoting America's vision for the world. When American troops arrived in Europe in the fall of 1917, their participation helped bring an end to the war and establish the United States as a global power. Students should read Wilson's Fourteen Points as a justification for why he felt America should go to war, analyze how the Fourteen Points were an extension of earlier policies, and identify which of the points might be controversial in the context of the war.

With the end of the war, Wilson was heralded as a hero in Europe when he traveled there to attend the Paris Peace Conference. Despite his significant role in designing the Versailles Treaty that ended the war, Wilson ultimately could not convince Congress to join the League of Nations. Students may identify the significance of World War I in transforming America into a world leader, but they should also understand that the aftermath of the war ushered in a decade of isolationism, which by the end of the 1920s would have serious consequences for the world economies.

Just as World War I stands as an important marker of the new role for the U.S. on the world stage, the war also stands as an important event that started a century-long growth of the federal government. Once the United States entered the war, the government grew through the administration of the draft, the organization of the war at home, and the promotion of civilian support for the war.

Americans on the home front had mixed reactions to the war. Some bought Liberty Bonds to support the war, while others opposed the war. National security concerns led to the passage and enforcement of the Espionage and Seditions Acts, which encroached upon civil liberties.

German Americans experienced prejudice and extreme nativism. African Americans, who served in the military—in segregated units—came home and often moved to industrial centers as part of the “Great Migration,” and were typically met with hostility from locals. Young men serving abroad found European ideas about race and sexuality liberating. The war provided the context in which women’s activism to secure the vote finally succeeded. The war also had consequences for soldiers who returned home with physical injuries and a new syndrome known as “shell shock.” A number of American writers and poets of the “Lost Generation,” such as Ernest Hemingway, John Dos Passos, and Ezra Pound, sought solace in their creative work to make meaning out of the death and destruction caused by the war, and their resulting disillusionment with American idealism. This question can help students synthesize their studies of World War I, both abroad and at home: **How did America change because of World War I?**

The 1920s

- Why were the 1920s filled with political, social, and economic extremes?
- How did culture change in the 1920s?
- Were the 1920s a “return to normalcy?” Why or why not?

The 1920s is often characterized as a period of Prohibition, gangsters, speakeasies, jazz bands, flappers, and conspicuous consumption, which overshadows the complex realities of this era. In reality, the 1920s is a decade of extremes: broad cultural leaps forward to embrace modernity and simultaneously a deep anxiety about the country changing too fast and for the worse. Students consider this question as they learn about the movements of the 1920s: **Why were the 1920s filled with political, social, and economic extremes?** For middle-class white Americans, the standard of living rose in the 1920s, and new consumer goods such as automobiles, radios, and household appliances became available, as well as consumer credit.

Students learn how productivity increased through the widespread adoption of mass production techniques, such as the assembly line. The emergence of mass media created new markets, tastes, and popular culture.

Movies, radio, and advertising spread styles, raised expectations, promoted interests in fads and sports, and created gendered celebrity icons such as “It Girl” Clara Bow and Babe Ruth, the “Sultan of Swat.” At the same time, major new writers began to appear, such as William Faulkner, F. Scott Fitzgerald, Gertrude Stein, and Sinclair Lewis. As students learn about the prosperity and proliferation of consumer goods on the market in the 1920s, students learn that with these changes came both intended and unforeseeable consequences, many resulting in social effects on people and impacts on the environments where they lived (see appendix G for Environmental Principle IV).

This question can help frame students’ understanding of the 1920s: **How did culture change in the 1920s?** Students should explore cultural and social elements of the Jazz Age. Women, who had just secured national suffrage with the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment, experienced new freedoms but also faced pressure to be attractive and sexual through the growing cosmetics and entertainment industries, and related advertisements.

The passage of the Eighteenth Amendment and the Volstead Act triggered the establishment of speakeasies. These not only represented a challenge to Prohibition but established a vast social world that broke the law and challenged middle-class ideas of what should be allowed. In those arenas, lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) patrons and performers became part of what was tolerated and even sometimes acceptable as LGBT-oriented subcultures grew and became more visible. At the same time, modern heterosexuality became elaborated through a growing world of dating and entertainment—a celebration of romance in popular media, the new prominence of young people and youth cultures, and a new kind of marriage that valued companionship.

American culture was also altered by the first Great Migration of over a million African Americans from the rural South to the urban North during and after World War I, which changed the landscape of black America. The continued flow of migrants and the practical restrictions of segregation in the 1920s helped to create the Harlem Renaissance, the literary and artistic flowering of black artists,

poets, musicians, and scholars such as Alain Locke, Langston Hughes, Countee Cullen, Gertrude “Ma” Rainey, and Zora Neale Hurston. Their work provides students with stunning portrayals of life during segregation, both urban and rural.

LGBT life expanded in 1920s Harlem. At drag balls, rent parties, and speakeasies, rules about acceptable gendered behavior seemed more flexible for black and white Americans than in other parts of society, and many leading figures in the Renaissance such as Hughes, Locke, Cullen, and Rainey were lesbian, gay, or bisexual. The Harlem Renaissance led many African Americans to embrace a new sense of black pride and identity, as did Marcus Garvey, the Black Nationalist leader of a “Back to Africa” movement that peaked during this period.

Grade Eleven Classroom Example: The Harlem Renaissance

Ms. Brooks asks her students to examine Langston Hughes’ poem “I, Too” to study the intent of Harlem Renaissance artists:

I, too, sing America.

I am the darker brother.

They send me to eat in the kitchen

When company comes,

But I laugh,

And eat well,

And grow strong.

Tomorrow,

I’ll be at the table

When company comes.

Nobody’ll dare

Say to me,

“Eat in the kitchen,”

Then.

Besides,

They’ll see how beautiful I am

And be ashamed—

I, too, am America.

Example (*continued*)

She introduces this poem to the class by asking students why African American leaders would use art to express themselves—and to advocate equal rights—rather than to work through political, legal, or economic avenues. Students discuss this question in groups of three, and then post their answers in a controlled online backchannel chat moderated by Ms. Brooks, who quickly reviews student responses to make sure all students have had the opportunity to share their thinking.

Ms. Brooks then distributes copies of Hughes' poem to students and reads it aloud for them. Students then turn to a neighbor and share one word or phrase that resonated with them; Ms. Brooks randomly asks for a few students to share what their partners said with the rest of the class. Ms. Brooks then directs students to read the poem again, this time with another student, to find and then circle words and short phrases relating to America and underline words and short phrases relating to inequality.

After this second read-through and with their texts marked, Ms. Brooks asks for volunteers to share stanzas to read aloud the poem for a third time. Finally, students are asked to share, first in discussion with a small group and then in a brief written response, answers to these questions: What did Hughes intend to accomplish with this poem? Why would he use poetry (or other art forms) to communicate this point during the 1920s?

Ms. Brooks encourages students to use terms such as *probably*, *likely*, *potentially*, or *certainly* in their written responses. As students draft their answers, Ms. Brooks reminds them to consider the impact of Jim Crow laws and the many unofficial restrictions on opportunities for advancement for African Americans; thus, art was one of the few avenues for creativity and advancement.

CA HSS Content Standard: 11.5.5

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12): Historical Interpretation 3

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RL.11–12.4, 5, WHST.11–12.6, 7, SL.11–12.1

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.11–12.1, 6b, 7, 8, 11

At the same time that American consumer and popular culture was being remade, farm income declined precipitously and farmers found themselves once again suffering from the pressures of technology and the marketplace. American

politicians espoused a desire to return to “normalcy” as evidenced by the election of Warren Harding, Calvin Coolidge, and Herbert Hoover.

In addition to American political leaders’ reluctance to embrace change, many Americans did not embrace the social and cultural openness of the decade. These people found a voice in many organizations that formed to prevent such shifts. The Ku Klux Klan launched anti-immigrant, anti-Catholic, anti-Semitic, and moralizing campaigns of violence and intimidation; vice squads targeted speakeasies, communities of color, and LGBT venues.

As a reflection of the anxiety about the changing demographic composition of the country, the United States Supreme Court ruled in *United States v. Bhagat Singh Thind* (1923) that the country could restrict the right to naturalization based on race. Congress, encouraged by eugenicists who warned of the “degradation” of the population, restricted immigration by instituting nationality quotas the following year in 1924.

Similar fears about outsiders hurting the nation led to campaigns against perceived radicals. Fears of communism and anarchism associated with the Russian Revolution and World War I provoked attacks on civil liberties and industrial unionists, including the Palmer Raids, the “Red Scare,” the Sacco-Vanzetti case, and legislation restraining individual expression and privacy. Legal challenges to these activities produced major Supreme Court decisions defining and qualifying the right to dissent and freedom of speech. By reading some of the extraordinary decisions of Justices Louis Brandeis and Oliver Wendell Holmes (*Schenck v. U.S.* (1919) and *Whitney v. California* (1927)), students will understand the continuing tension between the rights of the individual and the power of government. Students can engage in a debate that weighs the need to preserve civil liberties against the need to protect national security. Learning about the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), formed in 1920 with the purpose of defending World War I dissenters, and the NAACP, established in 1909 to protect and promote the constitutional rights of minorities, helps students identify organizational responses to unpopular views and minority rights. Students can synthesize their studies of the 1920s by addressing these questions: **Were the 1920s a “return to normalcy?” Why or why not?**

The Great Depression and the New Deal

- Why was there a Great Depression?
- How did the New Deal attempt to remedy problems from the Great Depression?
- How did ordinary people respond to the Great Depression?

Students should begin their investigation of the Great Depression by considering this question: **Why was there a Great Depression?** The collapse of national and international financial systems in 1929 led to the crash of the American stock market in October 1929. The stock market crash revealed broad underlying weaknesses in the economy, which resulted in the most intense and prolonged economic crisis in modern American history. An interconnected web of international investments, loans, monetary and fiscal policies, and World War I reparations collided in 1929 and led to a worldwide economic downturn.

In America, four conditions account for the Great Depression and, more importantly, why it lasted for a decade: (1) oversaturated markets in the nation's two leading industries: automobiles and construction; (2) lack of regulations in the financial and banking industries (for example, pools artificially inflated stock prices while banks heavily invested depositors' funds in the volatile stock market); (3) maldistribution of income (in 1929, more than half of American families lived on the edge of or below the minimum subsistence level despite the low level of unemployment. The failure of businesses to share more equally the fruits of prosperity decreased demands for goods and services); (4) the worldwide financial system resulting from World War I (in which America replaced Britain as the financial leader but declined to facilitate the flow of capital, goods, and people through adoption of an aggressive tariff policy, for example).

The effects of the Great Depression started to be felt almost immediately. The stock market crash exposed the fragile positions of banks, so that when a few extremely vulnerable banks closed their doors, ordinary Americans panicked and started to withdraw their deposits from other banks, which led to an even more severe strain on the banking industry. A crashing stock market, failing banks, and panicked citizens affected people so that they stopped spending money.

Factories quickly cut production because of the drastic falloff in demand; for

example, by 1932 automobile plants were operating at 12 percent of capacity. National unemployment started a steady climb from its average of 3.7 percent in the 1920s. By 1930 unemployment averaged 9 percent; by 1932 it was at 23 percent. An additional 33 percent of Americans were considered underemployed, unable to find adequate hours to secure a full paycheck. These figures were accompanied by a declining gross national product, consumer price index, and farm income. To make sense of quantitative economic information, students can organize these figures into graphics in which they chart change over time and identify and explain large-scale trends.

American political leaders initially responded cautiously, if not optimistically, to the Depression. In November of 1929, President Herbert Hoover famously declared, “Any lack of confidence in the economic future or the basic strength of business in the United States is foolish.” Ordinary Americans felt differently, electing Franklin Delano Roosevelt (FDR) in 1932. FDR won by a wide margin, largely because he convinced Americans that their economic livelihoods would improve under his administration. Roosevelt created the New Deal—a series of programs, agencies, laws, and funds intended to provide relief, reform, and recovery to combat the economic crisis.

Expansionary fiscal and monetary policies, job programs, and regulatory agencies are a few of the broad roles for government set in place by the New Deal. This question may frame students’ investigations of the New Deal: **How did the New Deal attempt to remedy problems from the Great Depression?** Key New Deal innovations included the right to collective bargaining for unions, minimum-wage and hours laws and Social Security for the elderly, disabled, unemployed, and dependent women and children. Taken together, these new developments created the principle that the government has a responsibility to provide a safety net to protect the most vulnerable Americans; the legacy of these safety net programs created the notion of the modern welfare state.

New Deal agencies that students can focus on are the Agricultural Adjustment Administration (AAA),



National Industrial Recovery Administration (NIRA), and Works Progress Administration (WPA). These agencies—and many new policies set in place by Roosevelt—were based on a theory of Planned Scarcity; the root of economic problems was an oversupply of goods in the marketplace and the role of the government would be to stabilize production and aid businesses, which would ultimately help workers. John Maynard Keynes, the leading economist whose ideas of “priming the pump” also guided many of Roosevelt’s later economic policies, argued that if the government directly invested in the economy—even if it had to run a deficit by doing so—individual Americans would have more purchasing power and the economy would recover sooner from the Depression.

Though the New Deal coalition forged a Democratic voting bloc that comprised workers, farmers, African Americans, Southern whites, Jews, Catholics, and educated Northerners, the New Deal generated controversy and inspired significant opposition to Roosevelt. Criticism came from both the Far Left, who argued that the government was not doing enough to help Americans’ suffering, and the Right of the political spectrum, which argued that the executive branch was doing far too much to regulate the economy.

Students may study dissident voices in the New Deal and analyze the effects of the New Deal by exploring the areas of U.S. society that were addressed. What agencies were created? Were they effective? Why were many nullified? Which are still in place? Students may watch, listen to, or read excerpts from Roosevelt’s inaugural addresses and fireside chats in order to analyze how the president worked to rally the nation by communicating with Americans in a sympathetic and plainspoken way.

Ultimately, Roosevelt’s economic policies did not end the Great Depression; World War II did, because it involved a level of government spending and mobilization that led sectors of the economy to put everyone back to work. However, New Deal policies did ameliorate some of the worst ravages of the Depression, gave the nation hope at a time of despair, and paved the road to recovery, which had made significant progress by 1937.

After 1937, Roosevelt reduced the government stimulus in a pronounced shift to balance the budget, temporarily stalling the recovery. Despite the New Deal’s failure to end the Great Depression, Roosevelt forever changed the office of the

presidency by expanding the scope and power of the executive branch through what some historians have called the “imperial presidency.” Teachers may show students select clips of Ken Burns’ documentary *The Roosevelts*.

The Great Depression affected American society and culture in profound ways. Students should consider **How did ordinary people respond to the Great Depression?** The effects of the Depression were worsened by the Dust Bowl, a result of natural drought combined with unwise agricultural practices that led to the dislocation of farmers who could no longer make a living from agriculture in the Great Plains. The famed Okies, portrayed in the literature of John Steinbeck and photographs of Dorothea Lange (among other artists of the 1930s), were pushed off their land and joined the significant migration of workers who came to California in search of work and opportunities only to find themselves treated poorly and in a continued state of economic turmoil.

In addition to migrant farmworkers faring poorly during the Depression, the trial of the Scottsboro Boys, nine black youths falsely charged with raping two white women, illuminates the racism of the period.

The economic crisis also led to the Mexican Repatriation Program: a massive effort by government officials and some private groups to get rid of Mexicans, citing federal immigration law, the need to save jobs for “real Americans,” and a desire to reduce welfare costs. The resulting repatriation drives were done in violation of individual civil rights. Scholars estimate that at least one million Mexican nationals and Mexican Americans, including children, were deported from the United States to Mexico; approximately 400,000 of them were from California. Many of those who were illegally “repatriated” returned home during World War II, joining the armed services and working in the defense industry.

In 2005, the California State Legislature passed Senate Bill 670, the Apology Act for the 1930s Mexican Repatriation Program, issuing a public apology for the action and authorizing the creation of a public commemoration site in Los Angeles. In 1935, Congress also passed the Filipino Repatriation Act, which paid for the transportation of Filipinos who agreed to return permanently to their home country. Students can compare these Depression-era events to the institution of the Bracero Program in 1942, which brought Mexicans back into California (and other parts of the U.S.) to supply farm labor during World War II.

Severe economic distress also triggered social protests, such as sit-down strikes, and the successful unionization of unskilled workers in America's giant industries led by the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations. Moreover, black and white sharecroppers in the South launched the Southern Tenants Farmers Union. With the Roosevelt administration in support of the rights of workers through such laws as the Wagner Act, the 1930s saw a vast acceleration of the number of workers that felt free and protected to join a union. Photographs, videotapes, monographs, newspaper accounts, interviews with persons who lived in the period (for example in Studs Terkel's *Hard Times*, Vicki Ruiz's *Cannery Women*, *Cannery Lives*, and Dorothea Lange's photojournalism), as well as paintings and novels (such as John Steinbeck's *Grapes of Wrath*), capture how ordinary people experienced the Depression.

To make projects from the New Deal local and concrete, students may participate in a project in which they identify and study something in their community that was created during the New Deal by one of the agencies. California students may focus on projects done through the WPA or the Civilian Conservation Corps. Teachers can guide students to identify the artifact (such as an art installation, bridge, building, reservoir, hiking trail, and the like) in their communities. Then students are directed to tell the story of the artifact; identify the agency that worked on the project; research who worked for the agency and, ideally, on the project itself; and to contextualize the project in the New Deal by responding to this question: **How is this artifact a reflection of the New Deal?**

America's Participation in World War II

- Why did Americans not want to join World War II before the bombing at Pearl Harbor?
- How did the American government change because of World War II?
- How was the war mobilized and fought differently in the Atlantic versus the Pacific?
- How did America win the war in the Pacific?
- How did World War II serve to advance movements for equality at home and abroad?

In this unit, students examine the role of the United States in World War II. Students may begin their World War II study with a short review of selected content from their tenth-grade course, such as the rise of dictatorships in Germany and the Soviet Union and the military-dominated monarchy in Japan, and the events in Europe and Asia in the 1930s that led to war, including the economic and political ties between the United States and the Allies prior to U.S. entry into World War II. However, students should study the war from the American perspective, which means they learn that the war was extremely unpopular domestically before 1941.

Students should consider this question to contextualize America in the events leading up to war: **Why did Americans not want to join World War II before the bombing at Pearl Harbor?** Following the will of the American public, Congress passed a series of Neutrality Acts in the 1930s intended to prevent any sort of American aid to nations at war. Standing in direct opposition to the American people and Congress, President Roosevelt felt very early on that the country should support the Allied cause. Roosevelt believed that Hitler posed a threat to the world unlike any other and that the United States needed to hold strong against Japan's territorial aggressions in Asia.

Students understand the debate between isolationists and interventionists in the United States as well as the effect of the Nazi–Soviet pact and then the breaking of it on American public opinion. However, the bombing of Pearl Harbor instantly turned the tide of American opinion about war. The day after the bombing of Pearl Harbor, Congress declared war on Japan; three days later, Germany declared war on the United States. World War II would require a massive buildup of resources for the two fronts.

World War II was a watershed event for the nation, especially for California. Students can address this question to learn about cause-and-effect during the war: **How did the American government change because of World War II?** By reading contemporary accounts in newspapers and popular magazines, students understand the extent to which this war taught Americans to think in global terms. By studying wartime strategy and major military operations, students grasp the geopolitical implications of the war and its importance for postwar international relations.

Through a guided reading of Roosevelt’s “Four Freedoms” speech, students learn how the war became framed as a conflict about fundamental values. They may also learn how the Four Freedoms inspired Norman Rockwell to create illustrations that translated the war aims into scenes of “everyday American life” and became a centerpiece of the bond drive during the war. Students learn about the roles and sacrifices of American soldiers during the war, including the contributions of the Tuskegee Airmen, the 442nd Regimental Combat team, women and gay people in military service, the Navajo Code Talkers, and the important role of Filipino soldiers in the war effort. When possible, this study may include oral or video histories of those who participated in the conflict. California played a huge role in America’s successful war effort. The number of military bases in the state increased from 16 to 41, more than those of the next five states combined. By the end of the war, California would be the nation’s fastest-growing state, and the experience of war would transform the state demographically, economically, socially, and politically.

Although American casualties from the war were small in comparison to what other nations endured, over 400,000 Americans lost their lives. These questions can frame students’ understanding of the two fronts of the war: **How did nations mobilize for war? How was it fought differently in the Atlantic versus the Pacific?** In their study of the conflict, students should learn about the key battles on the different fronts of the war, including Midway, Iwo Jima, and Okinawa in the Pacific, and Normandy and the Battle of the Bulge in Europe. In the haze of war, many American leaders knew about Hitler’s hatred of the Jews, but bombing of death camps or railroads leading to them was not a priority for them, for example, because the sentiment was that all efforts should focus on the quickest end to the war. Students may explore the Holocaust from the American perspective and consider the response of Franklin D. Roosevelt’s administration to Hitler’s atrocities against Jews and other groups and the response to asylum seekers fleeing Nazi Europe.

Given the emphasis on the war in Europe in the tenth-grade course, teachers may want to focus their instruction on the war in the Pacific in the eleventh-grade course. Students analyze the strategies employed by the Japanese military to conquer Asia and the western Pacific and the United States’ response to Japanese aggression through the question **How did America win the war in the Pacific?**

Students can analyze early American losses, such as the surrender (and eventual liberation) of the Philippines, to understand and appreciate the sacrifices of individual soldiers and civilians, the importance of visionary and courageous leadership, the brutality of the conflict, and the necessity of logistical support. Designated as a commonwealth of the United States in 1935, the Philippines was attacked by Japanese forces within hours of Pearl Harbor.

After the Japanese air force bombed airfields, bases, harbors, and shipyards, approximately 56,500 soldiers from the Japanese Army came ashore at Luzon. The U.S. Army Forces in the Far East (USAFFE), composed of Americans and a majority of Filipinos, led by General Douglas MacArthur were unable to defend the territory and strategically retreated to the jungles of the Bataan Peninsula. Despite suffering from massive disease and starvation and fighting without any air support, the USAFFE troops delayed Japan's 50-day timetable by defending Bataan for 99 days. MacArthur left for Australia during this period, vowing, "I shall return."

On April 9, 1942, General Edward P. King, Jr., Commanding General of the Luzon Force, surrendered 75,000 Filipino and American troops. They were forced to march some 60 miles to their prison at Camp O'Donnell without provisions for food, water, or shelter. Those who could no longer go on were beaten, bayoneted, shot, and, in some cases, even beheaded by their Japanese captors. Approximately 10,000 Filipinos and 750 Americans died in what became known as the Bataan Death March. Once inside Camp O'Donnell, approximately 20,000 Filipinos and 1600 Americans died. A majority of the American prisoners were later transported in the hulls of unmarked vessels, termed as "Hell Ships," to Japan, China, Formosa, and Korea where they worked as slave laborers. Thousands died en route and while serving.

During the next three years, Filipinos and Americans formed guerrilla groups in preparation for the liberation. In October 1944, the Battles of Leyte Gulf destroyed the Imperial Japanese Navy. Manila became the second most devastated city in the world after Warsaw following its liberation in March 1945. By the end of the war, approximately 1 million civilians had died.

Students should also consider President Harry S. Truman's decision to drop two atomic bombs on Japan in order to end the war. They can analyze the reasons

for the dropping of the bombs, considering both his rationale and different historical judgments. Students may simulate, in small groups, Truman's cabinet to evaluate the then-available evidence about the condition of Japan and the effects of nuclear weapons, make a reasoned recommendation, and compare each group's decision making.

At home, World War II had many long-lasting effects on the nation. Industrial demands fueled by wartime needs contributed to ending the Depression and set a model for an expanded governmental role in regulating the economy after the war. Students can consider this question in order to identify cause-and-effect changes for ordinary people on the home front: **How did World War II serve to advance movements for equality at home and abroad?** Wartime factory work created new and higher-paying job opportunities for women, African Americans, and other minorities; the opening up of the wage-labor force to women and minorities helped them to raise their expectations for what they should be able to achieve. Unlike World War I, many women remained in the workforce after demobilization.

The defense-related industries became especially critical to California's economy, helping to drive other sorts of development such as the manufacturing sector and the science–technology establishment. These jobs drew enormous numbers of migrants from other parts of the country and eventually spurred the creation of expansive suburbs, highways, and shopping complexes.

Meanwhile, immigration continued, especially to California, which depended on agricultural labor provided by immigrants, particularly Mexicans, who came through the Bracero Program. This 1942 government-sponsored program, designed primarily to replace native-born agricultural and transportation industry workers who were mobilizing for war and interned Japanese-American farmers with imported Mexican laborers, continued until 1964. Instruction on the Bracero program may include oral or video histories of those who came to the United States as part of the program. Students can use those resources to explore the economic and cultural effects of the program during and after World War II and the reasons why the *braceros* chose to participate.

In addition to the economic opportunities advanced by World War II, the ideology of the war effort, combined with the racial segregation of the armed forces, sparked multiple efforts at minority equality and civil rights activism when

the war ended. For example, the head of the largely African-American Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters Union, A. Philip Randolph, planned a march on Washington, D.C., in 1941 to focus international attention on the hypocrisy of undemocratic practices at home while the country was about to become engaged in fighting for democracy abroad. This march ultimately prompted President Roosevelt to sign Executive Order 8802 to desegregate military-related industries.

Readings from Gunnar Myrdal's *An American Dilemma* helps students consider the contrast between American principles of freedom and equality and practices of racial segregation in the context of World War II. Military officials established an unprecedented effort to screen out and reject homosexuals, though gay men and lesbians still served in the armed forces in significant numbers. Some were tolerated in the interests of the war effort, but many others were imprisoned or dishonorably discharged. That persecution set the stage for increased postwar oppression and organized resistance.

But wartime racial discrimination went beyond military segregation. Los Angeles Mexicans and Mexican Americans found themselves under violent attack during the 1943 Zoot Suit Riots, when the police allowed a rampage of white Angelenos and servicemen against them.

In 1942, President Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066, which authorized the relocation and internment of 110,000 Japanese Americans and “resident aliens” living within 60 miles of the West Coast, and stretching inland into Arizona, on grounds of national security. The order violated their constitutional and human rights, but the Supreme Court, in a decision heavily criticized today, upheld its implementation in *Korematsu v. United States*, arguing, “when under conditions of modern warfare our shores are threatened by hostile forces, the power to protect must be commensurate with the threatened danger.”

In addition, many persons of Italian and German origin who were in the United States when World War II began were classified as “enemy aliens” under the Enemy Alien Control Program and had their rights restricted, including thousands who were interned. The racial distinction in the application of these policies is clear in the fact that, unlike the Italians and Germans who were interned, over 60 percent of those with Japanese ancestry were American citizens. Japanese Americans lost personal property, businesses, farms, and homes as a result of their

forced removal. After Japanese Americans spent many years campaigning for redress, Congress apologized in 1988 for Japanese internment and allocated compensation funds for survivors. *Only What We Could Carry*, edited by Lawson Inada, is a particularly good source for firsthand accounts of the Japanese American experience during World War II, including oral histories of servicemen.

Postwar America

The United States government, especially the presidency, emerged from the Great Depression and World War II with new powers, which expanded during the late 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s through the development of a national security state. The term *liberal consensus* (coined by historian Godfrey Hodgson) is often used to characterize the postwar years from the 1940s through the 1960s. During this time of relative political agreement, both political parties agreed on these key tenets: a promotion of the welfare state that was started during the New Deal and expanded in the 1940s and beyond; support for anti-communism through the development of a national security state; and the necessity of a strong, central government, especially the executive branch, to facilitate the welfare state and anti-communist policy.

The years of the liberal consensus were characterized by remarkable prosperity. This prosperity was shared by more Americans than at any other time in the twentieth century; thus, the liberal consensus allowed the middle class to grow and the American dream to be realized by people who had just survived the traumas of war and depression.

Government spending remained high throughout the postwar era and included new investments, such as President Eisenhower's interstate highway system at the federal level, and the California Master Plan for education at the state level. Spending on defense remained high as well, which led Eisenhower to warn about the rise of a "military-industrial complex" that would endanger American democracy. This spending led to the growth of both new and existing industries that affected the American economy and society for decades, including the rise of the aerospace and computer industries in California. Although this consensus lasted for more than twenty years, students will learn that as the 1960s progressed, the Right moved farther to the right and the Left moved farther to the left, thus unraveling the consensus.

Cold War Struggles Abroad

- What was Containment? How was it employed?
- How did American foreign policy shift after World War II?
- Why was the period between 1946 and 1990 known as the Cold War?
- How did anti-communism drive foreign policy?

Even before the end of World War II, American leaders sensed that Joseph Stalin, the leader of the Soviet Union, had a plan for the postwar world that did not align with America’s vision of an open-door world. It was soon clear that there would be an ideological and geopolitical struggle with consequences rippling across the globe between the Soviet Union, a communist nation with an authoritarian government that had a dismal record of protecting human rights (which students should recall from grade ten), and a vision of foreign policy bent on creating and supporting other communist nations, and the United States, a capitalist-leaning nation with an elected government and a vision of foreign policy bent on supporting other capitalist-leaning nations.

Although the Americans and Soviets were allies during World War II, the postwar relations of these two superpowers pitted them in opposition to one another. Teachers should be sure to revisit key tenets of communist economies and capitalist economies in the postwar eras so that students will understand the ideologies that underpinned this decades-long struggle.

Equipped with a background on the differences between the U.S. and the Soviet Union, students can address these questions: **What was Containment? How was it employed?** Containment, the American strategy designed by American Foreign Service Officer George Kennan for confronting the Soviet vision for the world, asserted that the U.S. employ “adroit and vigilant application of counter-force at a series of constantly shifting geographical and political points, corresponding to the shifts and maneuvers of Soviet policy.”

Students can learn about change over time by deconstructing the intent of Containment; the goal of containing the threat of further Soviet influence in the world broke from earlier precedents that advocated spreading American ideals of open markets and self-determination all over the world. As part of their study of

the policy of Containment, students examine the Soviet expansion into Eastern Europe, the Marshall Plan, the Truman Doctrine, and the creation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization military alliance, and the competition for allies within the developing world.

In the postwar Cold War context, students study the creation of the United Nations in 1945 and its role in global politics and economics, including the role of institutions such as the International Monetary Fund; the United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization; the United Nations Human Rights Commission; the World Health Organization; and the World Bank. They also learn about the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted by the United Nations in 1948. Students understand the reasons for the continued U.S. support of the Geneva Conventions and the U.S. role in the adoption of the Fourth Geneva Convention of 1949. These new worldwide organizations created in the context of the Cold War may be unified for students under the umbrella of this question: **How did American foreign policy shift after World War II?**

The study of American Cold War foreign policy may extend to an examination of the major events during the administrations of Harry Truman, Dwight D. Eisenhower, John F. Kennedy, and Lyndon B. Johnson. This question can help frame the conflict through the wide lens of several presidential administrations: **Why was the period between 1946 and 1990 known as the Cold War?** Students examine the nuclear arms race and buildup, Berlin blockade and airlift, United Nations' intervention in Korea, Eisenhower's conclusion of the Korean War, and his administration's defense policies based on nuclear deterrence and the threat of massive retaliation, including the CIA-assisted coup in Iran as part of early Cold War history.

Foreign policy during the Kennedy and Johnson administrations continued Cold War strategies—in particular, the “domino theory” that warned of the danger of communism rapidly spreading through Southeast Asia. Students study how America became involved in Southeast Asia, particularly after the French conceded to the Vietnamese in 1956.

Although teachers may wish to cover the Vietnam War in this Cold War foreign policy unit, the approach suggested in this framework is to return to the escalation of the war at the end of the civil rights movement (where there is narrative and a

lesson suggestion). Students will have more background for understanding the domestic side of the war at this point. Nevertheless, the escalation of the Vietnam War and secret bombings of Laos and Cambodia proved to be the culmination of Cold War strategies and ultimately caused Americans to question the underlying assumptions of the Cold War era and protest against American policies abroad.

Collectively, Linda Granfield's *I Remember Korea*; David Halberstam's *The Coldest Winter*; Rudy Tomedi's *No Bugles, No Drums*; Sucheng Chan's *Hmong Means Free*; John Tenhula's *Voices from Southeast Asia: The Vietnam Reader*, edited by Stewart O'Nan; and Lam Quang Thi's *The Twenty-Five Year Century* are examples of oral histories, memoirs, and other primary sources that represent soldiers' and refugees' experiences during the Korean and the Vietnam Wars.

Students also learn about how the Cold War was conducted in the Middle East, Africa, and Latin America by addressing this question: **How did anti-communism drive foreign policy?** In pursuit of supporting anti-communist governments all over the globe, the American government—the CIA in particular—backed a number of authoritarian regimes with poor records of protecting human rights. These events should be placed in the context of continuing tensions between the Soviet Union and the United States and thus understood as proxy wars for the ongoing geopolitical and ideological struggle.

American foreign policy in the Middle East included CIA involvement in overthrowing the democratically elected Mossadegh government in Iran, leading to the 26-year rule of Shah Mohammed Reza Pahlavi, an authoritarian monarch. Tension in the region would lead (much later) to the Islamic Revolution in Iran, the rise of Islamism in the Middle East, and a host of post-Cold War conflicts.

American Cold War foreign policy also provided support for Israel and Turkey. Students examine the events in the Western Hemisphere leading to the Cuban Revolution of 1959; the political purges and

The History Blueprint is a curriculum developed by the California History–Social Science Project (CHSSP) (<http://chssp.ucdavis.edu>), designed to increase student literacy and understanding of history. Three units are available for download free of charge from the CHSSP's Web site, including The Cold War, a comprehensive standards-aligned unit for eleventh-grade teachers that combines select excerpts of primary sources, original content, and substantive support for student literacy development. For more information or to download the curriculum, visit: <http://chssp.ucdavis.edu/programs/historyblueprint>.

the economic and social changes introduced and enforced by Castro; Soviet influence and military aid in the Caribbean; American intervention in Guatemala (1954) and Chile (1973); the 1961 Bay of Pigs invasion and the 1962 Missile Crisis; and the 1965 crisis in the Dominican Republic.

Cold War Struggles at Home

- How was the Cold War fought domestically?
- How did the government work to combat the perceived threat of communism domestically?
- How were American politics shaped by the Cold War?
- How did the Cold War affect ordinary Americans?

Students learn about the domestic side of the Cold War by considering the question **How was the Cold War fought domestically?** The domestic political response to the international spread of communism involved government investigations, new laws, trials, and values. Students learn about the investigations of domestic communism at the federal and state levels and about the spy trials of the period. Congress passed the Smith Act (Alien Registration Act) in 1940, which criminalized membership in or advocacy of an organization that supported the overthrow of the government; this meant that any communist-leaning group violated the Smith Act.

The following question can frame how students study the government during these years: **How did the government work to combat the perceived threat of communism domestically?** From 1948 to 1950, California Congressman Richard Nixon established himself as an anti-communist crusader by prosecuting Alger Hiss, a supporter of the New Deal who had worked at the State Department, for his Communist affiliations as a member of a Soviet spy ring, and for espionage conducted for the Soviet Union in the late 1930s.

In 1951, Julius and Ethel Rosenberg were tried and convicted of espionage for passing nuclear secrets to Soviets; both were executed for their crimes in 1953. Senator Joseph McCarthy heightened Americans' fear of Communists with his dramatic, public, yet ultimately demagogic allegations of large numbers of Communists infiltrating the government in the early 1950s. Although his

colleagues in the U.S. Senate censured him, the influence of McCarthy outlasted his actions and explains why the term *McCarthyism* signifies the entire era of suspicion and disloyalty.

Hysteria over national security extended to homosexuals, considered vulnerable to blackmail and thus likely to reveal national secrets. The public Red Scare overlapped with a Lavender Scare. Congress held closed-door hearings on the threat posed by homosexuals in sensitive government positions. A systematic investigation, interrogation, and firing of thousands of suspected gay men and lesbians from federal government positions extended into surveillance and persecution of suspected lesbians and gay men in state and local government, education, and private industry. Students may debate whether such actions served national security and public interests and consider how the Lavender Scare shaped attitudes and policies related to LGBT people from the 1950s to the present.

Students can synthesize this breadth of information about the government and Cold War by addressing this question: **How were American politics shaped by the Cold War?** Outside the federal government, fear of communism also affected people's daily lives. Students may use the following question to connect their studies of daily life during the Cold War with national and international developments: **How did the Cold War affect ordinary Americans?** A wide range of institutions—school districts and school boards, the Screen Actors Guild in Hollywood, and civil rights organizations—produced blacklists that contained the names of suspected communists or communist sympathizers. Individuals on a blacklist were often shunned by those groups. Students may study loyalty oaths (an important issue at the University of California in the 1950s) and legislative investigations of people's beliefs as part of this unit. Still, during this era, there were significant Supreme Court decisions that protected citizens' rights to dissent and freedom of speech.

Another way to address the question **How did the Cold War affect ordinary Americans?** is to have students consider how Cold War spending and ideology shaped people's daily lives. Fighting the Cold War meant heavy government investments in the defense and new aerospace industry, which had a significant impact on California. A generation of Americans who survived the Great Depression and fought in World War II started to take advantage of the GI Bill of Rights, which opened college doors to millions of returning veterans, who contributed to the nation's technological capacity.

This educated group of Americans was able to contribute to the nation's strong industrial base and experienced rapid economic growth and a steady increase in the standard of living. These Americans were also eager to have children, and thus soon after World War II ended, key demographic changes such as the baby boom, white migration to the newly developing suburbs, migration to the Sun Belt, and the decline of the family farm transformed where and how Americans lived. Along with these broad demographic shifts, the advent of televisions, home appliances, automobiles, the interstate highway system, and shopping malls fostered changes in American families' lifestyles.

Thus, many Americans' economic livelihoods—especially in California—were based on Cold War government investment and ideological goals. As William Levitt, the builder who perfected and duplicated suburban homes and



neighborhoods across the country declared, “No man who owns his own house and lot can be a Communist.”

Students investigate the ways in which the economic boom and social transformation that occurred after World War II, resulted in significant changes to many industries, for example, large-scale agriculture and energy production. Students learn that human industrial activities have

influenced the function and health of natural systems as a result of the extraction, harvesting, manufacturing, transportation, and consumption of these goods and services (see appendix G for Environmental Principle II).

Although more Americans than ever before enjoyed the comforts of middle-class suburban affluence, not all people benefited from it. Minorities were forbidden from owning property in these newly constructed developments. As the white middle class grew in size and power, poverty concentrated among minority groups, the elderly, and single-parent families.

Betty Friedan also coined the term *feminine mystique* to describe the ideology of domesticity and suburbanization, which left white middle-class college-educated housewives yearning for something more than their responsibilities as wives and

mothers. Students can see the contradiction between the image of domestic contentment and challenges to the sex and gender system through the publication of and responses to the Kinsey reports on male and female sexuality in 1948 and 1953; the publicity surrounding Christine Jorgensen, the “ex-G.I.” transformed into a “blonde beauty” through sex-reassignment surgery in 1952; the efforts of the medical profession to enforce proper marital heterosexuality; and the growth of LGBT cultures.

Grade Eleven Classroom Example: Containing Communism at Home, a Museum Exhibit

Ms. Tran’s eleventh-grade class is learning about how the Cold War impacted the United States. They cull primary sources and create projects on the topic. On the first day, Ms. Tran tells her class, “Working in groups of three or four, your task is to design a museum exhibit that explores domestic containment in an engaging and informative way.”

She provides each group with a total of four packets, each detailing a specific component of domestic containment: (1) harnessing atomic energy for security, (2) rooting out communists and subversives in American society, (3) promoting certain notions of sexuality and the American family structure, and (4) containing the race problem. Each packet includes a short overview, followed by related primary sources.

Each group is to use these sources to design its own exhibit, which will be shared with the rest of the class. After each group shares its exhibit, all students will be asked to use this information to answer the following question: *How did the U.S. contain communism at home?*

After explaining these instructions and having the students read the background material, Ms. Tran directs them to brainstorm a list of possible questions that could organize their exhibit. She clarifies that questions should not be yes or no, but instead be open-ended like “How were women affected by domestic containment efforts?” The groups create two investigation questions on their topic, review them with the teacher, and then begin to prioritize evidence (or displays) for the museum.

Example *(continued)*

Students select eight to ten pieces of evidence that best tell their story, organize them in a flowchart, and then create the display. Some students create a virtual museum, using QR codes on their smartphones to view sources; others select multimedia sources; a few others create museum boards. Once the exhibit is complete, students create a flyer, which contains the investigative question and other designs that will provide potential museum visitors with a “flavor” of their exhibit. Finally, the museum exhibits are shared, and each student completes a survey about the other exhibits to collect and synthesize all of the information.

This example is summarized from a full unit, *The Cold War: Containment at Home*, and available for download free of charge. It was developed by the California History–Social Science Project (<http://chssp.ucdavis.edu/programs/historyblueprint>) as part of the History Blueprint initiative. Copyright © 2014, Regents of the University of California, Davis Campus.

CA HSS Content Standards: 11.9.3, 11.9.4

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12): Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View 4, Historical Interpretation 3

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.11–12.2, 7, WHST.11–12.6, 7, 8

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.11–12.1, 2, 4, 6a

Movements for Equality

- Why was there a Civil Rights Movement?
- What does “equal rights” mean?
- What were the goals and strategies of the Civil Rights Movement?
- How did various movements for equality build upon one another?
- Did the Civil Rights Movement succeed?
- How was the government involved in the Civil Rights Movement?
- How was the war in Vietnam similar to and different from other Cold War struggles?
- How did the war in Vietnam affect movements for equality at home?

Although the 1950s have been characterized as a decade of relative social calm, the struggles of African Americans, Chicano/as, Native Americans, Asian Americans, as well as women and LGBT people that emerged forcefully in the 1960s have their roots in this period. In this unit, students focus on the history of the movements for equality and the broader social and political transformations that they inspired, beginning with the Civil Rights Movement in the South and continuing for the 35-year period after World War II.

The question **Why was there a Civil Rights Movement?** will prompt students to identify the hurdles minorities faced in the mid-twentieth century; however, teachers should remind students that there had been civil rights activism before now, but this time the movement seemed different. The goal of the class is to explain how and why. A brief review of earlier content helps students grasp the enormous barriers African Americans had to overcome in the struggle for their rights as citizens: legal statutes in place that prevented them from voting and exercising their rights as citizens, Jim Crow laws that kept them in a state of economic dependence, a system of violence and intimidation that prevented most African Americans from attempting to exercise power, and a legal system that was devoted to preserving the status quo. Life for African Americans at the century's mid-point was one of second-class status.

At the beginning of this unit, teachers may have students address this question: **What does “equal rights” mean?** To investigate this issue, students should be encouraged to consider what “equality of rights” versus “equality of opportunity” might entail; this sort of discussion will lead students to employ the historical thinking skill of *contingency*—in other words, to see the Civil Rights Movement not as a pre-ordained movement that turned out exactly as intended. Instead, teachers should encourage the class to develop a working definition of equal rights, as it will likely change or be challenged as the class surveys different forms of activism.

Students should first learn about the rise of the African American Civil Rights Movement and the legal battle to abolish segregation by considering this question: **What were the goals and strategies of the Civil Rights Movement?** An important stimulus for this movement was World War II, when African Americans worked in both the defense industries at home and in military service abroad that were often framed as wars against two racist empires.

American Indians also became more aware of the inequality of their treatment in many states where Indian tribes are located. American Indian veterans returning from World War II were no longer willing to be denied the right to vote by the states, which controlled the voting sites, or to be told their children could not attend state public schools. Some veterans and their families brought lawsuits in the late 1940s and the 1950s successfully challenging such practices.

Some of the most successful state and federal court cases challenged racial segregation and inequality in education, including cases in state and federal district courts, such as *Mendez v. Westminster* (1947), which addressed segregation of Mexican and Mexican-American schoolchildren and involved then-Governor Earl Warren, who would later, as Chief Justice of the U.S. Supreme Court, write the *Brown* decision. The NAACP in 1954 achieved a momentous victory with the *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka et al.* (1954) decision in challenging racial segregation in public education. The NAACP Legal Defense Fund, employing Thurgood Marshall as its lead counsel, successfully overturned the entire legal basis of “separate but equal.” Exploring why African Americans and other minorities demanded equal educational opportunity early on in the Civil Rights Movement is important for students to consider and understand.

The *Brown* decision stimulated a generation of political and social activism led by African Americans pursuing their civil rights. Students can continue to address the question **What were the goals and strategies of the Civil Rights Movement?** to unite the many historical actors and moments that define the movement. Events in this story illuminate the process of change over time in terms of goals and strategies, and they highlight for students the challenges of participating in the movement: the Montgomery bus boycott, triggered by the arrest of Rosa Parks, led by the young Martin Luther King, Jr., and sustained by thousands of African-American women; the clash in Little Rock, Arkansas, between federal and state power; the student sit-in demonstrations that began in Greensboro, North Carolina; the “freedom rides”; the march on Washington, D.C., in 1963; the Mississippi Summer Project of 1964; the march in Selma, Alabama, in 1965; and the Supreme Court’s 1967 *Loving v. Virginia* decision to overturn state antimiscegenation laws.

By focusing on African Americans’ struggle to gain equal rights, students can learn about key civil rights organizations and put them in a comparative context: King’s Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), the Congress on Racial

Equality (CORE), and the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) among others. Students recognize how these organizations and events influenced public opinion and enlarged the jurisdiction of the federal government. There was also considerable violent opposition to the goals and strategies of the movement; many white Southerners committed their resources to pushing back against what they perceived to be an overly intrusive federal government regulating race relations. Students may read select excerpts from “The Southern Manifesto on Integration,” a 1956 resolution adopted by dozens of senators and congressmen that opposed the integration of schools and the *Brown* decision, which declared: “Without regard to the consent of the governed, outside agitators are threatening immediate and revolutionary changes in our public school systems. If done, this is certain to destroy the system of public education in some of the states.”

Students will likely need a variety of tools (such as a graphic organizer that deconstructs both individual sentences and relevant phrases) to both comprehend the text and understand the coded language that fuels the



argument against integration. Students should also learn about Dr. King’s philosophical and religious dedication to nonviolence by reading select excerpts from primary-source documents such as “Letter from a Birmingham Jail,” his response to a “Call for Unity,” signed by a group of Alabama clergymen. They recognize the leadership of the black churches, female leaders such as Rosa Parks, Ella Baker, and Fannie Lou Hamer, and gay leaders such as Bayard Rustin, all of whom played key roles in shaping the movement. Through the careful selection and analysis of the many primary sources available from the period, students come to understand both the extraordinary courage of ordinary black men, women, and children and the interracial character of the Civil Rights Movement.

One of the hallmark achievements of the Civil Rights Movement in the South was convincing the federal government to protect civil and voting rights. The question **How was the government involved in the Civil Rights Movement?** offers students an opportunity to think about how equality is achieved—through

grassroots activism and through government action. Students examine the expansion of the role of the federal government as a guarantor of civil rights, especially during the administrations of Presidents Kennedy, Johnson, and Nixon. After President Kennedy's assassination, Congress enacted landmark federal programs in civil rights, education, and social welfare. The Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Voting Rights Act of 1965, and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 indicated the federal government's commitment to provide the rights of full citizenship to people of all races, ethnicities, religious groups, and sexes.

The findings of President Johnson's Kerner Commission may be analyzed to understand the media perspectives on race relations. Students can then read excerpts of the text from each federal act to understand what the federal government would do and to analyze the new and expanded responsibilities. Teachers may wish to place these pieces of federal legislation in the context of Great Society programs, which aimed to expand the welfare state and provide a broader safety net for vulnerable Americans.

The peak of legislative activity in 1964–65 was accompanied by a shifting ideology, geographic orientation, organizational composition, and form of protest for the movements for equality. Students can revisit the question **What were the goals and strategies of the Civil Rights Movement?** to chart change over time and cause-and-effect. One catalyst for changes in the movement was police violence against African Americans, which contributed to the Los Angeles Watts riot in 1965. Another was the 1965 assassination of Malcom X, an influential Black Muslim leader who had criticized the Civil Rights Movement for its commitment to nonviolence and integration. In 1966, inspired by Malcolm X, the Black Power movement emerged. Some Black Power advocates demanded change “by any means necessary,” promoted Black Nationalism, and espoused plans for racial separatism.

Although the Black Power movement never received the mainstream support that the Civil Rights Movement did, it had enduring social influence in its emphasis on racial pride, its celebration of black culture, and its powerful criticisms of racism. The assassination of Dr. King in 1968 deprived the Civil Rights Movement of its best-known leader, but not its enduring effects on American life. In considering issues such as school busing (*Swann v. Board of Education*, 1971, and *Milliken v. Bradley*, 1974) and affirmative action (*Regents of the University of California v. Bakke*, 1978), students can discuss the continuing controversy between group rights

to equality of opportunity versus individual rights to equal treatment. More recent Supreme Court decisions that address education for undocumented children (*Plyler v. Doe*, 1982), affirmative action (*Fisher v. University of Texas*, 2013), and the Voting Rights Act (*Shelby County v. Holder*, 2013) provide opportunities for students to consider the influence of the past on the present.

Students should understand the significance of President Obama’s election as the first African-American president and be able to place it in the context of the fight, both historical and ongoing, for African-American civil rights. Well-chosen readings heighten students’ sensitivity to the issues raised in this unit, such as *The Autobiography of Malcolm X*, Lerone Bennett’s *Before the Mayflower: A History of Black America*, Anne Moody’s *Coming of Age in Mississippi*, Ralph Ellison’s *Invisible Man*, Richard Wright’s *Native Son*, and Lorraine Hansberry’s *A Raisin in the Sun*.

The advances of the black Civil Rights Movement encouraged other groups—including women, Hispanics and Latinos, American Indians, Asian Americans, Pacific Islanders, LGBT Americans, students, and people with disabilities—to mount their own campaigns for legislative and judicial recognition of their civil equality.

Students can use the question **How did various movements for equality build upon one another?** to identify commonalities in goals, organizational structures, forms of resistance, and members. Students may note major events in the development of these movements and the consequences. Students may study how Cesar Chavez, Dolores Huerta, and the United Farm Workers movement used nonviolent tactics, educated the general public about the working conditions in agriculture, and worked to improve the lives of farmworkers.

Students should understand the central role of immigrants, including Latino Americans and Filipino Americans, in the farm labor movement. This context also fueled the brown, red, and yellow power movements. The manifestos, declarations, and proclamations of the movements challenged the political, economic, and social discrimination faced by their groups. They also sought to combat the consequences of their “second-class citizenship” by engaging in grassroots mobilization. For example, from 1969 through 1971 American Indian activists occupied Alcatraz Island; while in 1972 and 1973, American Indian Movement (AIM) activists took over the Bureau of Indian Affairs building in Washington, D.C., and held a standoff at Wounded Knee, South Dakota.

Meanwhile, Chicano/a activists staged protests around the country, such as the famed Chicano Moratorium in Los Angeles in 1970 that protested the war in Vietnam, and formed a number of organizations to address economic and social inequalities as well as police brutality, and energized cultural pride. Students should learn about the emergence and trajectory of the Chicano Civil Rights Movement by focusing on key groups, events, documents such as the 1968 walkout or “blowout” by approximately 15,000 high school students in East Los Angeles to advocate improved educational opportunities and protest racial discrimination; El Plan de Aztlan, which called for the decolonization of the Mexican American people; El Plan de Santa Barbara, which called for the establishment of Chicano studies; the formation of the Chicano La Raza Unida Party, which sought to challenge mainstream political parties; and Rodolfo “Corky” González’s “I Am Joaquin,” which underscores the struggles for economic and social justice. California activists such as Harvey Milk and Cleve Jones were part of a broader movement that emerged in the aftermath of the Stonewall riots, which brought a new attention to the cause of equal rights for LGBT Americans. *Asian Americans: The Movement and the Moment*, edited by Steve Louie and Glenn Omatsu; *The Latino Reader*, edited by Harold Augenbraum and Margarite Olmos; and *Native American Testimony*, edited by Peter Nabokov, are a few of the readily available collections of personal histories and literature of a period of intense introspection and political activism.

Students also consider the modern women’s movement by addressing the following question: **How did various movements for equality build upon one another?** Inspired by the Civil Rights Movement, the women’s movement grew stronger in the 1960s. Armed with the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Betty Friedan, author of *The Feminine Mystique*, helped found the National Organization for Women (NOW) in 1966. Similar to the NAACP, NOW pursued legal equalities for women in the public sphere. Women’s rights activists also changed laws, introducing, for example, Title IX of the 1972 Educational Amendments, which mandated equal funding for women and men in educational institutions.

On the social and cultural front, feminists tackled day-to-day sexism with the mantra “The personal is political.” Many lesbians active in the feminist movement developed lesbian feminism as a political and cultural reaction to the limits of the gay movement and mainstream feminism to address their concerns. Throughout

the 1970s and 1980s, feminists promoted women’s health collectives, opened shelters for victims of domestic abuse, fought for greater economic independence, and worked to participate in sports equally with men.

Students consider Supreme Court decisions in the late 1960s and early 1970s that recognized women’s rights to birth control (*Griswold v. Connecticut*, 1965) and abortion (*Roe v. Wade*, 1973). Students can debate the Equal Rights Amendment and discuss why it failed to get ratified. Students can also read and discuss selections from the writings of leading feminists and their opponents. Over time, students can trace how, by the 1980s and 1990s, women made serious gains in their access to education, politics, and the workforce, though women continue to be denied equal representation at the very highest ranks.

Students also examine the emergence of a movement for LGBT rights, starting in the 1950s with California-based groups like the Mattachine Society and the Daughters of Bilitis. Throughout the 1950s and early 1960s, these fairly secretive organizations created support networks; secured rights of expression and assembly; and cultivated relationships with clergy, doctors, and legislators to challenge teachings and laws that condemned homosexuality as sinful, sick, and/or criminal. In the 1960s, younger activists, often poorer and sometimes transgender, began to confront police when they raided gay bars and cafes in Los Angeles, San Francisco, and most famously at the Stonewall Inn in New York City in 1969. Organizations such as the Gay Liberation Front and the Gay Activists Alliance called on people in the movement to “come out” as a personal and political act.

Students may consider figures such as Alfred Kinsey, Harry Hay, Jose Sarria, Del Martin and Phyllis Lyon, Frank Kameny, Sylvia Rivera, and Harvey Milk. By the mid-1970s, LGBT mobilization led to successes: the American Psychiatric Association stopped diagnosing homosexuality as a mental illness; 17 states had repealed laws criminalizing gay sexual behavior; 36 cities had passed laws banning antigay discrimination; and gay-identified neighborhoods had emerged in major cities.

Students may consider how a 1958 Supreme Court decision that rejected the U.S. Post Office’s refusal to distribute a gay and lesbian magazine through U.S. mails (*One, Inc. v. Olsen*) and a 1967 Supreme Court decision that upheld the exclusion and deportation of gay and lesbian immigrants (*Boutilier v. Immigration*

and Naturalization Service) relate to more recent decisions, such as the 1986 decision that upheld state sodomy laws (*Bowers v. Hardwick*), the 2003 decision overturning such laws (*Lawrence v. Texas*), 2013 and 2015 decisions on same-sex marriage (*United States v. Windsor*, *Hollingsworth v. Perry*, and *Obergefell v. Hodges*), and the constitutional guarantee of equal protection under the law for transgender individuals, as exemplified through successful claims of employment discrimination including *Glenn v. Brumby*, *Schroer v. Billington*, and the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission’s decision in *Macy v. Holder*.

Students can consider the following question: **Did the Civil Rights Movement succeed?** Making a class presentation, composing an essay, or creating a project that addresses this question will encourage students to make a claim based on a variety of pieces of evidence they have collected throughout the unit. They analyze historical examples of movements for equality to support their claims.

In addition to the movements for equality that made the 1960s and early 1970s remarkable for the heightened level of activism, the expansion of the war in Vietnam provoked antiwar protests that reflected and contributed to a deep rift in American society and culture.

Two questions can guide students’ investigations of the war in Vietnam: **How was the war in Vietnam similar to and different from other Cold War struggles? How did the war in Vietnam affect movements for equality at home?** After escalation of the war following the Gulf of Tonkin Incident and Resolution, along with Johnson’s re-election in 1964, the U.S. military embarked on an air and ground war that aimed to eliminate the communist threat from South Vietnam. Hundreds of thousands of American service members volunteered and were drafted to fight in the war, which government and military leaders portrayed as an extension of broader Cold War struggles.

During the first year of the war, American casualties started to mount, progress seemed elusive, and the ways of achieving success were muddled. In the haze of war, American journalists reported on television what urban warfare and guerrilla fighting entailed; in this context, Americans started to call into question the principles on which the war was fought. By the time of the Tet Offensive and My Lai Massacre in early 1968, American public opinion had turned against the war effort. According to Senator William Fulbright: “We are trying to remake

Vietnamese society, a task which certainly cannot be accomplished by force and which probably cannot be accomplished by any means available to outsiders. The objective may be desirable, but it is not feasible . . .”

Moreover, when it became clear that American minorities were fighting and dying disproportionate to their representation in the country, many radicalized rights groups loudly protested the war on the grounds that, to them, it represented one more form of oppression—of minorities at home—and abroad.

Inside the antiwar and rights protest movements, a “counterculture” emerged with its own distinctive style of music, dress, language, and films, which went on to influence mainstream social and cultural sensibilities. Those that participated in the counterculture believed that true equality could be realized only through a revolution of cultural values; thus hippies decided to “check out” from mainstream society as a way of rebelling against the mainstream middle-class American values and seeking true happiness. Counterculturalists rebelled by calling into question Cold War values and even American principles. According to Mario Savio, a pioneer of the Free Speech Movement at UC Berkeley in 1964:

There’s a time when the operation of the machine becomes so odious—makes you so sick at heart—that you can’t take part. You can’t even passively take part. And you’ve got to put your bodies upon the gears and upon the wheels, upon the levers, upon all the apparatus, and you’ve got to make it stop. And you’ve got to indicate to the people who run it, to the people who own it that unless you’re free, the machine will be prevented from working at all.

Grade Eleven Classroom Example: The Vietnam War

Mr. McMillan’s eleventh-grade U.S. history class is nearing the end of the study of the Vietnam War. The students have learned about how and why the United States got involved in the conflict, how the war related to the larger Cold War tensions, and factors that made the war especially challenging for American soldiers. Students have also studied specific events of the war and the effects of the conflict on the American home front, including the draft and the antiwar movement.

To conclude their study of the Vietnam War and to assess students’ understanding of the conflict and its significance, Mr. McMillan asks each

Example *(continued)*

student to respond, in writing, to the following question: *What did the United States lose in Vietnam?*

To help students fully consider this question, Mr. McMillan first divides the class into groups. Each group is asked to discuss one of the following questions: (A) Why did the U.S. enter the Vietnam War? (B) What methods did the military use to fight the communists? (C) What sacrifices did American soldiers make during the war? (D) What impact did the war abroad have upon events at home? (E) How did American participation in the Vietnam War help or hurt our fight against communists in the Cold War?

Each group is given the rest of the period to review their notes, their texts, and selected primary sources in order to discuss their perspective. Mr. McMillan circulates during this discussion to make sure that all students are participating and that each group bases its perspective on relevant evidence. The next day, each group is given five minutes to discuss its response in front of the rest of the class. When not presenting, students are encouraged to take note of classmates' presentations so that they can use that work to develop their own written response to the question *What did the United States lose in Vietnam?*

For the next week, Mr. McMillan's students spend time each day refining their arguments by reviewing the writing process, seeking relevant evidence, and corroborating sources. Each day, Mr. McMillan begins the class with an activity to support his students' writing of their essays, followed by small-group discussions where students share their research and developing arguments.

On the first day, students discuss the selection of evidence, by asking each other to explain how their selected evidence is relevant to their argument and whether they need to include more sources in their research.

Day two focuses on refining and revising thesis statements after a review of selected evidence.

Example *(continued)*

On day three, Mr. McMillan reviews a step-by-step process students have used to develop their introductory and concluding paragraphs, and students share drafts of these paragraphs with each other in order to improve their writing.

Day four focuses on the evaluation and analysis of evidence, and on day five, students consider the overall organizational structure of their writing, as well as their use of evidence to support the thesis.

Students complete their essays the next week and give brief two-minute oral presentations of their written work to their classmates.

This example is summarized from a full unit, *The Cold War: Vietnam*, developed by the California History–Social Science Project (<http://chssp.ucdavis.edu/programs/historyblueprint>) as part of the History Blueprint initiative. It is available for download free of charge. Copyright © 2014, Regents of the University of California, Davis Campus.

CA HSS Content Standards: 11.8, 11.9.3, 11.9.4

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12): Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View 4, Historical Interpretation 1

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.11–12.1, 2, 6, 8, WHST.11–12.1, 4, 5, 9, 10, SL.11–12.1, 4b

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.11–12.1, 3, 4, 6a, 9, 10a, 11a; ELD.PII.11–12.1, 2a, 2b

Finally, students read about the beginning of the modern environmental movement in the 1960s and the resulting environmental protection laws that were passed in the next decade. They note similarities and differences between environmentalism and other forms of activism of the decade, and they can also trace effects of the Cold War (especially fears of nuclear proliferation) to the priorities of the movement. Examining case studies, such as the controversial expansion of Redwood National Park and state parks in 1978 and oil drilling in the Arctic National Wildlife Refuge, helps students develop skills in analysis of complex and controversial issues. Students may also link those early achievements with a student-led debate over issues such as climate change today and the appropriate role of government in dealing with these problems.

Contemporary American Society

- How has the role of the federal government (and especially the presidency) changed from the 1970s through more recent times?
- How did the Cold War end, and what foreign policy developments resulted?
- What does globalization mean, and how has it affected the United States?
- Why is the United States more diverse now than it was in the middle of the twentieth century?
- In what ways have issues such as education; civil rights for people of color, immigrants, and lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) Americans, and disabled Americans; economic policy; recognition of economic, social and cultural rights; the environment; and the status of women remained unchanged over time? In what ways have they changed?

In the last decades of the twentieth century and first decades of the twenty-first century, America's economy, political system, and social structure became more global and interconnected. This unit attempts to distill complicated changes related to de-industrialization, globalization, changing patterns of immigration, political scandals and realignments, and the age of terror into a coherent course of study.

Students begin their studies of contemporary America by surveying American presidents who served during these decades. Presidents Richard Nixon, Jimmy Carter, Ronald Reagan, George H. W. Bush, Bill Clinton, George W. Bush, and Barack Obama all promised to alter the scope of the government—some to limit it and some to extend it. Students may view clips or read excerpts from the notable convention or inaugural addresses of these presidents. They can track continuity and change over time in the goals and problems that each president identifies in his address as well as the tone of the speech. This information will help students address the question **How has the role of the federal government (and especially the presidency) changed from the 1970s through more recent times?**

The Nixon administration (1968–1974) established relations with the People's Republic of China, opened a period of *detente* with the Soviet Union, and negotiated withdrawal of American troops from Vietnam. Despite Richard Nixon's skill in managing foreign affairs, his administration was marred by the Watergate

political scandal that led to his resignation in 1974. Students learn about the events that led to President Nixon’s resignation and assess the roles of the courts, the press, and the Congress.

Students may discuss the continuing issue of unchecked presidential power. Are the president and his staff above the law? Students may see how this issue ties into twenty-first century American politics by examining the debates about presidential power and individual liberties that followed the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001.

In 1980, Ronald Reagan won the presidency and forged a new Republican Party by uniting fiscal and social conservatives with a landslide victory. Reagan called for a smaller government by decreasing taxes on individuals and businesses (what his administration termed *supply side economics*) and deregulating industries. He supported a stronger government that would outlaw abortion and appealed to social conservatives seeking to promote heterosexual marriage, to oppose ratification of the Equal Rights Amendment, to support faith-based cultural advocacy, to champion individual accomplishment, and to oppose many safety-net programs. He also vowed to expand the military and the Cold War. These three areas led to the resurgence of the Republican Party under Reagan as he restructured the scope of the federal government.

The modern conservative movement, which had started well before Reagan’s election in 1980 and extended beyond the presidency of George W. Bush in the 2000s, echoed populist voices from the prior century with its criticism of “establishment elites” and support of a smaller government that would advocate social programs that promoted what they termed “traditional family values.” This movement built a part of its base through evangelical churches, televangelism, and other media outlets. Its leaders formed their ideology through organizations like the Young Americans for Freedom and went on to found a variety of think tanks and lobbying organizations. Students can extend their studies of Reagan by exploring political developments of the 1990s and 2000s; they may chart how conservative principles from the 1980s influenced the nation around the turn of the millennium.

In the 1980s, the Cold War thawed and eventually ended. In order for students to understand the context and significance of the end of the Cold War, they should be reminded of the anti-communist and free-market goals that drove American

foreign policy in the past decades. The following questions can guide students' investigation of these years: **How did the Cold War end, and what foreign policy developments resulted?** During Reagan's first term in office, Cold War policies toward Latin America and the Soviet Union intensified: conflicts in Nicaragua, El Salvador, and Panama, for example, demonstrated Reagan's willingness to send American support to anti-communists all over the Western Hemisphere. Likewise, his commitment to Star Wars, or the Strategic Defense Initiative, resulted in an escalated arms race.

An ongoing struggle in Afghanistan depleted the Soviets of many of their financial and military resources, and by the mid-1980s the Soviet Union adopted policies of *Perestroika* and *Glasnost*, which ultimately led to its dissolution.

Students may look at the consequences of the end of the Cold War with a thematic, topical, or geographic approach. These questions can frame students' surveys of the post-Cold War years: **What does globalization mean, and how has it affected the United States?** Students can focus geographically on American post-Cold War relations with Latin America. The strong economic ties between the regions deepened throughout the 1980s, 1990s, and 2000s. *Maquiladoras*, export processing zones or free enterprise zones, between Mexico and the U.S. meant that from the 1980s through the 2000s goods flowed between countries more freely and at faster rates.

Similarly, the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) between Canada, the United States, and Mexico played a central role in fostering closer relationships among the three countries, but tensions lingered related to economic regulation, labor conditions, immigration, and damage to the environment. Implementation of NAFTA was and continues to be contentious on both sides of the border; for example, the Chiapas Rebellion in 1994 was an armed uprising in the southern Mexico state of Chiapas. The outbreak involved Indian rebels calling for "a world in which many worlds fit," not a mono-world with no space for them.

Another way for students to examine globalization is to conduct case studies of borderlands. The borderland between the United States and Mexico is a dynamic region in which cultures and political systems merge and environmental issues cross political boundaries. Students can use the Tijuana River as an example of U.S.–Mexican economic, political, and environmental issues. Using management

of natural resources in the region as a context for their studies builds their understanding of the spectrum of considerations that are involved with making decisions about resources and natural systems and, in this case, how those factors influence international decisions (see appendix G for Environmental Principle V; Education and the Environment Initiative curriculum unit “The United States and Mexico—Working Together,” 11.9.7).

Another key topic that Americans wrestled with in recent decades has been immigration. Students can examine census data to identify basic demographic changes: How has the composition of the U.S. shifted between 1950 and 1980 and between 1980 and today, for example? By exploring quantitative immigration information, students notice significant changes in the national origins of immigrants to the United States.

As with their studies of immigration from the beginning of the twentieth century, students can analyze push-and-pull factors that contributed to shifting immigration patterns, but they should also learn about changes in immigration policy.

Starting with the Immigration Act of 1965, laws have liberalized country-of-origin policies, emphasizing family reunification, and rejecting same-sex partners of American citizens.

Students can explain how these policies have affected American society. In California, Propositions 187, 209, and 227 attacked illegal immigration, affirmative action, and bilingual education, respectively. While all provisions of Proposition 187 were blocked by federal courts except one, throughout the 1990s and even more so after the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001, Congress provided for increased border enforcement. By the 2000s, the status of Mexican Americans and Mexican immigration became a national political discussion.

In California, Latino/as became the largest ethnic group in 2010, and Latino/a children comprised more than 51 percent of public schools. It was in this context that the Latino/a community became increasingly politically active. In addition,



students analyze the impact and experience of refugees who fled Southeast Asia after the Vietnam War or Iranians after the Islamic Revolution.

To synthesize these developments, students can address this question: **Why is the United States more diverse now than it was in the middle of the twentieth century?** Students can also explore how the immigrant experience has changed over time by considering the following questions: **How does the life of a new immigrant to the United States today compare with what it was in 1900? How do policies from the second half of the twentieth century compare with those of the early twenty-first century?**

In addition to shifts in foreign policy and immigration affecting America's national identity from the 1980s through recent times, the nation's economic structure also underwent key changes that affected how many native-born middle-class Americans lived. Globalization meant the faster and freer flow of people, resources, and ideas across national borders. Goods that were once produced in the United States could be produced cheaper first in Mexico, then in China, and now in smaller nations like Bangladesh. This resulted in falling prices for many goods that Americans consumed, but it also led to domestic job dislocations.

Students study the roots and consequences of de-industrialization. They understand that starting in the 1970s and continuing through recent times, economic production has shifted away from heavy industry and toward the service sector, which has altered the daily lives of many working and middle-class families.

This change has resulted in the fact that over the past 30 years, gaps in income between top earners and middle and working class earners have become more pronounced. Students can consider the question **How did the wealth gap between top earners and the majority of Americans grow between the 1970s and 2010s?** Working-class wages have stagnated as higher-paying unionized blue collar jobs have been outsourced and replaced with minimum-wage paying service sector jobs. The stagnant or decreasing wealth of working and middle-class Americans has been compounded by changes in tax structures and safety-net programs. It has also been amplified by higher costs for education, child care, and housing.

In recent years, a growing populist movement has sought to bring attention to the income gap and has aimed to provide solutions through education or organization as a remedy. Students can also learn about resistance to

globalization, both domestically and abroad like demonstrations in support of the Zapatistas. To make these broad economic developments more concrete, teachers have students learn about the changing experiences of the middle class and the persistence of poverty.

A continuation of this thematic, topical, and geographic explanation of recent history includes technology and terrorism. Students can study how late-twentieth century developments, such as the Internet, new multinational corporations, broadened environmental impacts, and threats such as extremist terrorist groups, are made possible because of globalization (see appendix D for a thorough explanation of the consequences of globalization). Students can also learn about how different groups of Americans have fared in this new globalized world—ranging from the development of Silicon Valley to immigrant communities to those serving in the military—and what the consequences have been.

Finally, consideration should be given to the major social and political challenges of contemporary America. Issues inherent in contemporary challenges can be debated, and experts from the community may be invited as speakers. The following questions can guide students' explorations of these varied topics: **In what ways have issues such as education; civil rights for people of color, immigrants, and lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) Americans, and disabled Americans; economic policy; recognition of economic, social and cultural rights; the environment; and the status of women remained unchanged over time? In what ways have they changed?** The growth of the LGBT rights movement, for example, led to the pioneering role of gay politicians such as Elaine Noble, who was elected to the Massachusetts House of Representatives in 1974, and Harvey Milk, elected in 1977 to the San Francisco Board of Supervisors.

Students can learn about how such activism informed the history of the AIDS epidemic in the United States. California students, in particular, can tap local history resources on the epidemic and its relationship to a retreat from some areas of the civil rights, women's liberation, and sexual liberation movements. By talking about the nation's hysteria over AIDS, educators may be able to connect the early response to the epidemic to previous alarmist reactions in American history and the activism generated by them.

Promoting Civic Engagement

To promote civic engagement at this grade level, students can participate in mock trials that recreate some of the landmark cases of the twentieth century detailed in this chapter. They can participate in debates for and against significant governmental policy decisions, such as Prohibition; the creation of the New Deal; efforts to integrate the schools through busing; considerations of racial or gender restrictions on the right to marry; or the question of women, people of color, and LGBT people serving in the military.

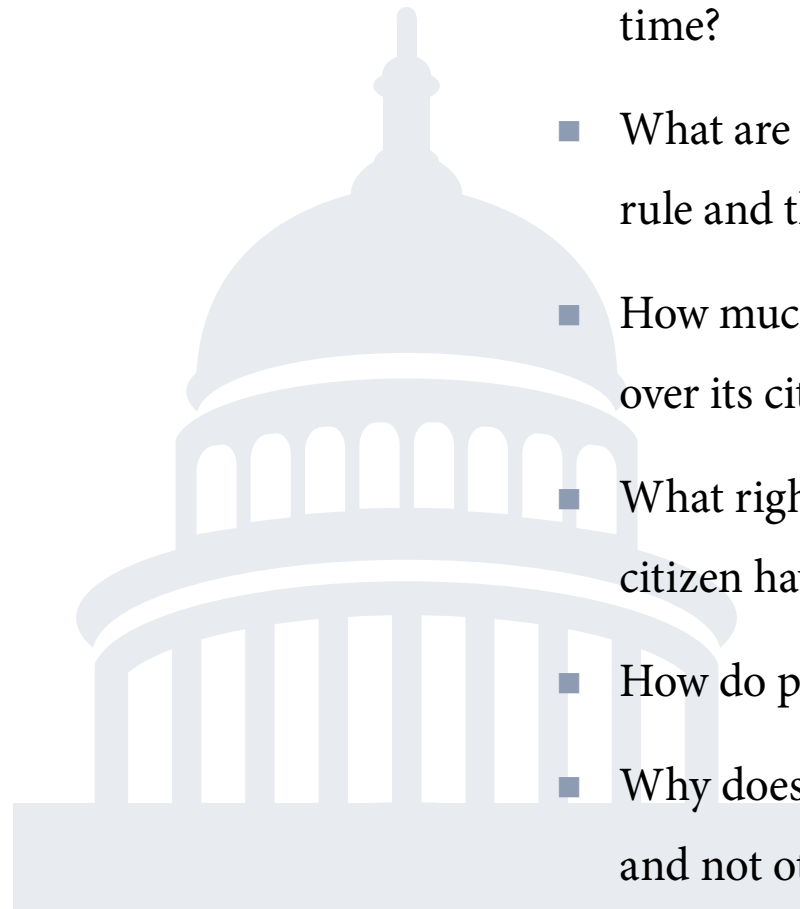
They can also conduct oral histories with their family or community members in order to deepen their understanding of national historical trends through the lens of local participation. To learn about how communities change and how they stay the same, students can interview people who served in the military, who participated in the struggle for civil rights, worked in industries transformed by rapid economic or technological change, or simply lived ordinary lives and came of age at different historical moments.

Students recognize that under the American democratic political system the United States has achieved a level of freedom, political stability, and economic prosperity that has made it a model for other nations: the leader of the world's democratic societies and a magnet for people all over the world who yearn for a life of freedom and opportunity. Students understand that Americans' rights and freedoms are the result of a carefully defined set of political principles that are embodied in the Constitution.

Yet these freedoms are imperfect: for example, even though Americans elected the nation's first black president in 2008, poverty, incarceration, and lower life-expectancy rates continue to afflict communities of color at rates that are far higher than that of white communities. Nevertheless, students see that the enduring significance of the United States lies in its free political system, its pluralistic nature, and its promise of opportunity. The United States has demonstrated the strength and dynamism of a racially, religiously, and culturally diverse people. Students recognize that the nation's democratic political system depends on them—as educated citizens—to survive and prosper.

CHAPTER 17

Principles of American Democracy (One Semester)

- 
- What are the key elements of representative democracy, and how did they develop over time?
 - What are the trade-offs between majority rule and the protection of individual rights?
 - How much power should government have over its citizens?
 - What rights and responsibilities does a citizen have in a democracy?
 - How do people get elected?
 - Why does the government work sometimes and not others?

■ What problems are posed by representative government, and how can they be addressed?

In this course, students apply knowledge gained in previous years of study to pursue a deeper understanding of American government. Although this course is traditionally taught for a semester, given the importance and breadth of this content area, teachers may want to expand it into a yearlong course. Students consider the role of and necessity for government as they think about **How much power should government have over its citizens?** They consider how government can attain goals sanctioned by the majority while protecting its citizens from the abuse of power by asking **What are the trade-offs between majority rule and the protection of individual rights?** They will review and expand their knowledge of the key elements of a representative form of democracy, such as the idea that the authority to govern resides in its citizens.

Their study will be grounded in the understanding that all citizens have certain inalienable rights such as due process, what to believe, and where and how to live. This course is the culmination of the civic literacy strand of history–social studies that prepares students to vote and to be informed, skilled, and engaged participants in civic life.

As this course progresses, students will learn about the responsibilities they have or will soon have as voting members of an informed electorate. They consider the following question: **What rights and responsibilities does a citizen have in a democracy?** They will learn about the benefits to democracy of an electorate willing to compromise, practice genuine tolerance and respect toward others, and actively engage in an ethical and civil society. They will discover that all citizens have the power to elect and change their representatives—a power protected by free speech, thought, and assembly guarantees. They will learn that all citizens deserve equal treatment under the law, safeguarded from arbitrary or discriminatory treatment by the government. Students will review how these benefits developed in history, such as the broadening of the franchise from white males with property, to all white males, then to men and women of color, and finally, to eighteen- to twenty-one-year-olds.

Students will learn how the government works and how it is different from

other systems of governance. Students will examine both the constitutional basis for and current examples of the fact that members of the government are themselves subject to the law; students also learn about the vital importance of an independent judiciary. As they study the electoral process, they will consider the question **How do people get elected?** In their study of the institutions of state, local, and federal governments, they ask **Why does the government work sometimes and not others?** They will compare the democratic system with authoritarian regimes of the past and today to understand the unique nature of American constitutional democracy.

Finally, students will conclude their study of American government by examining both the historical and modern problems of American democracy. In this final unit, students can investigate a variety of topics, such as the fight against corruption by monopolies or moneyed elites during the Progressive Era, the tension between national security and civil liberties—especially after 9/11, the battle over health care reform in the Clinton and Obama administrations, and efforts to promote environmental protection and combat climate change.

Fundamental Principles of American Democracy

- Why do we need a government?
- How much power should government have over its citizens?
- What do the terms *liberty* and *equality* mean, and how do they relate to each other?
- What are the dangers of a democratic system?
- What are the trade-offs between majority rule and individual rights?

The semester begins with an examination of the ideas that have shaped the American democratic system. Students can start their studies by reviewing early experiments in democracy, such as the contributions of ancient Greek philosophers, direct but limited democracy in ancient Athens, and representative democracy in the Roman republic (and why it eventually failed). They explore the influence of Enlightenment ideas upon the Constitutional Framers' support of republicanism, content that was first introduced to students in the seventh grade and continued throughout the tenth- and eleventh-grade curriculum, focusing on

key ideas such as John Locke’s social contract and his concept of liberty and Charles-Louis Montesquieu’s separation of powers.

To organize their study of this topic, teachers may have students consider questions to determine the role of government: **Why do we need a government? How much power should government have over its citizens? What do the terms *liberty* and *equality* mean, and how do they relate to each other? What are the dangers of a democratic system?** Through close reading and analysis of the Declaration of Independence, the *Federalist Papers* and the anti-Federalist response, the Constitution, and the Bill of Rights, students analyze the tension and balance between promotion of the public good and the protection of individual liberties.

The *Federalist Papers* explicate major constitutional concepts such as separation of powers, checks and balances, and enumerated powers as well as the Framers’ understanding of human nature and the political process. In particular, *Federalist Paper Number 10* explains the role of organized interest, *Federalist Paper Number 51* outlines the rationale for checks and balances and separation of powers, and *Federalist Paper Number 78* centers on the role of the judiciary. Students should understand how these ideas shaped the American constitutional system and democratic behavior.

Alexis de Tocqueville wrote observations about these topics that students may find relevant and engaging. Students should be encouraged to construct compelling questions about these ideas and their application by using both historical and contemporary issues. In so doing, students should use deliberative processes and evidence-based reasoning in making judgments and drawing conclusions. Similarly, students might participate in mock ratification debates; construct writings or classroom presentations articulating arguments, claims, and evidence from multiple sources; or make classroom presentations.

Rights and Responsibilities of Citizens in a Democracy

- What rights and responsibilities does a citizen have in a democracy?
- What does it mean to be a citizen?

■ How can citizens improve a democracy?

After reviewing the fundamental principles of American democratic thought and how democratic ideas and practices have developed historically, students focus their study on the question **What rights and responsibilities does a citizen have in a democracy?** Using the principles addressed in the first unit—the tension between public good and individual liberty—students examine the individual liberties outlined in the Bill of Rights.

Teachers review the origins of each of the individual freedoms and then prompt their students to consider how certain liberties, such as the freedom of speech, religion, or privacy, have been and may be restricted in a democratic system. In addition to political liberties, students explore individual and societal economic, social, and cultural freedoms, including property rights, labor rights, children’s rights, patents, and copyright, as well as rights necessary to basic well-being, such as rights to subsistence, education, and health. They identify those rights that pertain to all persons in a democracy, citizens and non-citizens alike.

After studying the freedoms citizens enjoy in American democracy, students then consider the path to citizenship and its obligations—such as serving on a jury, paying taxes, and obeying the law—in an attempt to answer the question **What does it mean to be a citizen?** Students learn that democracies depend on an actively engaged citizenry—individuals who fully participate in the responsibilities of citizenship (such as voting, serving in the military, or regular public service)—for their long-term survival. To promote civic engagement and deepen student understanding of the rights and responsibilities of citizenship in this unit, teachers may employ structured group discussions, simulations, classroom debates, and civics-based service-learning activities, designed to provide students with concrete answers to the question **How can citizens improve a democracy?**

These activities can help students explore the multiple ways in which citizens engage with their communities. Students may also participate in classroom mock trials; visit courtrooms; serve as poll workers; participate in voter registration; simulate or visit city council meetings; conduct projects to identify, analyze, and address a community problem; and participate in service-learning at a local hospital, shelter, arts organization, library, or environmental project to study how to address community needs. When students engage with the community in these

sorts of projects, teachers should be sure to have students connect their community service activity with their government classroom curriculum. They should answer questions, for example, such as Where in the Constitution does it connect to the courtroom or voting booth experience? Where in the Constitution does it connect to rights guaranteed to all persons? What is the citizen's role in ensuring these basic rights and protections to all? In addition, students may gain a better understanding of the importance of citizenship by observing a naturalization ceremony, interviewing or speaking to a recently naturalized student or parent, or by speaking with legislators or other public officials concerning issues and public policy concerns.

Fundamental Principles of Civil Society

- What is a civil society, and why do we want to have one?
- What are the limits of individual liberty?
- What are the dangers of majority rule?
- What is the role of religion in a democracy?
- How do government actions impact civil society?

The rights that students learned about in the first two units can exist only in a system dedicated to their preservation. After considering the rights and responsibilities of citizens in the United States, students next explore the core principles and values of a civil society by asking **What is a civil society, and why do we want to have one?** Once again, they return to the tension between majority rule and individual freedom, by considering the importance of free association in a democratic society and the power that such associations can have in fostering a civil society and in influencing the U.S. government. Students consider **What are the limits of individual liberty and the dangers of majority rule?** Students review the historical relationship between religion and government, seeking connections between the free exercise of religion outlined in the First Amendment and how that has fostered diversity in response to the question **What is the role of religion in a democracy?** They also explore the responsibility of the government to protect its citizens and promote social order.

The Three Branches of Government as Established by the U.S. Constitution

- Why does the Constitution both grant power and take it away?
- What is the most powerful branch of government?
- Why does it take so long for government to act?

Deriving its power from the governed and the principles of a civil society, the U.S. Constitution delineates the unique roles and responsibilities of the three branches of the federal government and the relationship between the federal government and the states. Students begin their in-depth study of the legislative, executive, and judicial branches by considering the question **Why does the Constitution both grant power and take it away?** Students focus their study on Articles I, II, and III of the Constitution to both clarify the individual responsibilities of each branch and, at the same time, detail the connections between branches and the system of separation of powers and checks and balances. Students do this in order to highlight the Constitution’s dual purpose—to enumerate power and to limit the abuse of that power.

As students investigate the individual powers of each branch (and the checks upon those powers), they develop their own answer to the question **What is the most powerful branch of government?** by using both historical and current evidence to support their interpretation. Throughout their study, students should be encouraged to investigate the issue of government gridlock, using the question **Why does it take so long for government to act?**

Article I: The Legislative Branch

In this unit, students examine the work of Congress. Article I of the Constitution has the longest list of enumerated powers of all of the three branches of government. Students can construct a pie chart of the major responsibilities designated to the legislative branch of government, filling in the other two branches as they get to them. They may also explore how this balance of power has shifted over time.

After receiving an overview of the mechanics of legislation, specific powers, eligibility and length of terms of members of Congress, and an introduction to current legislative leaders and their current representatives, students consider case



studies of recent issues. They do research on topics such as health care or labor law reform, economic stabilization policies, immigration policy, environmental protection laws, and antiterrorism legislation in order to answer a variety of questions, such as **What can Congress do? Why is it so hard to get a law passed? Who gets elected to Congress, and who does**

not? Who has power in Congress? Besides members of the House and Senate, who else can affect the legislative process? Which house of Congress is the most democratic? Which house is the most effective? How can individual citizens actually participate in the legislative process? They may consider how a topic is affected through the committee system, lobbying, the media, and special interests.

Students can examine the complex, important, and, sometimes controversial relationship between legislators (and other government officials) and professional lobbyists who advocate their clients' interests. Students can research the different types of organizations and individuals who hire lobbyists (including corporations, unions, nonprofit organizations, and private citizens), the benefits of an active and engaged lobbying effort (such as protection of the interests of views not in the majority, and access to experts in a given field), and the potential for corruption (such as those clients willing to buy access and influence, clients whose interests are directly opposed to the public interest, or lobbyists who represent their own needs over their clients').

Finally, students study how individual citizens can inform, gain access to, and influence the legislative policymaking process. Students conduct research, evaluate resources, and balance predicted outcomes and consequences to create position papers on proposed legislation, present oral arguments in favor of or in opposition to specific federal legislation, write letters or e-mails stating and supporting positions on pending legislation, engage in a simulated congressional hearing or session, or design campaigns for virtual candidates for office.

Article II: The Executive Branch

In this unit, students document the evolution of the presidency and the growth of executive powers in modern history. Like their study of Article I, students first develop a basic understanding of how the president is elected, the requirements for the office, how a president can be removed, and the specific executive powers enumerated in Article II. Teachers then turn to case studies to give students the opportunity to analyze presidential campaigns, the handling of international crises, and the scope and limits of presidential power (both foreign and domestic) in depth. Close reading of and comparing State of the Union addresses across administrations, analyzing factors that influence presidential public approval ratings as well as the successes and failures of presidential policies, and using role play, simulation, and interactive learning can illuminate the process of presidential decision making.

Grade Twelve Classroom Example: The Executive Branch

Ms. Costa's twelfth-grade government class targets its study of the executive branch by constructing a multimedia museum exhibit on presidential powers. Ms. Costa divides the class into groups of three and four, assigning each group a different president to research. Using resources in the library, U.S. history texts, and recommended Internet sites (such as the National Archives and Presidential Libraries, the Library of Congress, and federal agencies, such as the Department of State and the CIA), students briefly review the administration of their assigned president in order to select what they believe to be the most important event or act of the presidency—the one thing that best defines the president's use (or abuse) of executive power.

After selecting the event or act, each group designs a virtual museum exhibit on the president, using the event or act as the organizing feature of the display. Students use historical images, documents, artifacts, and (if available) film clips, media reports from the era, and historical accounts describing the event and the role of the individual president. Each group posts its display in the class's online museum on the Executive Branch, with bibliographic citations, original content describing each artifact, and a written argument explaining why this event or act best symbolizes the administration of the president assigned to the group, citing specific evidence from their research to

Example *(continued)*

support their claims. Students also provide oral presentations about their research at a special open house for parents and school leaders, which are recorded for inclusion with the online museum exhibit.

CA HSS Content Standard: PAD 12.4

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12): Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View 4, Historical Interpretation 1

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.11–12.7, 9, WHST.11–12.1, 6, SL.11–12.1b, 4

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.11–12.1, 6a, 9, 10a, 11a

As students study the executive branch, certain guiding questions can connect case studies and discrete examples: **How has the role of the presidency expanded? What are the factors that seem to help presidents win election? How does the president interact with the other branches of government, and how has that changed over time?**

Article III: The Judiciary

To begin their study of the judiciary, students consider the powers of this branch as outlined in Article III, the eligibility and length of service of judges, and the process of selection and confirmation of Supreme Court justices. Exclusive to the U.S. Supreme Court is the sole authority to definitively interpret the Constitution and the ability to use the supremacy clause.

Unlike the other two branches, however, members of the federal judiciary are not elected, leading some students to ask **How are Supreme Court justices selected? Why do they have unlimited terms? Is an unelected Supreme Court really democratic?** Students can examine controversies over the selection and confirmation of Supreme Court justices and federal judges and the nature of an independent judiciary through structured classroom discussions and deliberations. In the next unit, the constitutional explanation of the judiciary will provide the context for the high court’s more notable rulings and shifts.

Interpreting the Constitution: The Work of the U.S. Supreme Court

- What is judicial review, and how does it work?
- What makes a law or an action unconstitutional, and does that determination ever change?

The courts play a unique role among the three branches in that the Framers intended the courts to be insulated from public opinion in order to independently interpret the laws. Students begin their study of the work of the Court by reviewing *Marbury v. Madison* (1803), to answer the question **What is judicial review, and how does it work?** Students concentrate on how the courts have interpreted the Bill of Rights over time, especially themes such as due process of law and equal protection as guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment, by answering the question **What makes a law or an action unconstitutional, and does that determination ever change?**

Whenever possible, students should learn through illustrations of the kinds of controversies that have arisen because of challenges or differing interpretations of the Bill of Rights. For example, the unit can be organized around case studies of specific issues, such as the First Amendment's cases on free speech, free press, religious liberty, separation of church and state, academic freedom, and the right of assembly or the Fourth Amendment's warrant requirements and protections against unreasonable search and seizure.

Supreme Court and other federal court decisions may be debated or simulated in the classroom, following readings of original source materials, including excerpts from the cases of *Texas v. Johnson* (flag burning), *West Virginia v. Barnette* (flag salute in schools), *Tinker v. Des Moines* (symbolic speech in schools), *New York Times Co. v. United States* (press prior restraint), *Engel v. Vitale* (school prayer), and *Mapp v. Ohio* (search and seizure). These cases once again reflect tensions between individual rights and societal interests; they also illustrate how each case involved real people and how the present laws resulted from the debates, trials, and sacrifices of ordinary people.

Grade Twelve Classroom Example: Judicial Review

Mr. Singh's twelfth-grade government class is learning about landmark Supreme Court case law through a structured discussion strategy. After explaining the concepts of judicial review and precedent and reviewing the Bill of Rights and the Fourteenth Amendment, Mr. Singh divides the class into pairs and assigns them the task of judicial review—to analyze historical case law using precedent to make a decision based on evidence. Mr. Singh has organized a select group of important cases according to the appropriate freedom, grouping cases related to free speech together (such as *Texas v. Johnson* and *Tinker v. Des Moines*), others related to freedom of religion (such as *Engel v. Vitale*), search and seizure (including *Mapp v. Ohio* and *New Jersey v. TLO*), and equal protection (such as *Brown v. Board of Education* or *Obergefell v. Hodges*).

As Mr. Singh introduces each case, he provides a short overview of the dispute, which students summarize in their notes. He then directs students to first write their decision, based upon their interpretation of the relevant amendment to the Constitution and, as their study continues, language from previous decisions. After both partners have written their initial decisions, they discuss their reasoning with each other, and Mr. Singh randomly asks students to explain the decision and reasoning of their partners. Once he has collected responses from a handful of pairs, he shares a short excerpt from the actual decision with language from both the actual decision and the dissent. Students take note of this language, as it is used as precedent in subsequent case analysis.

As a culminating assessment, Mr. Singh asks his students to decide three fictional cases, using excerpts from relevant precedent from their collection of Supreme Court decisions.

CA HSS Content Standard: PAD 12.5

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12): Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View 4

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.11–12.1, 2, 3, 8, WHST.11–12.2, 9, SL.11–12.1

CA ELD Standards: ELD.PI.11–12.1, 3, 6b, 10a, 10b

In examining the evolution of civil rights under the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment, students can draw upon their knowledge of the Civil War and the passage of the Reconstruction-era amendments. Students may

examine the changing interpretation of civil rights law from the *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision of 1896 to the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision of 1954. Although it is not possible to analyze every decision that marked the shift of the Supreme Court from 1896 to 1954, critical reading of the *Yick Wo v. Hopkins*, *Korematsu v. United States*, *Mendez v. Westminster School District* (U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals, 1947), and *Sweatt v. Painter* decisions remind students that racial discrimination affected not only African Americans but other groups as well, including Asian Americans and Hispanics.

Subsequent Court cases addressed the rights of women (*Reed v. Reed*, 1971), American Indians (*Morton v. Mancari*, 1974) and the lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender community (*Lawrence v. Texas*, 2003, and *Obergefell v. Hodges*, 2015). The *Brown* decision and the cases of *Bakke v. Regents of the University of California* and *Grutter v. Bollinger* provide students with the opportunity to deliberate and debate whether affirmative action is an appropriate way to address inequality. School-related cases of *Tinker v. Des Moines* (1969), *Fricke v. Lynch* (1980), *New Jersey v. T.L.O* (1985), *Henkle v. Gregory* (2001), or the 2013 Resolution Agreement announced by the United States Department of Education in *Student v. Arcadia Unified School District* offer additional perspectives relevant to students on free speech, privacy, nondiscrimination, and civil rights for students in schools.

Students may use materials from these cases and others to analyze majority and minority opinions; participate in classroom courts; write simple briefs extracting the facts, decisions, arguments, reasoning, and holding of the case or editorial pieces stating their views; and using evidence to support their conclusions about the decision.

The Electoral Process

- How do you get elected?
- Who gets elected, and who does not?
- What impact do polls, political parties, and PACs have upon elections?
- How can I get involved in a campaign?
- Why should I vote?

In today's society, individuals participate as citizens by voting, jury service, volunteerism, serving as members of advisory bodies, in military service, in community organizations, and by engagement in the electoral and political process. In this unit, students study the role of political parties, the nomination process for presidential candidates, including the primary system, and the role of polls, campaign advertising and financing, the Electoral College, and methods of direct democracy utilized in California and various states. They do this by considering the following questions: **How do you get elected? Who gets elected, and who does not?** and **What impact do polls, political parties, and PACs have upon elections?**



Students also learn about how citizens participate in the political process through voting, campaigning, lobbying, filing legal challenges, demonstrating, petitioning, picketing, and running for office. Because most students will be eligible to vote for the first time in a year of taking this course, questions like **Why should I vote?** and **How can I get involved in a**

campaign? seem particularly relevant. This unit lends itself to utilizing real-world examples, case studies, and debates while students address the material.

Students can study current elections and campaigns, take part in the Secretary of State's Poll Worker program, and serve as campaign volunteers during an election. Students can also analyze proposed initiatives, controversial issues surrounding campaign financing, voter identification laws, redistricting, and negative campaign ads. To learn more about how the election process affects them and their education, students might be encouraged to study a school board race, candidate positions on education, or a local school bond or parcel tax campaign.

As a practical matter, students should know how to register to vote—both online and by mail—what the requirements are for registration; how to request, fill out, and return an absentee ballot; what to expect on election day; how to find a polling place; and where and how to access and understand the voter information pamphlet and other materials to become an informed voter. While this

information may vary from county to county, students preparing to vote can go to the Secretary of State’s Web page at <http://www.sos.ca.gov/elections/> as well as to their local registrar of voters to explore these topics. Teachers may want to consider an activity where students go through the above steps in order to help prepare them for the exercise of their rights as voting adults. Students should explore the effect of voter turnout on the democratic process. What difference does it make how large and diverse a proportion of the potential electorate actually participates in any given election?

Federalism: Different Levels of Government

- Why are powers divided among different levels of government?
- What level of government is the most important to me—local, state, tribal, or federal?
- What level of government is the most powerful—local, state, tribal, or federal?

In this unit, students analyze the principles of federalism. They should identify key provisions of the U.S. Constitution that established the federal system including enumerated powers, Article I restrictions on states’ powers, and the Ninth and Tenth Amendments. Teachers can emphasize how power and responsibilities are divided among national, state, local, and tribal governments and ask students to consider this question: **Why are powers divided among different levels of government?** Students should understand that local governments are established by the states, and tribal governments are recognized by constitutional provisions and federal law. The following questions help students consider the central principles: What are the major responsibilities of the various levels, and what are their revenue sources? What kinds of issues does each level of government handle?

At the federal level, examples might include regulation of interstate commerce and international trade, national defense, foreign policy, and antiterrorism, especially with the expansion of presidential and vice-presidential powers after the 9/11 attacks. Students can come to understand the scope of presidential power and decision making through case studies such as the Cuban Missile Crisis, the Bosnian intervention, the formulation and passage of the Great Society legislative

program, the War Powers Act, and congressional authorizations of force in the Gulf War and the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan.

Students should also identify typical responsibilities of state government, including education, infrastructure such as roads and bridges, criminal and civil law, and regulation of business. The state also oversees and regulates local governments and the services provided such as fire and police protection, sanitation, local public schools, public transportation, housing, and zoning and land use.

Nevertheless, what happens when there is overlapping jurisdiction? Matters such as education, health care, transportation, and housing often have multiple government agencies regulating and funding them. Students may explore questions such as these: How is public policy made at these various levels? How do regulatory departments and agencies function, and how do state and local regulatory agencies differ from those at the federal level? Students should examine the important realms of law and the courts (for example, criminal justice, family law, environmental protection, and education) that remain largely under state and county control.

Finally, students should explore the ways people interact with and influence state government and local government. **What level of government is the most important to me—local, state, tribal, or federal?** and **What level of government is the most powerful—local, state, tribal, or federal?** Lawyers, judges, or public officials can be invited into the classroom to participate in simulations and activities concerning the justice and court systems or municipal government. Examples of local government may be the school board, city council, county supervisors, and superior courts. Besides simulation, other options with more relevance for participation in democracy include participation in campaigns, voter registrations, and voting drives, as well as assistance in writing policy for local and state agencies. Students may attend and participate in public hearings. Students can be assigned project-based learning in which they identify and analyze a community problem in terms of its causes, effects, and policy implications; propose solutions; and take civic actions to implement those solutions, including the creation of evidence-based and multimedia presentations.

The Fourth Estate: The Role of the Media in American Public Life

- To what extent are the press and the media fulfilling a watchdog role?
- Do media outlets provide enough relevant information about government and politics to allow citizens to vote and participate in a well-informed way?
- How has the Internet revolution impacted journalism, and what are its effects on the coverage of public affairs and current issues?

Students also scrutinize the current role of the press in American democracy. Students may be presented with a series of compelling questions about the press (and its changing role in American political life over time) and be encouraged to form their own questions. **To what extent are the press and the media fulfilling a watchdog role? Do media outlets provide enough relevant information about government and politics to allow citizens to vote and participate in a well-informed way? How has the Internet revolution impacted journalism, and what are its effects on the coverage of public affairs and current issues?** How do elected officials and candidates for public office utilize the mass media to further their goals? Students may begin to answer these questions with a brief review of the First Amendment’s freedom of speech and of the press clauses and key U.S. Supreme Court press cases such as *Near v. Minnesota* (1931), *New York Times Co. v. Sullivan* (1964) and *Hazelwood v. Kuhlmeier* (1988).

Students should also discuss the responsibility of citizens to be informed about public issues by using the various media wisely. Students can engage in current-event and multimedia projects that would enable them to explore issues. For example, students may select a current issue of interest and research it by using multiple print and electronic media sources and analyze factual differences, bias, point of view and conclusions of each source. Based on their research, students could then write an evidence-based opinion piece on the issue.



Comparative Governments and the Challenges of Democracy

- Do citizens have rights that the state must respect; if so, what are they?
- What is the role of civil dissent and when is it necessary?
- Why have some revolutions been followed by purges of dissidents, mass arrests of political opponents, murder of “class enemies,” suppression of free speech, abolition of private property, and attacks on religious groups?
- Why do authoritarian governments spy on their citizens and prevent them from emigrating? Why do they jail or harass critics of their government? Why is only one party allowed in an authoritarian state? Why do ordinary people risk their lives to flee or transform authoritarian states?
- How do individual countries combat terrorist organizations that do not recognize international norms or boundaries? How can individual citizens or nongovernmental organizations improve civil society? How can multinational alliances work together to combat climate change?

This unit begins with a review of the major political and economic systems encountered by students during their previous years’ studies (particularly in seventh, eighth, tenth, and eleventh grades): feudalism, mercantilism, socialism, fascism, communism, capitalism, monarchy, and parliamentary and constitutional liberal democracies in order to understand the historical context for both democratic and autocratic systems. Students can study the philosophies of these systems and the ways in which they influence economic policies, social welfare policies, and human rights practices.

Teachers may emphasize that most nations combine aspects of different philosophies. When studying the variety of forms that democracies take, students can compare systems of shared powers—such as the United States where power is shared among the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of government—with parliamentary systems.

Students should also discuss the advantages and disadvantages of federal, co-federal, and unitary systems of government. Students can also examine how some Western democracies have “mixed” systems of capitalism and state socialism

and contemporary politics has been marked by movements toward more market-based systems in the developing world and democratic socialism in the industrialized world.

Students examine nondemocratic and tyrannical forms of government, the conditions that gave rise to them in certain historical contexts, and the ways in which they functioned in countries like Italy, Japan, Haiti, Nigeria, Cambodia, and Iraq. Students may also define and identify illegitimate power and explore how dictators have gained and held onto office. The fundamental components that typically distinguish democracies from dictatorships include control of the media, lack of political and personal freedoms, corruption of public officials, lack of governmental transparency, and the lack of citizens' access to changing the government. Case studies should be included in this unit in order to consider the economic, social, and political conditions that often give rise to tyranny. **Does such a government rest on the consent of the governed? Do citizens have rights that the state must respect; if so, what are they? What is the role of civil dissent, and when is it necessary?**

To answer these questions, students refer to aspects of democracy, such as tolerance for dissent, political equality, engaged participation, majority rule with protection of minority rights, the underpinnings of civil society, and individual freedom. They can also explore the importance of the rule of law and the unique role of an independent judiciary in a democracy, the need for civilian control of military and police, and the desirability of popular petitions, rallies, and other forms of participation.

Recent events can be incorporated in analytical projects and group debates and discussions and deliberations. For example, students may develop analysis papers on the success of democratic movements based on the above criteria in various countries such as Afghanistan, China, Zimbabwe, or Argentina. Learning about different forms of nonelected governments can help students understand their antithesis, democracy, and the relative success of democratic reforms in places like Botswana and Costa Rica. Further analysis into the characteristics of nondemocratic systems may highlight the dangers of concentrating power in a small group of elites, widespread governmental corruption, a lack of due process, and demagoguery. Such characteristics can be seen in both official nation-states (such as Syria under Assad) or in nongovernmental terrorist groups (such as the self-proclaimed Islamic State).

Students can use what they learned in grade ten about communism, the Russian Revolution, the dictatorship of Joseph Stalin, and the expansion of Soviet power after World War II to recall the components of nonelected government in twentieth-century Russia. Alternatively, students can review what they learned in grade ten about the development of fascist dictatorships in Germany and Italy and how they systematically eliminated civil liberties, subverted the role of the military, and quashed political dissent.

Students can also address authoritarian regimes in recent times and places like Cuba, Laos, Vietnam, North Korea, Sudan, Syria, and China. Their similarities and differences, including the need for control of information, and the difficulties such regimes face in maintaining control of information given modern technology, such as the Internet and cell phones, may be the focus. Authoritarian governments in these contexts often come to power because they are supported by groups that believe that revolution or radical change can reform their societies.

Through this, students can study the concept of the total state in which the government, the military, the educational system, all social organizations, the media, and the economy are controlled by the regime. They may also consider the challenges of sustaining these kinds of governments—both within, from dissidents and without, from the Internet. Students should come away with both an understanding of the contexts in which different kinds of governments arise and also with a sense of the value of a free press, open educational institutions, free labor unions, and free speech in democratic regimes.

To deepen their understanding of authoritarian regimes, students should also examine the condition of human rights: **Why have some revolutions been followed by purges of dissidents, mass arrests of political opponents, murder of “class enemies,” suppression of free speech, abolition of private property, and attacks on religious groups? What are fundamental human rights are widely recognized throughout the world community? Why does denial of human rights so often accompany a violent change of government? Why do many artists and intellectuals defect to nonauthoritarian nations? Why do authoritarian governments spy on their citizens and prevent them from emigrating? Why do they jail or harass critics of their government? Why is only one party allowed in an authoritarian state? Why do ordinary people risk their lives to flee or transform authoritarian states?** Students can analyze why

communism collapsed and study the governments that arose in the former Soviet Union and Eastern Europe.

Students should also examine international efforts to protect human rights (e.g., the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, jurisdiction of the World Court and International Criminal Court) and current relevant issues such as protection of civilian populations during wartime, oppression of minority groups, and forced removal or genocide. Students can read and analyze the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights and compare it to the 1776 Bill of Rights, noting similarities and differences for additional discussion (e.g., group rights versus individual rights).

Attention also should be given to historical and contemporary movements that overthrew tyrannical governments and/or movements toward democratic government in countries such as Spain, Poland, Mexico, Argentina, Chile, the Philippines, South Korea, Guatemala, El Salvador, South Africa, Turkey, and Egypt.

However, as each case illustrates, democracy is a process and must be understood on a spectrum and in its own geopolitical and temporal context. Questions like **How do government actions impact civil society?** can engage students in this unit. Teachers may conduct structured discussions in which students deliberate on issues that might impact America's vision of a civil society, such as globalization, international and internal migrations, environmental change, or technological innovation. They can consider the degree to which given movements were successful in establishing democratic governments. Students can also be assigned multimedia or writing projects on specific movements and draw evidence-based conclusions on their success.

Finally, students should understand the range of actors beyond the nation-state that influence today's world including nongovernmental organizations, multinational corporations, and international and regional alliances, economic bodies, and associations. Contemporary problems such as the environment, economics, and terrorism cross state borders and demand a different kind of national and international community than the world of the twentieth century. Students can consider questions such as **How do individual countries combat terrorist organizations that do not recognize international norms**

or boundaries? What challenges do efforts to combat nonstate terrorist organizations create for the operation of international humanitarian law? How can individual citizens or nongovernmental organizations improve civil society? How can multinational alliances work together to combat climate change?

Compelling Questions and Contemporary Issues

This course provides opportunities for students to formulate compelling and supporting questions and analyze tensions in a constitutional democracy between key concepts and ideals such as majority rule and individual rights, liberty, and equality; state and national authority in a federal system; civil disobedience and the rule of law; freedom of the press and the right to a fair trial; and the relationship of religion and government.

This course also provides opportunities for students to discuss, analyze, and construct writings on contemporary local, national, and international issues; participate in simulations of governmental processes; and apply what they have learned in addressing real-world problems. Opportunities may be offered inside and outside the classroom. Structured classroom discussions and writing activities challenge students to discuss current events and issues of their choosing by analyzing various perspectives, researching causes and effects, evaluating policy options, and stating and supporting reasoned and evidence-based opinions. These activities can also focus on the significance of elections and the roles that students might play as voters engaged in electoral politics.

Topics for discussion may include technology (such as nuclear proliferation or the effect of the Internet on the political process or on intellectual property), the environment (such as global warming, preservation of wildlife, or alternative energy sources), human rights (such as the use of torture, or immigration and refugee policies), politics (such as tax policy, voting and representation, campaign financing, or the fight against government corruption and efforts to improve government competence), foreign policy (such as responses to terrorism, or standards for foreign intervention), health (such as childhood obesity, health care reform, or responses to the spread of AIDS), the law (such as the constitutional scope and limits of presidential power, relations between law enforcement and the communities they protect, judicial independence, racism and sexism,

discrimination against members of the LGBT community, or protection of civil rights in times of war or national crisis) and economic issues (such as government regulation of markets, labor laws, free trade and fair trade, or debt relief to developing countries).

In debating, discussing, or writing about these issues, students consider the local, national, and global aspects.

Teachers encourage students to consider multiple perspectives that stretch across political, geographic, and class divides. Throughout the course, incorporating a range of activities and simulations of governmental processes will help students understand that being an active citizen means applying their knowledge beyond the textbook. They will have an opportunity to practice participating in community issues and civic dialogue. For example, when studying the role of Congress or a city council, students can participate in mock legislative hearings and debates; when studying the courts, they may take part in mock trials, moot-court simulations, or conflict-resolution mediations; or when studying international issues they can take part in model United Nations activities.

In addition, participating in elections, volunteering as poll workers, taking part in school governance and extracurricular activities, competing in civic-writing activities, and conducting service-learning projects with civic outcomes provide students with hands-on experiences with the political process and government.

Among the persistent issues facing the United States and California, in particular, is how to balance individual rights and liberties with the common good in matters related to land as well as water, air, and other natural resources. Students examine case studies that embody the struggle to find this balance and consider the spectrum of factors that influence policy decisions about natural resources and natural systems (see appendix G for Environmental Principle V). Students learn that many conflicts over environmental issues result from competing perspectives involving individual rights and the common good, an illustrative example of the reciprocity between rights and obligations. (See Education and the Environment Initiative curriculum unit “This Land Is Our Land,” 12.2.)

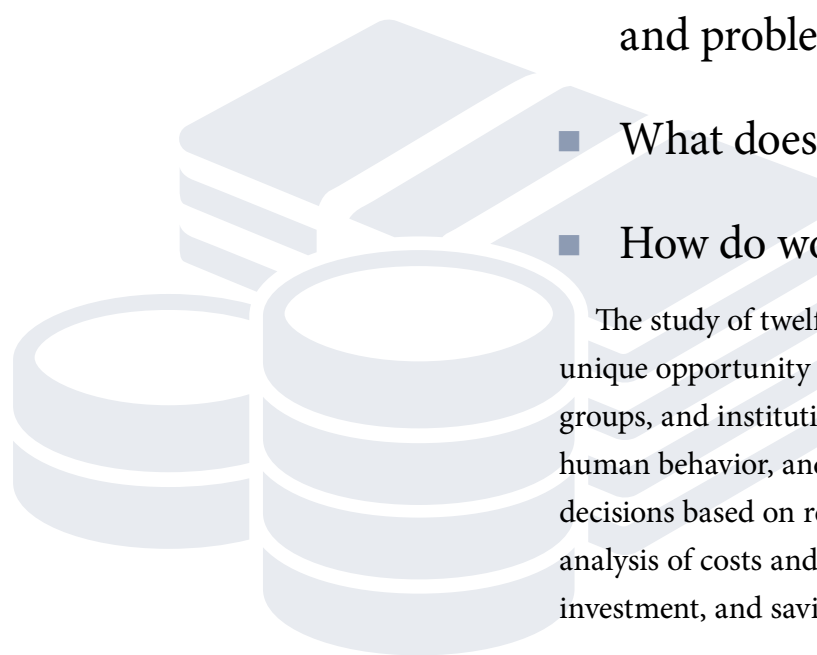


The course may culminate in an activity in which students analyze a local, state, national, or international political or social problem or issue. Teachers may assign a research paper or a multimedia project in which students analyze a problem or issue; consider its civic, economic, geographic, and/or historical dimensions; research it by examining multiple sources and points of view; evaluate the sources; critique and construct claims and conclusions based on the evidence; and present and defend their conclusions. Alternately, the activity might be a civics-based service-learning project in which students identify local problems or issues of concern; research and analyze them in terms of causes and effects and multiple points of view; identify, discuss, and evaluate public policies relating to the issues, including interacting with public officials; and construct a project to address it or a multimedia presentation to educate about it.

CHAPTER 18

Principles of Economics (One Semester)

- How is economics about scarcity, investment, growth, employment, competition, protection, entrepreneurship, and markets?
- What is capitalism? What are its benefits and problems?
- What does it mean to be financially literate?
- How do worldwide markets affect me?



The study of twelfth-grade economics provides students with a unique opportunity to consider the impact of choice on individuals, groups, and institutions. It offers a lens to understand and analyze human behavior, and it builds a student's ability to make informed decisions based on relevant economic information such as an analysis of costs and benefits; the trade-offs between consumption, investment, and savings; the availability and allocation of natural

resources; the distribution of resources among investors, managers, workers, and innovation; the role of the government in supporting, taxing, and investing in industries; and human and physical capital.

Economics functions as a lens through which to consider the impact of governmental action (or inaction) on the lives of citizens. Understanding how the economy functions and how economic reasoning can inform decision making will provide students with the tools to become financially literate and independent. Economics is the study of how people choose to use resources. It is also a discipline that analyzes how to promote productive economic activities such as entrepreneurship, education and government investment in infrastructure, and research; it studies how to promote full employment, fair wage growth, and return on capital; it explores how to avoid financial dislocations and predatory business practices; and it argues how best to provide basic safety-net supports such as retirement for each citizen.

The resources people use are land, labor, and capital; these resources are finite, or what some people call *scarce*. *Scarcity* means that resources, such as natural and human resources, are limited in quantity compared with the competing demands for their use. In this one-semester economics course, students examine more deeply the choices they make and explore how these choices have consequences that ripple across the world.

One question that can guide the course is **How is economics about scarcity, investment, growth, employment, competition, protection, entrepreneurship, and markets?** By learning about economics through questions, students will deepen their understanding of fundamental economic concepts like cost–benefit analysis; they will analyze the American economy in a global setting; they will explore how the federal government affects the American economy; they will learn about the labor market in national and global settings and see themselves in those settings by identifying which jobs will grow in the near future and the education requirements for certain jobs; they will analyze aggregate economic behavior of the U.S. to learn about how unemployment and interest rates, for example, affect the country; and they will explore issues related to international trade.

To achieve all of this, students learn to apply basic economic principles and methods of analysis, building on the knowledge of economics gained in earlier grade

levels. In kindergarten, students learn that they make choices. By twelfth grade, they apply economic concepts to the decisions they make in their own lives and to the economic, social, and political issues that dominate the world around them.

Although students first encounter economics as a separate course in the twelfth grade, much of the course content will not be new to them. Concepts like human capital, the availability of work, cost–benefit analysis, the role of markets, infrastructure such as roads and public health, the role of law and patents in encouraging innovation, the importance of private and governmental investments in research and technology, and international trade can be explained in their study of history in earlier grades. For example, in the elementary grades, students can think about how scarcity of resources, such as what Americans faced in the early colonial period, affected the choices they made.

At the middle school level, students can consider the impact of trade on the growth of civilizations during the medieval period. In the eleventh grade, students can examine the contributions of capitalism, industrial development, scientific innovations, and entrepreneurship to continued growth in the standard of living. They can also examine the excesses of late nineteenth-century capitalism, such as trusts and predatory practices; scrutinize the increasing economic role of the federal government during the Great Depression; and debate the effectiveness of New Deal programs, including regulation, social supports, and labor rights, on the American economy. Thus, students have been revisiting, in a variety of historical contexts, questions about scarcity of resources.

Now in twelfth grade, they will examine primarily the current contexts to consider important economic questions including **How does the economy relate to me? What does it mean to budget? How do markets work in the abstract and concrete world?**

Fundamental Economic Concepts and Reasoning

- How are resources allocated?
- What is a market economy?

Students may begin learning about economics from a personal perspective; in other words, to get invested in the discipline they can begin their study of

economics by seeing their place in it, starting with personal budgeting and moving outward to identify their economic place in the world through a multitude of layers.

Teachers may begin by telling students they will be assigned a unique (and imagined by the teacher) economic identity: This identity initially consists of a monthly salary, a list of bills, and a checkbook or an online system of sending and receiving money. Starting with their monthly salary, students are directed to determine their take-home pay by subtracting federal and state taxes (teachers can provide this information to students or have students locate it and estimate their rate based on their salary).

Next, students must pay their bills. Bills consist of a predetermined amount for these categories: rent/mortgage, utilities, cell phone, student loan payment, car payment, and car insurance. Once bills are paid, students allocate money for the remainder of the month. They can choose whether or how much to save; how much to devote to food, gas, and other staples; and how to use any discretionary money left over. Once students have divided their resources for a month, they should take a step back and look at their larger budgets, perhaps using online budgeting tools and making charts or graphs to understand how and where they spend money.

With a budget in hand, students can begin to learn about different kinds of debt and ways of accumulating personal wealth. Starting with debt, teachers provide students with an overview of what a credit card is, how interest gets calculated, what compound interest consists of, and how credit card debt affects individuals in the marketplace. Students can calculate credit card payments and factor them into their contrived economic identities for practice. In addition, teachers may provide similar overviews of student loan debt and mortgage debt and explain how these latter forms of debt are often considered “helpful” debt in the long term as they contribute to more opportunities for wealth during a lifetime. Still, these forms of debt can be calculated and similarly factored into their contrived economic identities.

Students should also learn about different options for saving money. While teachers will go into more depth later in the semester about marketplace investments (in which students can learn to “play” the stock market, for example),

students can learn now from their above-described budgets about different options for saving their resources. Teachers may offer students three options for investment: for example, a zero-risk very small interest savings account or CD, a small-risk mutual fund, or a higher-risk investment. With data supplied by the teacher, students can calculate their wealth from their hypothetical identity



over time and extrapolate where they will be in one year, five years, fifteen years, and so on. In the meantime, they work through compound interest and acknowledge that interest rates vary significantly depending on many factors in the economy. At the end of this initial unit, students should come away with a personal understanding of their stake in the economy and can begin to place larger concepts in the context of their own place in it.

By learning about personal finance from this individual perspective, students will now learn about how international markets are interrelated and how they affect their own finances and economic opportunities. At the more local level, immediate relevance can be achieved by discussing city and/or county budgets (i.e., revenues and expenditures), payday loans, rent-a-centers, and even chambers of commerce. Studying these topics now will help students when they become adults and must confront decisions about household budgets, student loans, credit cards, mortgages, and savings and investment strategies.

Just as students began this course learning about personal finance, the concepts can be woven throughout the course, applying the economic ideas and analytical tools mentioned above to other sectors of the economy. Budgeting can be taught as an example of scarcity; job applications can be taught as examples of human capital inventories; student loans can be taught as an investment in developing human capital; use of credit cards can be taught to explain the opportunity cost of interest and repayment; and interest on credit can be taught as an example of price determination through supply and demand.

Economics is a social science that focuses on the choices people make about the utilization of resources and the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services. Students can investigate the question **How are resources allocated?** to better understand the process of distributing resources. Students learn that each economic issue involves individual choices based on both monetary and nonmonetary incentives.

At a store in the mall, the manager decides what goods to stock, manufacturers choose which goods to produce, and the consumer decides what to buy. But on a broader level, one that is often invisible to the consumer, decisions over what products are developed and offered for sale are typically shaped by executives of public corporations, who must simultaneously consider the needs of stockholders, corporate boards, workers, and customers. Executives also make decisions about trade-offs among human and technological investment, investment and research for future growth versus compensation of employees, managers, and shareholders.

To better understand the choices that the store manager, manufacturer, and executives make in response to limited resources, students can consider the daily trade-offs they make in their own lives. For example, students may ask themselves, “How many hours will I use my human capital to study, and how many hours will I use it to work for pay?” A fundamental concept in economics is that the cost of something is what one gives up to get it. All decisions involve opportunity costs: that is, the cost of the best alternative that one gives up when making a choice. If the student chooses to study longer, he or she must give up hours that could be spent working for pay.

However, the student must also consider the potential benefits of earning better grades, attending college, and receiving a higher salary in the future that may result from studying now. Students will examine the opportunity costs of choices, such as the following ones: Will I join the drama club? How much education or post-high school training will I acquire? What will I buy with my money? How much will I save? Will I use a credit card for purchases? What is the interest rate? By learning how to conduct cost-benefit analyses and how to evaluate the marginal benefits and marginal costs of alternative uses of resources, students will learn how to make informed decisions.

Next, students can consider the questions **What is capitalism?** and more specifically, **What is a market economy?** Students consider the potential for dynamic growth in a capitalist system, through the reinvestment of profit for future earnings, increased effectiveness and efficiency through economies of scale, and the reduction of risk through the creation of joint stock companies.

They learn about market economies and concepts, such as private property, that form a fundamental basis for the American economy. They study the significance of limited liability corporations, the rule of law and contracts, protection of innovations through patents, the role of government in providing necessary infrastructure like transportation, ports, public health, communication networks, and investment in medical and technological research. They learn that market economies provide incentives that often spur innovation and growth. Although there is no doubt that profit is the main motivator for businesses, some business owners hope to produce goods and services that yield socially desirable outcomes.

Nevertheless, no market-based business can survive if it does not return a profit. Regarded as the father of modern economics, Adam Smith argued that individuals pursuing their own self-interest can also improve society as a whole. Smith also advocated basic government supports and the importance of following a moral code. A free market often promotes innovation, reinforces individual liberty by protecting private property, encourages review and debate, and rewards initiative. However, markets may also create consequences such as pollution, monopolies, predatory practices, or inequitable income distribution. A question that students may consider is what are the components of a free economy in the abstract versus free economies in the real world? Students may also consider the special case of utilities by investigating the question **What is the best way to deliver services provided by utilities: through a public or private (but regulated) monopoly?**

Students can begin to identify similarities and differences between economies functioning in the abstract versus reality, as this is key in setting up later economic principles. Students can also address the question How has the relative market power and political power of business and labor changed, and what has been the effect of the change on income distribution over the past 100 years? Students should be able to use data to support their positions and present a careful evaluation of the source of the data.

The American Market Economy

- What are key components of the American economic system?
- How are prices determined? Who determines prices?
- How do banks and markets function?

Students will first learn about the operation of markets by studying the American market economy. Students can begin to learn about the functioning of the economy by addressing the question **What are the key components of the American economic system?** A market is an interaction between buyers and sellers. Students will learn that a market economy is a decentralized economic system where most economic decisions are made by individuals.

One fundamental component of market economics is the premise that individuals respond to incentives. An incentive to a worker is pay, whereas incentive to a business is profit both in the present and in the future. Profits in a market economy encourage entrepreneurs and businesses to invent, construct, and produce efficiently to meet the desires of consumers. Incentives to business may be multiple as they attempt to satisfy stockholders, consumers, or workers. Consumers also respond when incentives change: if gasoline prices stay high for a long time, drivers will switch to more fuel-efficient cars or alternative forms of transportation.

Another component of the American economic system is that relative prices in a market economy change over time with changes in supply and demand. The relationship between sellers and buyers may be illustrated by having students learn about the logic of supply and demand. Students can trace changes in supply and demand by using historical and contemporary examples and study the resulting change in equilibrium price and quantity. For example, an unusually large wheat crop, without an increased demand, will cause wheat prices to fall. Alternatively, a shortage of a popular video game system during the holiday season will cause the price to rise. Students can examine specific cases of price changes and determine whether a change in demand, or in supply, or both, caused the fluctuation in price. Students can also participate in a market economy simulation to learn about the interaction between sellers and buyers.

Students can continue to learn about key components of the American economic system by considering the following questions: **How are prices determined?**

Who determines prices? Markets allocate resources to produce goods that are in demand, and they determine the quantities of goods produced and the prices of those goods. Markets range from the local used-car market to the market for professional baseball players. The interaction between buyers and sellers in markets establishes the current price of a good, or what economists call the *equilibrium price*. If a price is too high, a surplus will occur and sellers must lower prices. If sellers charge too low of a price, the resulting shortage informs sellers that they can set a higher price. Students can see that the price of a Picasso painting and a soft drink alike are determined by both supply and demand in the marketplace.

Open competition within markets aims to maximize economic efficiency, but it can also negatively affect different groups and individuals. For example, students can study how global competition by producers of goods

ranging from toys to automobiles created new challenges for domestic manufacturers and workers in the United States (the consequences for other nations and people will be addressed in later units).

Global competition effectively lowers the equilibrium price for these items. The manufacture of toy dolls may be used as an example: because foreign manufacturers and workers produce dolls for less money than do American manufacturers (in part because American workers command higher wages and the materials to produce dolls are more expensive domestically), foreign manufacturers can then charge less money for the doll in the marketplace than the American manufacturer can; consequently this global competition lessens the amount of money American consumers are willing to pay for a doll. Because of this chain reaction in the equilibrium price of dolls, domestic manufacturers and workers earn less money for the same doll they had been producing.

Students can continue studying the interaction between the consumer and the producer by exploring the question **Who establishes prices in the marketplace?** Some prices are set by pure market forces through open competition. Students may investigate examples of how competition in the marketplace has led to significant



price reductions for computers and smartphones, yet prices on some goods like drugs have stayed high due to monopolies and collusion.

Other prices in the marketplace are set by the government in the form of price floors or price ceilings. A price floor sets a price above the equilibrium level; an example of a price floor in the labor market is the federal minimum wage. A rent control law that holds rents below the equilibrium is an example of a price ceiling in the housing market. Government attempts at price setting to improve market outcomes may have benefits and unintended consequences for market participants. Rent control laws, for example, can benefit existing renters, but these laws may also lead to a shortage of available apartment units. If builders and/or property owners cannot recoup their initial investment or make a profit, they will not have enough of an incentive to construct and/or rent apartments in the future.

Another historical example of government attempts at price setting happen in times of war, which requires immediate and concentrated action. During World War II, a close and beneficial relationship developed between business and government.

Students will also learn about the role of financial markets and banks in the functioning of the American economy by addressing the following question: **How do banks and markets function?** Students may begin their exploration of the banking system by relating it back to the initial unit on budgeting. They can discuss personal risks and costs, including banking and other fees, personal debt, and identity theft. Students can also learn how banks can support the work of small-business owners through the formation of new businesses, how banks provide student loans for education, and how the variety of banks serve the specific interests of their customers.

Beyond working on day-to-day transactions with individual customers, banks channel funds from savers to consumers and investors, expanding credit in the economy. Financial markets facilitate the raising and transfer of capital and the operation of international trading networks. When banks and financial markets fail to perform these functions, or when they pursue risky and speculative loans like offering stock market credit, or engage in questionable financial instruments such as unregulated derivatives, there may be negative impacts on an economy, as was the case in the United States in the Great Depression, as well as during the financial crisis that began in 2007.

Students should study a period of economic crisis to gain a better understanding of the American market economy. Such a study also serves as a link to the next unit, which focuses on the role of government in the American economy. Students should also use economic data (for example, figures on unemployment, housing foreclosures, income distribution, or losses in the stock market) to present a case for or against the statement that the American economy has a free financial system. They may investigate the results of the repeal of the Glass-Steagall Act (or Banking Act of 1933), which prohibited commercial banks from combining their normal banking functions (accepting deposits and making loans) with investment activities and speculation.

An additional way for students to address the question **How do banks and markets function?** is through practice. As with their initial imagined budget and personal finance exercise, students can extend that same set of circumstances to financial markets. With a budget and clearly defined financial goals, students can make simulated investments in the stock market and analyze changes in value over time.

Government Influence upon the American Economy

- How is the American government involved in the economy?
- How has the American government been involved in the economy in the past?
- How does the federal budget affect ordinary people?
- What does it mean to pay taxes?
- What does it mean to run a deficit?
- Why is there a Federal Reserve Bank? How does it function?

Students can further their studies of the American economic system by addressing this question: **How is the American government involved in the economy?** The U.S. economy is primarily a market economy with some government intervention. As a result, students learn that it is more accurately classified as a *mixed economy*. Students may review from previous classes the economic significance of government actions like investments in roads and other

infrastructure, health, basic medical and technological research, reining in monopolies and predatory practices, pure food and drug initiatives, and regulations against pollution and risky banking practices.

Government agencies, like the Federal Reserve and Consumer Financial Protection Bureau, sometimes intervene in markets to promote the general welfare, provide for national defense, address environmental concerns, establish and enforce property rights, and protect consumer and labor rights. In this unit, students investigate the changing role of government in the economy, including the consequences of both government action and inaction in specific sectors of the economy. In particular, they can analyze the outcomes of incentives and investigate the distributive effects of government policy.

They learn to identify the benefits and costs of government influence in the economy in different industries and for different groups of people. For example, students can consider the government’s response to hydraulic fracturing. Government regulation of “fracking” may impact the environment, the local labor market, and the growth of a variety of small- and large-business interests. Students can trace how government policy steers sectors of the economy through regulatory activity.

Students can consider the legacy of governmental involvement in a mixed economy by addressing the question **How has the American government been involved in the economy in the past?** They may look at history to evaluate the impact of government in land purchases like the Louisiana Purchase and the purchase of Alaska; the investment in infrastructure, like canals, railroads, and the interstate highway system; investment in education through land grant colleges and the G.I. Bill; and investment in science and technology, such as space exploration.

Students can analyze and evaluate the extent and impact of government research into energy efficiency, space, medicine, and other investments, examining the distribution of benefits and costs of these investments among different groups. Students may also look at contemporary examples of government involvement in the economy like the 2010 Consumer Protection Act, which established the Consumer Financial Protection Bureau. Students may consider the ways in which the government aims to make markets work for ordinary Americans in the use of credit cards or mortgages, for example.

Federal, state, and local governments have enacted a wide range of laws intended to protect the health of the environment, many implemented through fiscal policies and used to influence business decisions and practices that affect public health and the natural environment. Students learn about the externalities of modern production and consumption and the interactions between economic policy and protection of the environment. It allows them to explore marginal costs, marginal benefits, and opportunity costs of government actions. This study builds their knowledge about the considerations and processes involved in decisions related to the environment and natural resources (see appendix G for Environmental Principle V). Students investigate the range of fiscal tools government uses to help protect the environment: establishing or managing markets, providing subsidies, imposing taxes, and using command and control policies (Education and the Environment Initiative curriculum unit “Government and the Economy: An Environmental Perspective,” 12.3.1).

Students may also analyze the long history of water ownership in California, for example, to develop their understanding of the American system of private property ownership. They view issues through a lens of renewable and nonrenewable resources. Allowing them to explore the connections between individual property rights and societal decision making helps students recognize the wide spectrum of social, economic, political, and environmental factors related to the use and conservation of natural resources (see appendix G for Environmental Principle V). Students recognize that many of these factors are considered when governments and communities make decisions about private property rights and the balance between an individual’s self-interest and society as a whole (see EEI curriculum unit “Private Property and Resource Conservation Economics,” 12.1.4).

Government stabilization economic measures include both fiscal and monetary policies. To understand fiscal policy, students should address the following questions: **How does the federal budget affect ordinary people? What does it mean to pay taxes?** The federal government’s expenditures and tax collection significantly affect the economy. Students learn about the components of the federal budget and the ways in which Congress and the president enact spending and taxing policies.

To learn about the consequences of economic planning in the government,

students identify how governments budget resources, they study how governments generate revenue, they define what a budget deficit is, they learn about how it is financed over time, and they explore the components of the national debt.

Students may examine federal budget spending priorities and trace how federal tax dollars are collected and spent. They can participate in simulated federal budget exercises that investigate the ideas and priorities listed above. Students may also examine the historical trends in national debt by considering the question **What does it mean to run a deficit?** They can look to examples from the 1970s through recent years to chart federal deficits and the consequences over time. Students can also conduct a cost–benefit analysis at a mock town hall meeting about spending priorities and investment. Students can then apply this information to regional and local levels by comparing the types of taxes that the state and local governments collect and analyze how those tax revenues are being spent.

Students continue to examine the role of the government in the economy by addressing the following questions: **Why is there a Federal Reserve Bank? How does it function?** The Federal Reserve Bank (Fed), a mixed private/government institution, works to stabilize the economy through monetary policy. Students learn that it acts as a central bank for the U.S. by influencing the quantity of money in circulation and by working to raise or lower short-term interest rates. The Fed tends to lower interest rates when fighting recession (a period of temporary economic decline marked by a fall in gross domestic product in two successive quarters) and raises them when it is fighting inflation (a sustained increase in the general price level of goods and services). Students also see that both monetary and fiscal policies have limitations in their effectiveness in fighting recession and inflation. They also study the role of government in regulating and insuring banks to protect solvency and maintain public confidence in the economy.

In a panel discussion, students may consider a particular economic regulation proposed by legislators (e.g., minimum wage, tax refunds, auto-emission standards). Using data and cost-benefit analysis, students can argue both for and against the regulation. To further extend their learning and provide a service to the community, students may hold the panel discussions in the evening. They can invite parents and other members of the community interested in better understanding the potential consequences of the proposed regulation.

Labor Markets

- What does it mean to work?
- How does one compete in the labor market?
- How are wages determined?
- How and why do workers organize?

The question **What does it mean to work?** can guide students as they explore all that is involved in the labor market—ranging from the small-scale application process for a part-time job after school to the large-scale quantitative information about labor statistics in the economy.

Students apply their understanding of product markets to analyze labor markets, identifying the skills that are in demand and projections of the growth of future jobs and their educational requirements, and the ways in which they can use their school and training to develop their human capital to meet those skill demands.

Students can consider the following question: **How does one compete in the labor market?** In a competitive labor market, a worker's productivity and contribution to a firm's revenues determine the demand for his or her services. Government regulations and labor unions influence the labor markets. The marginal product theory of wages emphasizes the importance of a worker's human capital (experience, education, skills, and personal qualities) in influencing their wage. By reviewing the term *human capital*, students can see the relationship between the amount of education and training workers obtain and their future salaries.

The question **How are wages determined?** can frame students' understanding of this component of the labor market. Wages are influenced by the supply of workers in a particular labor market, as well as by the relative economic power of businesses and workers. There are far more low-skilled workers who are willing to work for lower wages than highly skilled workers. As a result, low-skilled jobs, such as food service and retail, often pay lower salaries than do highly skilled jobs, such as computer engineering and medicine.

Students can study how businesses determine the skills required of their workers and investigate the role that this plays in creating profitable enterprises. By

researching economic data and evaluating the source of the data, students can analyze the effects of migration and immigration on both product and labor markets. Students may review changes in the California labor market in the areas of agriculture, manufacturing, information, and technology to identify change over time in certain industries.

This question can help students understand the role of the labor movement in affecting workers and the economy: **How and why do workers organize?** Students also study the history of the labor movement and assess its impact on labor markets, including methods used by unions to gain benefits for their members. They can also analyze the role of government in protecting workers' rights to organize and strike, as well as in preventing excessive disruption from prolonged or violent labor actions. By researching data and evaluating the source of the data, students can participate in an investigation about the effects of unionization on wages and employment in particular industries, including farm and public sector workers.



Students can participate in a collective bargaining simulation to better understand the competing interests of workers and employers. One group of students can examine the struggles of workers to increase their pay and improve their working conditions. Another group can consider the challenges that employers face to improve productivity, limit

costs, and, in the case of for-profit businesses, increase profitability. Students can also examine relevant legislation and court rulings, such as the right to organize, worker safety, and antidiscrimination policies. The first week of April is Labor History Week. Students may participate in a variety of activities or projects to become aware of the role that the labor movement has played in shaping California and the United States.

This context of the labor market provides the necessary foundation for an analysis of current issues in the marketplace, such as the types of goods and services produced, needed skills, the impact of technological innovation,

international competition, and the historical improvement and stagnation of real wages (which means wages adjusted for inflation). Students continue to address the question **What does it mean to work?** as they wrestle with broader issues in the labor market. As part of this review, students discuss poverty and income distribution in the United States in both historical and contemporary contexts. Students may conduct a mock National Labor Relations Board election to debate the pros and cons of unionization. In addition, students investigate the effects of international mobility of capital and labor in a globalized labor market. For example, students can consider the impact of international economic agreements, such as the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), on the labor market. Students can use data and participate in a debate about the impact of outsourcing and insourcing on the U.S. and foreign labor markets.

This unit also provides students with an opportunity to identify and analyze economic problems in their community (e.g., housing, hunger, employment). They can evaluate local initiatives addressing the problem. Students may also work with local policymakers and community groups to address the challenges. Students who focus on the availability of affordable housing, for example, may create a Web site or pamphlet that they can distribute to community members detailing resources and tools available from governmental agencies and nonprofit financial services. Finally, students can participate in mock job interviews to help them evaluate their preparation for entrance into the labor market.

Aggregate Economic Behavior

- What is macroeconomics and what does it reveal about the economy?
- How do data help to tell the story of the economy?
- How does a cyclical economy function?

The question **What is macroeconomics and what does it reveal about the economy?** provides students with a broader way of questioning and investigating the economy. Students learn to “read” the economy, distinguishing real data from nominal data, and recognize the significance of major macroeconomic data. Macroeconomics looks at the “big picture” through surveys of the national economy and explains how it is integrated globally. Students will define gross domestic product (GDP), consumption, investment, savings, unemployment, and

inflation to learn that economic growth is a sustained increase in incomes and output over time.

Small percentage changes in economic growth can have a significant impact on employment and price levels. Students will learn how the federal government compiles the measurements for economic growth and income, the unemployment rate, number of jobs created or lost, the rate of changes in the price level, and the impact of changes in these data on their personal economic and financial opportunities. The question **How do data help to tell the story of the economy?** can help students synthesize this breadth of quantitative information. For a market economy, traditional keys to long-term economic growth include implementing incentives for innovation, investing in capital goods, improving the human capital of the workforce, and encouraging entrepreneurship and technological innovation.

Market economies experience fluctuations in income, output, employment, and price level. Students can consider the following question as they review ordinary fluctuations in the marketplace: **How does a cyclical economy function?** Students analyze various macroeconomic outcomes and the operation of the business cycle in the American economy, including the reasons for the repetitive sequence of booms and recessions throughout its history.

Students learn that a decrease in total spending, or a drop in aggregate demand, may cause periods of contraction in the economy, which in turn causes economic downturns, such as the Great Depression of the 1930s and the Great Recession of 2007 to 2009. Conversely, a high level of aggregate demand relative to aggregate supply may cause inflation. Students learn that *hyperinflation*, or an extreme case of inflation, is caused by too much money in circulation. Examples include the German experience between the world wars in the twentieth century, Argentina in the 1950s, and more recent experiences of Zimbabwe and Venezuela.

Students can also learn about currency, circulation of currency and understand how that affects a nation and global markets; Greece's economic problems that started in the 2010s provide a vivid example of how one country's financial problems touch worldwide markets. Students study the importance of interest rates, both in the short term and the long term, in affecting the business cycle and the operation of the broader economy.

The Global Economy

- What is globalization?
- How does globalization affect international and national economies and individuals?
- Why are there critics of globalization?

In this unit, students address the question **What is globalization?** Due to trade liberalization policies (the lowering of trade barriers between countries), along with advances in technology, communication, and transportation that speed up trade between countries, all economies throughout the world are more closely integrated with one another today than at any other time in the past. As part of understanding what globalization is, students consider the question **How does globalization affect international and national economies and individuals?**

Students explore how changes in government policy, technology, information, and the rise of global markets contributed to this process. A sign that the U.S. economy is more globally integrated is the large percentage of exports and imports in GDP. Students will learn what exports and imports are, examine a trade deficit and surplus, and examine the balance of payments. They learn how the United States economy can be influenced by external factors, such as an increase in the price of oil on the global market or major changes in the incomes of its trading partners.

Trade occurs globally between individuals and firms due to differing comparative advantages. To address the uneven consequences of globalization, students consider this question: **Why are there critics of globalization?** International trade may be mutually beneficial to countries as it encourages specialization based on comparative advantage, increases overall productivity and employment, and lowers prices for consumers. The growth of world trade has contributed to an overall increase in personal income in recent history, but this increase has not been uniform across nations and within nations. Critics of globalization assert that freer trade does not equate with fair trade; certain nations and classes within nations benefit while other nations and classes within nations do not share in the prosperity. Students can analyze protectionist measures used to reduce imports and examine the positive and negative impacts on different groups, such as the effect of trade restrictions implemented during the Great Depression. Students may collect data, evaluate the sources of the data, and use the data to

analyze particular trade restrictions of the United States and its trading partners. They may use the same process to defend or oppose current trade agreements and disputes between the United States and other countries.

Globalization refers to the faster and freer flow of goods and services, inputs, money, and ideas around the world, as well as the emergence of a global production system used by multinational corporations. Financial transactions, whether in the form of credit, stocks, or bonds, also flow quickly around the world and cause economies to be closely integrated with one another. Students learn that trade liberalization, technology, information, and lower costs of transportation have all fostered globalization. Students can trace the impact of globalization for themselves, for different groups in their own economy, and for groups in other countries. Students can also use their knowledge from tenth-grade world history in examining developing countries and studying how they have been impacted by globalization.

Grade Twelve Classroom Example: Globalization

Ms. Albert's economics class is in the midst of their study of globalization, and she wants her students to get both an up-close and a broader view of how globalization affects their daily lives. The question the class considers in this unit is **How does globalization affect me?** At the start of class, Ms. Albert directs students to identify one personal item they have on them or in their possession at that very moment. Many students take out their smartphones, some choose their t-shirts, and others look at their backpacks.

Ms. Albert then tells students that they will trace how that one consumer item they have chosen has participated in the global economy. She provides her students with a list of information about that item that they must collect: the origin or origins of the item's raw materials, where it was assembled, the headquarters of the company that produced the item, all the countries that item has passed through, and then its sale in the U.S.

She cautions students that some of the information may be hard to trace. However, they can begin by researching the company's Web site and then find on a map some of the places where materials are extracted and manufactured. Once students have completed this information about their item, Ms. Albert directs them to tell in one or two paragraphs how their item arrived at the store.

Example *(continued)*

Some students begin by explaining how the concept of the item started, and others begin with the physical manufacturing of the item itself. But all of Ms. Albert's students conclude with a statement of how their lives are shaped by globalization; they recognize that the wide-scale availability of affordable consumer goods is made possible because of the global marketplace.

CA HSS Content Standards: PE 12.2, 12.6

CA HSS Analysis Skills (9–12): Chronological and Spatial Thinking 3

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RH.11–12.7, 9, WHST.11–12.2, 7

Students can also consider the impact of global trade on American foreign policy by investigating the impact of globalization on poverty, the environment, urban slums, child labor, women's rights, or AIDS/HIV through case studies, group presentations, or model United Nations sessions. Students can explore the human rights issues that arise in the context of global trade. Issues may include the rights of children, rights of women, and the rights to employment, education, health care, and leisure as recognized by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. How are the rights of individuals, families, and groups protected in a globalized economic system? Students also learn about examples of sustainable development.

Microfinance and microloans also play key roles in the globalized economy. Working in small groups, students can study requests for micro-financing from various regions of the world. Using criteria known to lead to successful loans, groups can assess the proposed projects and make presentations to the rest of the class about the project they believe will have the most sustainability for the new economy. The class can vote for their top project. To bring student learning full circle and return to the initial guiding question **How is economics about scarcity?**, teachers may have students analyze microfinance and global economics through this lens.

This page is left blank intentionally.

CHAPTER 19

Assessment of Proficiency in History–Social Science

In the use of any assessment, a central question is, “Am I using this assessment for the purpose for which it is intended?”

Assessment of student proficiency in history–social science can be a powerful tool to deepen student understanding of specific content and develop literacy, analytical thinking, and civic participation skills. Contrary to the traditional belief that assessment is useful only as a yardstick for measuring student mastery of specific facts, customized, rigorous, and thoughtful assessment practice can also guide instruction, improve student learning, and develop discipline-specific thinking skills. Rooted in the specific disciplines that comprise history–social science, assessment tools can provide teachers with the necessary information to improve student learning and literacy. Moreover, because of the impact that the marginalization of history–social science may have had upon student content knowledge, critical thinking, and literacy, a successful instructional program must have regular assessment in a variety of formats.

The importance of determining what is critical for students to know and understand is complicated by the fact that the amount and quality of history–social science instruction have varied

tremendously in elementary schools and classrooms in the last decade, making middle-grades classrooms even more diverse in terms of students' background knowledge compared with other subjects. Students with solid experience posing relevant questions about eyewitness accounts and historical photographs will have less trouble realizing that there are differing viewpoints on historical events than those students who have never examined any historical documents in prior grade levels.

As priorities transition to align with the instructional shifts embedded in the *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy), this marginalization will necessarily lessen, but in the meantime, both the volume of the content standards and the impact of limited access to history–social science in the lower grade levels make the process of determining the essential understandings at the middle grades absolutely indispensable. Teachers and district administrators need to set and prioritize their instructional goals to ensure that all students will be prepared to meet the demands of a more rigorous secondary curriculum.

Assessment of student learning in history-social science is informed by three separate state-adopted tools: (1) the *History–Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools* (History–Social Science Content Standards), which includes both the grade-level content expectations and analysis skill sections, (2) CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, and (3) *California English Language Development Standards* (CA ELD Standards).

With the adoption of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the CA ELD Standards, the landscape of assessment and accountability in California has experienced a dramatic shift. Not only do the standards present new goals for California educators, but the implementation of the California Assessment of Student Performance and Progress (CAASPP) system represents a major shift in the intent of statewide assessment: “It is the intent of the Legislature . . . to provide a system of assessments of pupils that has the primary purposes of assisting teachers, administrators, and pupils and their parents; improving teaching and learning; and promoting high-quality teaching and learning using a variety of assessment approaches and types” (*Education Code* Section 60602.5(a)). This shift is consonant with major emphases in California’s standards for college and career

readiness: a renewed focus on purposeful and deeper learning for students and their teachers, strong collaboration and partnerships at all levels of education, and a culture of continuous growth based on reflective practice.

History–social science teachers may also want to consult the *College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards* (C3 Framework), a publication of the National Council for the Social Studies (<http://www.socialstudies.org/c3>). The C3 Framework offers suggestions on student skill development organized around an “Inquiry Arc.” Many of the expectations in the C3 Framework are consistent with the CA CCSS and the History–Social Science Content Standards, especially the Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills (HSS Analysis Skills). However, the C3 Framework has not been adopted by the California State Board of Education and does not constitute a mandate for California schools. This chapter utilizes each of those documents to provide teachers and administrators with tools to support a deeper understanding of student content and skill development.

Although each document is different, all require student skill levels to become increasingly sophisticated as children progress through the grade levels. Students should be expected to demonstrate improved chronological and spatial thinking and the ability to conduct research, evaluate evidence, and make persuasive arguments as they move from elementary to secondary levels.

For example, the HSS Analysis Skills include geographic literacy skills at all grade levels, but the expectations are different at each level. In the elementary grades, students are to use maps and globes to *determine* locations; in the middle grades, they use the maps and globes to *explain* the migration of people and historical events such as the rise and fall of empires; in high school, the students go one step further to *interpret* the impact or the push-and-pull factors that encourage human migration, changing environmental preferences, friction between groups, and the diffusion of ideas.

Similarly, the C3 Framework describes the progression of student understanding of historical perspectives, organized into four grade spans. By the end of second grade, the C3 Framework argues that students should be able to understand that people in the past often had different perspectives than people today. By the end of fifth grade, students learn that people in the past did not always share the same

perspective. By the end of the eighth grade, students should understand that many factors influence the perspective of historical actors. And by the end of their senior year of high school, students should be able to analyze many different and conflicting factors that influenced and informed the perspective of individuals throughout history.

The *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools* (ELA/ELD Framework) is similarly organized—meaning making, language development, effective expression, content knowledge, and foundational skills organize instruction throughout the grade levels with increasingly sophisticated expectations for student skill development. This chapter describes what is involved in the skilled use of assessment to support student achievement of the History–Social Science Content Standards, CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, and CA ELD Standards. Through the careful incorporation of assessment of content, disciplinary, and literacy skill development in classroom instruction, students develop readiness for college, careers, and civic life; attain the capacities of literate individuals; and acquire the skills necessary for living and learning in the twenty-first century.

This chapter begins with a discussion of the different purposes of assessment—both for and of learning. Snapshots of teacher use of assessment are included throughout the discussion of the different types of assessment. The role of student involvement and feedback in assessment is described. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the current state of mandated statewide assessments.

Purposes of Assessment

Assessment is designed and used for different purposes. An annual assessment designed to assess how well students have met a specific standard (for example, HSS Analysis Skill 6–8: Research, Evidence, and Point of View: Distinguish fact from opinion in historical narratives and stories) does just that: It tells educators whether students have met a specific standard. However, it cannot serve the purpose of diagnosing a particular reading difficulty that a sixth-grade student is experiencing in achieving the standard. Nor can it provide substantive insights into how a student is beginning to understand what constitutes reliable evidence in a specific text. In the use of any assessment, a central question is, “Am I using this assessment for the purpose for which it is intended?”

As part of a balanced and comprehensive assessment system, assessment *for* learning and assessment *of* learning are both important. Although assessments of learning usually involve a tool or event *after* a period of learning, assessment for learning is a process. Any evidence-gathering strategies that are truly formative yield information that is *timely* and *specific* enough to assist learning as it occurs. Figure 19.1 presents the key dimensions of assessment *for* and *of* learning and highlights the differences.

FIGURE 19.1. Key Dimensions of Assessment *for* Learning and Assessment *of* Learning

Assessment: A Process of Reasoning from Evidence to Inform Teaching and Learning			
Dimension	Assessment <i>for</i> learning	Assessment <i>of</i> learning	
Method	Formative Assessment Process	Classroom Summative/ Interim/ Benchmark Assessment*	Large-Scale Summative Assessment
Main Purpose	Assist immediate learning (in the moment)	Measure student achievement or progress (may also inform future teaching and learning)	Evaluate educational programs and measure multiyear progress
Focus	Teaching and learning	Measurement	Accountability
Locus	Individual student and classroom learning	Grade level/ department/ school	School/district/ state
Priority for Instruction	High	Medium	Low

* Assessment of learning may also be used for formative purposes if assessment evidence is used to shape future instruction. Such assessments include weekly quizzes; curriculum embedded in unit tasks (e.g., oral presentations, writing projects, portfolios) or end-of-unit/culminating tasks; monthly writing samples, reading assessments (e.g., oral reading observation, periodic foundational skills assessments); and student reflections/self-assessments (e.g., rubric self-rating).

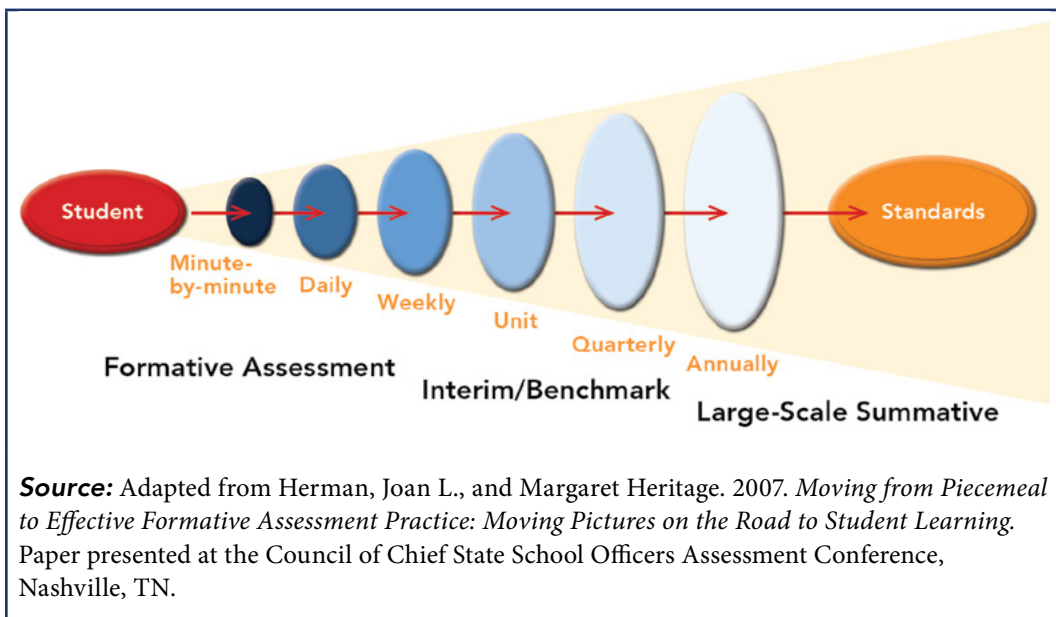
Figure 19.1. (continued)

Proximity to learning	In-the-midst	Middle-distance	Distant
Timing	During immediate instruction or sequence of lessons	After teaching-learning cycle → between units/periodic	End of year/course
Participants	Teacher and Student (T-S/S-S/Self)	Student (may later include T-S in conference)	Student

Source: Adapted from Liguanti, Robert, 2014. *Supporting Formative Assessment for Deeper Learning: A Primer for Policymakers*. Paper prepared for the Formative Assessment for Students and Teachers/State Collaborative on Assessment and Student Standards, 2. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers.

Assessment has two fundamental purposes. One is to provide information about student learning minute-by-minute, day-to-day, and week-to-week so teachers can continuously adapt instruction to meet students’ specific needs and secure progress. Figure 19.2 presents a range of assessments within a comprehensive assessment system.

FIGURE 19.2. Assessment Cycles by Purpose



Formative assessment is intended to assist learning and is often referred to as assessment *for* learning. Formative assessment occurs in real time, during instruction while student learning is underway (Allal 2010; Black and Wiliam 1998; Bell and Cowie 2000; Heritage 2010; Shepard 2000, 2005). For example, a fifth-grade teacher working with small groups of students on distinguishing the point of view of Loyalists during the Revolutionary War is able to gain insights into students' developing skills through the use of strategic questions and can adjust instruction and students' next steps immediately based on the students' responses. As it is intertwined and inseparable from teachers' pedagogical practice, formative assessment is of the highest priority. Educators need to interpret assessment evidence in order to plan instruction and respond pedagogically to emerging student learning.

A second purpose of assessment is to provide information on students' current levels of achievement after a period of learning has occurred. Such assessments—which may be classroom-based, districtwide, or statewide—serve a summative purpose and are sometimes referred to as assessments *of* learning. They help determine whether students have attained a certain level of competency after a more or less extended period of instruction and learning, for example, at the end of a unit that may last several weeks, at the end of a quarter, or annually. Inferences made by teachers from the results of these assessments can be used to make decisions about student placement, instruction, curriculum, and interventions, and to assign grades.

Each assessment cycle provides information at varying levels of detail, and inferences drawn from the assessment results are used to address specific questions about student learning and inform a range of decisions and actions. Figure 19.3 summarizes the types and purposes of the assessments within each assessment cycle.

FIGURE 19.3. Types and Uses of Assessments Within Assessment Cycles

Cycle	Methods	Information	Uses/Actions
Short			
Minute-by-minute	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observation • Questions (teachers and students) • Instructional tasks • Student discussions • Written work/representations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students' current learning status, relative difficulties and misunderstandings, emerging or partially formed ideas, full understanding 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Keep going, stop and find out more, provide oral feedback to individuals, adjust instructional moves in relation to student learning status (e.g., act on "teachable moments")
Daily Lesson	<p>Planned and placed strategically in the lesson:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observation • Questions (teachers and students) • Instructional tasks • Student discussions • Written work/representations • Student self-reflection (e.g., quick write) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students' current learning status, relative difficulties and misunderstandings, emerging or partially formed ideas, full understanding 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continue with planned instruction • Instructional adjustments in this or the next lesson • Find out more • Feedback to class or individual students (oral or written)

Figure 19.3. (continued)

Cycle	Methods	Information	Uses/Actions
Week	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student discussions and work products • Student self-reflection (e.g., journaling) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students' current learning status relative to lesson learning goals (e.g., have students met the goal[s], are they nearly there?) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instructional planning for start of new week • Feedback to students (oral or written)
Medium			
End-of-Unit/ Project	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student work artifacts (e.g., portfolio, writing project, oral presentation) • Use of rubrics • Student self-reflection (e.g., short survey) • Other classroom summative assessments designed by teacher(s) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Status of student learning relative to unit learning goals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grading • Reporting • Teacher reflection on effectiveness of planning and instruction • Teacher grade-level/departmental discussions of student work

Figure 19.3. (continued)

Cycle	Methods	Information	Uses/Actions
Quarterly/ Interim/ Benchmark	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Portfolio • Oral reading observation • Test 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Status of achievement of intermediate goals toward meeting standards (results aggregated and disaggregated) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making within-year instructional decisions. • Monitoring, reporting; grading; same-year adjustments to curriculum programs • Teacher reflection on effectiveness of planning and instruction • Readjusting professional learning priorities and resource decisions
Long			
Annual	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Smarter Balanced summative assessment • CELDT (California English Language Development Test)/ ELPAC (English Language Proficiency Assessments for California) • Portfolio • District/school-created test 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Status of student achievement with respect to standards (results aggregated and disaggregated) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Judging students' overall learning • Gauging student, school, district, and state year-to-year progress • Monitoring, reporting, and accountability • Classification and placement (e.g., ELs) • Certification • Adjustments to following year's instruction, curriculum, and programs • Final grades • Professional learning prioritization and resource decisions • Teacher reflection (individual, grade level, departmental) on effectiveness of planning and instruction

Source: Adapted from California Department of Education, *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools*. Sacramento: California Department of Education, 2015, pp. 827–28.

As part of a balanced and comprehensive assessment system, assessment *for* learning and assessment *of* learning are both important. Classroom teachers, school leaders, and professional learning providers should consider the support that educators require in order to understand and implement the formative assessment process, as well as to use summative assessments effectively. Collaborative professional environments, such as communities of practice, should be the nexus of learning and work that teachers do relative to assessment evidence as part of an ongoing cycle of inquiry. To maximize the use of assessment information for decisions related to student achievement, teachers and leaders need to make full use of assessment for both formative and summative purposes.

Formative Assessment in History–Social Science

Formative assessment provides the most detailed information for teachers and their students. The idea of formative assessment, or assessment for learning, does not apply to a specific tool or assessment. This is not to say that a tool or assessment cannot be used for formative assessment purposes—it can, but only if it provides actionable information about students’ learning status relative to the desired lesson goal and teachers can use it immediately to adjust their instruction. Formative assessment is briefly defined in figure 19.4.

FIGURE 19.4. What Is Formative Assessment?

What is formative assessment? Formative assessment is a *process* teachers and students use *during* instruction that provides feedback to adjust ongoing teaching moves and learning tactics. It is *not* a tool or an event, nor a bank of test items or performance tasks. Well supported by research evidence, it improves students’ learning in time to achieve intended instructional outcomes. Key features include:

1. **Clear lesson-learning goals and success criteria**, so students understand what they are aiming for;
2. **Evidence of learning** gathered during lessons to determine where students are relative to goals;
3. **A pedagogical response to evidence, including descriptive feedback**, that supports learning by helping students answer: *Where am I going? Where am I now? What are my next steps?*

Figure 19.4. (continued)

4. **Peer- and self-assessment** to strengthen students' learning, efficacy, confidence, and autonomy;
5. **A collaborative classroom culture** where students and teachers are partners in learning.

Source: Linquanti, Robert. 2014. *Supporting Formative Assessment for Deeper Learning: A Primer for Policymakers*. Paper prepared for the Formative Assessment for Students and Teachers/State Collaborative on Assessment and Student Standards, 2, Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers.

The sources of evidence available to teachers in formative assessment are what students do, say, make, or write (Griffin 2007). For example, sources of evidence can be teacher–student interactions fueled by well-designed questions (Bailey and Heritage 2008; Black et al. 2003), structured peer-to-peer discussions that the teacher observes (Harlen 2007), dialogues that embed assessment into an activity already occurring in the classroom (Ruiz-Primo and Furtak 2004, 2006, 2007), student work from well-designed tasks (Poppers 2011), and Web-based reading assessments that provide immediate feedback (Cohen et al. 2011).

In a history–social science classroom, these might include the analysis of short primary-source documents through a structured discussion protocol: Students first detail the literal or descriptive information (such as the document's title, author, location, and publication date), discuss the context in which it was produced (e.g., what was going on at that time at that place?), then consider the purpose of the document by discussing the audience and tone, and finally speculate as to the intent and overall significance of the document.

Maps and timelines provide another opportunity for teachers to learn about their students' content understanding and literacy development. For example, in a unit on westward expansion, eighth-grade students may track the travels of individual families as they read diaries by pioneers who traveled the Mormon, California, Oregon, or Montana trail (tracing on a map of the United States or through the use of interactive timelines). Performance tasks can take the form of demonstrations, oral performances, investigations, and written products (Lane 2013). Performance assessments provide better possibilities to measure complex skills and communication, important competencies, and disciplinary knowledge needed in today's society (Palm 2008), and important learning goals that cannot be easily assessed with other formats (Resnick and Resnick 1992). Performance tasks

can also take the form of longer projects that are carefully planned, managed, and assessed to help students learn key academic content, practice twenty-first century skills (such as collaboration, communication, and critical thinking), and create high-quality, authentic products and presentations. These student projects can function as both formative and summative assessments.

The cognitive tasks outlined in the revised Bloom’s Taxonomy (remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating) and Webb’s Depth of Knowledge levels (recall and reproduction, skills and concepts, thinking and reasoning, and extended thinking) are useful for gauging the range and balance of intellectual challenge for students. (See figure 19.5.)

FIGURE 19.5. Bloom’s Taxonomy and Webb’s Depth of Knowledge

Depth of Thinking (Webb) + Type of Thinking (Revised Bloom, 2001)	DOK Level 1 Recall and Reproduction	DOK Level 2 Basic Skills & Concepts	DOK Level 3 Strategic Thinking and Reasoning	DOK Level 4 Extended Thinking
Remember	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recall , locate basic facts, definitions, details, events 			
Understand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Select appropriate words for use when Intended meaning is clearly evident 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Specify, explain relationships, Summarize Identify central ideas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explain, generalize, or connect ideas using supporting evidence (quote, text evidence, example...) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explain how concepts or ideas specifically relate to other content domains or concepts

Figure 19.5. (continued)

Apply	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use language structure (pre/suffix) or word relationships (synonym/antonym) to determine meaning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use content to identify word meanings • Obtain and interpret information using text features 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use concepts to solve non-routine problems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Devise an approach among many alternatives to research a novel problem
Analyze	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify the kind of information in a graphic table, visual, and the like 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Compare literary elements, facts, terms, events • Analyze format, organization, and text structures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analyze or interpret author's craft (e.g. literary devices, viewpoint, or potential bias) to critique a text 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analyze multiple sources or texts • Analyze complex/abstract themes
Evaluate			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cite evidence and develop a logical argument for conjectures based on one text or problem 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluate relevancy, accuracy, and completeness of information across text/sources

Figure 19.5. *(continued)*

Create	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brainstorm ideas, concepts, problems, or perspectives related to a topic or concept 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generate conjectures or hypothesis based on observations or prior knowledge and experience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop a complex model for a given situation • Develop an alternative solution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Synthesize information across multiple sources or texts • Articulate a new voice, alternate theme, new knowledge or perspective
<p>Source: Adapted from Hess, Karin, K., Dennis Carlock, Ben Jones, and John R. Walkup. 2009. “What Exactly Do ‘Fewer, Clearer, and Higher Standards’ Really Look Like in the Classroom? Using a Cognitive Rigor Matrix to Analyze Curriculum, Plan Lessons, and Implement Assessments.”</p>				

The report of the Formative Assessment for Students and Teachers/State Collaborative on Assessment and Student Standards (FAST/SCASS) Project of the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) emphasizes several features of formative assessment. First, “formative assessment is a process rather than a particular kind of assessment. There is no such thing as a ‘formative test’” (McManus 2008, 3). Second, “the formative assessment process involves both teachers and students, both of whom must be actively involved in the process of improving learning” (McManus 2008, 3). Third, teachers must be clear about the ultimate goal of a unit and the sub-goals or stepping-stones that are important along the way: “from a learning progression teachers have the big picture of what students need to learn, as well as sufficient detail for planning instruction to meet short-term goals” (McManus 2008, 4). Fourth, success criteria and evidence of learning need to be laid out at the beginning of the project and reviewed along the way: “teachers must provide the criteria by which learning will be assessed using language readily understood by students, with realistic examples of what meets and does not meet the criteria” (McManus 2008, 4).

Whatever the source of the evidence, the teacher’s role is to construct or devise ways to elicit responses from students that reveal where they are in their learning and to use the evidence to move learning forward (Sadler 1989). For effective

formative assessment, teachers need to be clear about the short-term learning goals (for example, for a lesson) that cumulatively lead to students' attainment of one or more standards. They will also need to be clear about the success criteria for the lesson goal—how will the students show if they have met, or are on the way to meeting, the lesson goal. The evidence-gathering strategy can then be aligned with the success criteria.

Questions that formative assessment can answer include the following:

- Where are my students in relation to learning goals for this lesson?
- What is the gap between students' current learning and the goal?
- What individual difficulties are my students having?
- Are there any missing building blocks in their learning?
- What do I need to adjust in my teaching to ensure students learn?

Information from formative assessment is used to make instructional adjustments in real time, to continue with the planned lesson, or to provide feedback to students that will help them take steps to advance their learning.

An important point about teachers' use of evidence in formative assessment is that their inferences from the evidence and their actions in response to that evidence focus on individual students. This does not mean that instruction for students is necessarily on a one-to-one basis, but rather that individual needs are addressed in the context of a class of students. This orientation to individuals is necessary if students are going to have the opportunity to learn and progress equally (Heritage 2013). To do so, instruction needs to be contingent upon each student's current learning status. In other words, instruction has to be matched to where the students are, so that they can be assisted to progress and meet desired goals.

The use of technology that enables students to give immediate responses to teachers (e.g., clickers, mobile devices) can help teachers with large numbers of students to get an ongoing sense of where students are during the lesson. For example, halfway through a lesson, a tenth-grade teacher asks three or four questions related to their analysis of Winston Churchill's 1940 Address to Parliament (later known as Churchill's Blood, Toil, Tears and Sweat speech) that

the class has been analyzing during their study of World War II. The results immediately appear as a pie chart on the smartboard. Both teachers and students can quickly see how the class responded and can decide together if more work needs to be done in this area before the lesson progresses.

For assessment to be formative, it must be both timely and produce information that can inform teaching practice during its ongoing course (Erickson 2007). For this reason, the immediate, or proximate, timing of evidence is a key component of formative assessment validity. In addition, formative assessment must also yield substantive insights into students' current learning status in order to be valid and be used in subsequent pedagogical action (Heritage 2013).

An important point about validity in formative assessment concerns the consequences of the assessment use. Because action resulting from the use of formative assessment evidence is intended to produce benefits to student learning, consequences represent an important component of the validity of such assessment. Even if assessments are formative in intention they may not be so in practice if they do not generate further learning (Stobart 2006; Wiliam and Black 1996).

Reliability for classroom formative assessment takes a very different form because errors in instructional decisions can be rectified quickly through gathering more evidence of learning (Shepard 2001). Reliability in relation to instructional decisions can be thought of as “sufficiency of information” (Smith 2003, 30). In other words, teachers have to be confident that they have enough information about the student's learning to make a reasonable judgment about the current status of that learning. This idea of *sufficiency of information for reliability* argues for multiple sources of evidence before a teacher makes an instructional decision. The wider the range of information, and the more frequently the information is collected, the more accurately learning can be inferred (Griffin et al. 2010). In practical terms, this may mean that before making a judgment about student learning on a specific topic in history–social science, a teacher has evidence from students' oral language production, from a quick-write, and from a text that has been underlined by the students to identify the specific language feature in question. The more this kind of evidence can be gathered in the context of everyday learning tasks, the less time will be taken away from instruction and the more reliable the evidence gathered about a student's learning will be (Linn and Baker 1996).

Because reading, writing, and speaking and listening skills do not develop in lockstep with content and disciplinary understanding by all students, formative assessment is inevitably personalized and teachers will need to employ strategies that tap into individuals' knowledge and skills. Whatever evidence sources a teacher selects, they should account for the range of students present in the class so that all students have the opportunity to show where they are in their learning and have the prospect of moving forward from their current status. For example, well-designed questions and tasks that are sufficiently open-ended can give all students the opportunity to reveal their learning.

Formative assessment can take many forms in a history–social science class. Consider, for example, a class in which students read a series of primary and secondary sources about what happened when Hernan Cortés met Moctezuma. The class has previously studied European exploration and Spanish conquistadors. They are now reading a textbook excerpt that says that Moctezuma believed Cortés was the Aztec god Quetzalcoatl. Subsequently, they read two primary-source documents that provide divergent accounts of the meeting and excerpts from a historian's analysis of the encounter between Cortés and Moctezuma.

As students read the documents in small groups and answer a series of guiding questions, the teacher circulates through the room and listens to students' conversations about the documents. By listening to these conversations and looking at students' written responses, the teacher quickly gathers feedback about students' understanding of the documents and challenges that have arisen. Perhaps several students are unfamiliar with a particular word or are confused about the circumstances in which the Florentine Codex was created. Similarly, some students might be unable to identify how the two primary sources differ from the textbook account of the meeting between Cortés and Moctezuma. The teacher can gather additional information about student understanding by asking impromptu questions of students. For example, the teacher may ask, "What do you think this word means, given the context of the document?" Based on the information gathered during these informal interactions, the teacher can either redirect students individually or, if the teacher observes many students struggling with the same topic, reconvene the class as a whole to provide instruction in response.

Sometimes, formative assessment occurs during the course of classroom discourse. The teacher may have specific, planned questions to ask at specific

moments during classroom instruction. For instance, after students have read Cortés’s letter to King Henry, the teacher may ask the whole class, “Who was the recipient of Cortés’s letter? How might that influence what he writes about his interaction with Moctezuma?” This planned-for-interaction type of assessment allows the teacher to gather information about students’ understanding of a crucial aspect of the document.

Formative assessment can also include curriculum-embedded tasks. For example, after students have worked in groups to examine the various primary and secondary sources in the Moctezuma lesson, the teacher could ask students to complete a short document-based task as an exit ticket. The task may feature the same letter by Cortés that is included in the lesson. During the lesson, the teacher might ask students aloud to consider how the recipient of the letter might shape the content of the letter. However, the task would require students to answer the same question in written form. This would provide the teacher with detailed feedback about whether all of the students in the class understood this key aspect of the lesson. The teacher would not necessarily have to even grade these responses. Simply by reading through students’ responses, the teacher could gain a sense of students’ grasp of this aspect of historical understanding. Moreover, the teacher could use students’ responses to shape instruction during the next class period. For instance, if students struggle to answer the exit ticket, the teacher can prepare a mini-lesson focused on how a document’s intended audience can shape its content.

End-of-Unit Assessments

End-of-unit assessments can serve a summative purpose to evaluate student achievement toward the goals of the unit. If such assessments are given to students before the end of the unit when there is still time to take some instructional action before moving on to the next unit, then they can also serve a formative purpose.

In developing unit assessments, teachers will need to ensure that the goals of the unit are clear and aligned with standards. In other words, what is to be assessed must be well articulated and derived specifically from the standards and lesson planning. When teachers know what to assess, they can best determine how to assess.

End-of-unit assessments can help teachers answer questions such as the following:

- Have my students met the goals of the unit?
- Are there some students who need additional help to meet the goals of the unit?
- What help do they need?
- What improvements do I need to make in my teaching the next time I teach this unit?

Interim or Benchmark Assessments

Interim or benchmark assessments address intermediate goals on the way to meeting standards. Typically administered quarterly or every six weeks, interim assessments cover a shorter period of instruction than end-of-year assessments and consequently give more detail about student learning. Results from interim assessments provide periodic snapshots of student learning throughout the year. These snapshots assist teachers to monitor how student learning is progressing and to determine who is on track to meet the standards by the end of the year and who is not, which may mean that a student needs additional support. When using or designing interim or benchmark assessments, teachers and school and district leaders should consider what is reasonable to expect students to be able to do about meeting the history–social science and English language arts standards at various points along the year (as opposed to at the end of the year). While there should be goals for meeting the end-of-year standards at points along the school year, these goals may look different from the end-of-the-year standards. Results from these assessments can help teachers answer the following questions:

- What have my students learned so far?
- Who has and who has not met intermediate goals?
- Who is and who is not on track to meet the standards by the end of the year?
- What are the strengths and areas of need in an individual's or a group's learning?

- Who are the students most in need of additional support? What do they need?
- What are the strengths and areas of need in my curriculum?
- What are the strengths and areas of need in my instruction?
- What improvements do I need to make in my teaching?

If students are not making desired progress, then teachers and administrators should consider whether changes are needed in curriculum and instruction while adjustments can still be made before the end of the year. In this sense, even though they sum up a period of learning (over a few weeks or months) their use is also formative if adjustments to curriculum and instruction are made during the school year. Interim assessments also supply individual performance data. These data are useful to identify an individual student's strengths and learning needs. In addition, while these results sum up a period of learning, they can also be used formatively if steps are taken to respond to an individual student's needs while there is still time within the year. In instances where no action is taken to support student learning, the results from these assessments remain only summative.

Rubrics

Performance assessments that require students to demonstrate learning through an oral, written, or multimodal performance task (e.g., a presentation, a report) can be evaluated according to a rubric. A commonly accepted definition of a rubric is that of a document that articulates the expectations for an assignment by listing the criteria, or what counts, and describing levels of quality (Andrade et al. 2009). Criteria should relate to the learning that students are being asked to demonstrate rather than the tasks themselves, and they should provide clear descriptions of performance across a continuum of quality (Brookhart 2013). The criteria should be linked to standards and reflect what is required to meet a specific standard or cluster of standards. Descriptions of performance are usually presented within score levels; the knowledge and skills at one level should differ distinctively from those at other levels. If schools are using commercially produced performance assessments for high-stakes assessment purposes (for example, placement or end-of-year grades), they will need to ensure that the rubrics have undergone a series of studies that provide evidence of their technical quality. Examples of such

studies include review by content area and literacy experts, review to ensure cultural and language sensitivity, and field tests to provide evidence that the rubric can differentiate performance across levels of the rubric and across grades.

For classroom assessment, teachers—sometimes in collaboration with students—can also develop rubrics for their own classroom performance assessments. Co-construction of rubrics with students is a powerful way to build student understanding and acceptance of what is expected. When rubrics are being created, there are a few points to bear in mind. First, holistic rubrics should express as clearly and concisely as possible the expected performance at each level. Therefore, it is important to avoid ambiguous language. Before using the rubric, teachers need to explain the language of the rubric to students. Second, the expectations should be communicated in nonpejorative descriptions of what performance looks like at each level and reflect a growth mindset. Third, the gradations of quality need to be specifically articulated across levels.

It is preferable for teachers to design rubrics as a group rather than as individuals. Taking advantage of how school teams already work together, as well as ensuring that the appropriate content expertise is represented in the group, is a useful operating procedure for rubric development (Brookhart 2013). There is no rule of thumb for the frequency with which teachers should use rubrics. The use of a rubric depends on the purpose for which it is being used (Brookhart 2013).

Developmental rubrics can improve student performance, as well as monitor it, by making teachers' expectations clear and by showing students how to meet these expectations. When teachers provide students with a rubric of how their work will be evaluated, it should be clear what they need to do to improve in the future. Rubrics can also help support student self- and peer assessment.

If students are involved in the assessment process, they are more likely to develop a learning orientation than if they are solely passive recipients of test scores. They are also more likely to develop the skills of setting goals, managing the pursuit of those goals, and self-monitoring—all important twenty-first century skills (NRC 2012). Active student involvement in the assessment process is a vital element in the development of student self-direction in learning.

Feedback

Even when teachers have used rubrics and provided an evaluative score, students still need feedback about how to improve. Although potentially time-consuming, the payoff for students is that assessment is more transparent, and the students are more oriented to goals and feel more ownership in future learning. Teacher feedback helps students understand where they were successful or not and clarifies what students can do to improve. This approach means that teachers need to spend time with students discussing assessment results and setting goals and strategies for improvement.

Feedback is particularly salient in the context of formative assessment. Students may receive feedback in three ways: from their teachers, from peers, and through their own self-assessment. The purpose of the feedback is to close the gap between the student’s current learning status and the lesson goals (Sadler 1989). It is critical that students be given opportunities to use the feedback; otherwise it does not serve the intended purpose.

Teacher Feedback

Three questions provide a frame for feedback to students in formative assessment:

1. Where am I going?
2. Where am I now?
3. Where will I go next?

To answer the first question, both teachers and students need to be clear about the goal or target of the learning and what a successful performance of learning will look like. Answering the second question requires teachers and students to elicit and interpret evidence of learning. In other words, they need to decide where the students’ learning currently stands in relation to the goal. Answering the third question guides the student to take next action steps toward meeting the goal. Feedback addresses both the second and the third questions. The teacher provides feedback that indicates to the student where he or she has been successful and provides a hint or cue of what to do next.

Peer Feedback

Peers are also sources of feedback for learning. Peer feedback has advantages, both for those students providing the feedback as well as those receiving it. It involves thinking about learning and can deepen students' understanding of their own learning. Research shows that the people providing the feedback benefit just as much as the recipient, because they are forced to internalize the learning goals and performance criteria in the context of someone else's work, which is less emotionally charged than their own (William 2006). Quality peer feedback requires the same type of information as teacher feedback: students need to consider the learning goals and performance criteria. Peers need to assess the status of classmates' learning with the same success criteria they use to check their own learning. Additionally, providing constructive feedback is a skill students need to learn, so instruction will need to focus on this as well. It is worth remembering that learners who are adept at giving and receiving feedback to complete learning activities are acquiring important twenty-first century skills (NRC 2012).

Self-Assessment

Teacher and peer feedback are externally provided. When students are involved in self-assessment, they are generating internal feedback. Generating and acting on internal feedback is a form of metacognition and self-regulation. Metacognition is basically thinking about one's thinking, and self-regulation refers to the ability of learners to coordinate cognitive resources, emotions, and actions in the service of meeting learning goals (Boekaerts 2006). In the realm of twenty-first century learning, metacognition and self-regulation are important skills (NRC 2012). The most effective learners are self-regulating (Butler and Winne 1995; Pintrich 2000; Schunk and Zimmerman 2008). Additionally, training students in metacognition raises their performance (e.g., Lodico et al. 1983) and helps them generalize what they have learned to new situations (Hacker, Dunlosky, and Graesser 1998). Because of the importance of metacognition and self-regulation to successful learning, teachers need to pay attention to ensuring students develop these skills in the context of language and literacy learning.

Summative Assessments in History–Social Science

The Moctezuma–Cortés document-based lesson described earlier in this chapter lends itself well to written summative assessments. After students have analyzed the various sources and engaged in a whole-class discussion, they can construct a written response to the question of what happened when Moctezuma met Cortés. This response may be as short as a single paragraph, or it may be a full analytic essay. Students can even conduct additional research to locate additional information on the topic. In each case, students will need to formulate a position, identify relevant evidence from the documents, and explain how the evidence supports their position. This type of summative assessment provides evidence of students’ grasp of core aspects of historical understanding: the evaluation of evidence, historical knowledge, and argumentation.

Another assessment that provides information about student mastery of chronological and spatial thinking at the elementary level (HSS Analysis Skills, Chronological and Spatial Thinking 1) and content knowledge of North American history (HSS 5.1–5.5) is the construction of a timeline of events and periods that begin with “American Indians establish settlements in North America” and end with the “Writing of the Declaration of Independence.”

A different option would be to have students create an interpretation in response to a standards-based question of historical significance after studying evidence from primary sources. For instance, while studying the origins of the Cold War, eleventh-grade students might be given a variety of primary and secondary sources to answer the question “Why did we fight the Cold War?” Students could consider a number of relevant sources to develop their interpretation, such as a map of a divided Germany, a copy of Winston Churchill’s Iron Curtain (“Sinews of Peace”) speech and Joseph Stalin’s written response to Churchill, published in *Pravda*, a copy of U.S. Secretary of State George Marshall’s speech at Harvard, which outlined his plan for reconstructing Europe after World War II, Harry Truman’s Address



to a Joint Session of Congress to outline his foreign policy—later known as the Truman Doctrine—and images and newsreels explaining the Berlin Airlift, among others.¹ Students can paraphrase and select brief quotes from the primary sources to illustrate a written argument and complementary oral presentation, using language such as “the evidence suggests,” “it seems likely,” and “some sources indicate” to signify interpretive decisions made in support of their thesis (HSS 11.9; HSS Analysis Skills, Chronological and Spatial Thinking 3; Historical Research, Evidence and Point of View 1, 2, and 4; Historical Interpretation 1, 2, and 4; CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy WHST 11–12.1, 2, 4–9; CA ELD Standards, PI.11–12.6a, PI.11–12.9, PI.11–12.11).

Less-traditional forms of assessment can supplement formal writing assignments and provide additional insight into student mastery of the standards. Making an argument through the use of technology, for example, offers students an engaging opportunity to demonstrate their understanding, while developing their ability to utilize digital media and work with their peers. Students in tenth-grade World History may conclude their study of the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries by constructing an online museum exhibit of the most significant scientific and technological developments in the period between the Agricultural and Industrial Revolutions and the end of the twentieth century. Working in small teams, students would first consider a large list of significant inventions, from a variety of fields, such as transportation (for example, the automobile or airplane), medicine and public health (for example, the discovery of penicillin or the widespread use of antibiotics, the modern sanitation system, or pasteurization), energy (e.g., the steam turbine), agriculture (such as the cotton gin, combine harvester, and improved methods of farming), manufacturing (for example, the assembly line), and communication and the dissemination of information (for example, the telephone, radio, television, or personal computer).

Students would then make a limited selection from this list (or through additional research) to develop their own interpretation in response to the question “Consider the individual discoveries, revolutionary ideas, and inventions developed between 1825 and 2000. Which made the most significant improvement in the lives of everyday people?” After making their selection, students then have to

1. Assessment adapted from *The Cold War – A History Blueprint* unit from the California History–Social Science Project (<http://chssp.ucdavis.edu>), Regents of the University of California, 2014.

defend their choices by clearly explaining the invention or discovery, detailing how this item improved the lives of specific groups of people or individuals, and differentiating the benefits of their selected discoveries from other choices from the original list.

Students would present their argument through a virtual museum exhibit. There are a variety of online tools to support the development of these virtual displays, and exhibits may be constructed in different ways, but each exhibit would need to include relevant visuals, concise descriptions of the individual discoveries, and evidence-based analyses of their individual selections, presented online and in-person through short oral demonstrations. This assessment would thus provide important information about student content understanding (HSS 10.3–10.9), disciplinary understanding (HSS Analysis Skills: Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View; and Historical Interpretation), reading comprehension (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy RH 9–10, 1, 2, 9, 10), speaking and listening (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy SL 9–10, 1, 2–6), and writing (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy WHST 9–10, 1, 2, 4, 6–10).

This lesson can also support and assess English language development, as students work in teams to read and interpret written texts (CA ELD Standards PI.9–10.6a), discuss content using academic English (CA ELD Standards PI.9–10.1, 3, 4), and produce multimedia presentations with written analyses and oral demonstrations (CA ELD Standards PI.9–10.9, 10a, 11a).

Yearly Assessments

Yearly assessments, such as the Smarter Balanced annual assessments, cover a year’s worth of learning and, by their nature, provide more general information about student achievement relative to the standards. They sum up achievement after a year of learning and are therefore most appropriately used by schools and districts to monitor their own annual and longitudinal progress and to ensure individual students are on track academically.

At the time of this writing, California has suspended all statewide assessments in history–social science. The state is in the middle of a transition to computer-adaptive assessments as part of the Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium. Smarter Balanced provides formative and summative assessments aligned with the

Common Core State Standards for Mathematics and English Language Arts. While history–social science content may be included on those assessments, they are not designed to evaluate student knowledge of the topics and skills included in the History–Social Science Content Standards (see appendix C). If history–social science assessments are developed in the future, they will be a part of a broader system known as the CAASPP.

State Superintendent of Public Instruction Tom Torlakson has declared his intent to develop future assessments that test student knowledge and skills in other subjects, including history–social science. Assembly Bill 484 (Chapter 489 of the Statutes of 2013) directed the State Superintendent of Public Instruction to report by March 1, 2016, to the State Board of Education and the Legislature on expanding the CAASPP into other subject areas. Those future assessments may include computer-based tests, locally scored performance tasks, and portfolios and may be implemented on an assessment calendar that tests subjects over multiple years or uses matrix and/or population sampling. This measure is designed to keep costs and maximum student assessment time under control.

While the Smarter Balanced multistate consortium is not developing specific history–social science content-area assessments that are similar to the California Standards Test, there will be items on the English language arts assessments that can be seen as an indication of how well students have learned such history–social science skills as expository critique, the development of content-area vocabulary, or the ability to evaluate how well summaries reflect the original text of a document. The Smarter Balanced assessments will include writing prompts that will enable students to demonstrate their historical understanding, including causal relationships and other examples of historical interpretation.

For the latest information about California’s statewide assessment system, visit the California Department of Education’s Testing and Accountability Web page at <http://www.cde.ca.gov/ta/>.

Conclusion

The use of assessment by teachers is a critical component of students’ achievement of the History–Social Science Content Standards and CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. Only when teachers and leaders have a range of accurate

information about student learning can they be in a position to make decisions that will advance learning. Key to informing the decisions educators need to make is a balanced and comprehensive system of assessment that provides different levels of detail for different decision-making purposes. In such an assessment system, districts and school personnel need to strike the right balance in terms of the range of available assessments to teachers from the state or district, to those adopted by individual schools, to assessments embedded in curriculum materials, to ongoing day-by-day formative assessment practices that teachers engage in during instruction. Assessment operates in the service of learning and involves careful consideration of the decisions that teachers need to make in the school year to ensure student progress, and the assessment tools and processes they need to inform their decision making. In combination with the right assessments for the right purposes, teachers' skillful use of assessment to support learning is critical to ensure that students in California meet the ambitious standards that have been set forth. Moreover, because of the importance of reading and writing in history and the related social sciences, teachers who require their students to both read abstract expository text and write arguments supported by evidence improve student content understanding, literacy, and critical thinking.

This page is left blank intentionally.

CHAPTER 20

Access and Equity

The disciplines of history–social science provide children with knowledge of the nation’s past, develop proficient readers and writers, and prepare citizens able to both understand an increasingly complex society and participate fully in a democratic system. The ultimate goal of history–social science programs in California is to ensure access to high-quality curriculum and instruction for all students in order to meet or exceed the state’s *History–Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools* (History–Social Science Content Standards), *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy); and *California English Language Development Standards* (CA ELD Standards).

All California students deserve a world-class twenty-first-century education, one that allows them to achieve their highest potential. In order to accomplish this goal, it is important to acknowledge that inequities exist in current educational systems. Analyses of data have revealed persistent academic achievement gaps for students of color, students with disabilities, and students living in poverty. Current evidence also indicates that some groups of students experience unsafe conditions and rejection in schools because of their cultural, ethnic, and linguistic background; disability; sexual orientation; socioeconomic status; or other factors.

California’s students demonstrate a wide variety of skills, abilities, and interests as well as varying proficiency in English and other languages. They come from diverse cultural, linguistic, ethnic, and

religious backgrounds; have different experiences; and live in different familial and socioeconomic circumstances. The greater the variation of the student population, the richer the learning experiences for all and the more assets upon which teachers may draw. At the same time, however, the teacher’s role in providing high-quality instruction that is sensitive to individual needs becomes more complex. In such complex settings, the notion of *shared responsibility* is particularly crucial.

The history–social science standards and this framework call for teachers to provide **all** students with a balanced curriculum that includes history–social science. Responding to this call requires that educators share the responsibility of ensuring equity for several populations of learners who are particularly vulnerable to academic inequities in history–social science disciplines. Those populations of learners are discussed in this chapter.

More than 60 languages other than English are spoken by California’s students, and the result is a rich tapestry of cultural, ethnic, and religious heritages and a range of skills and physical abilities. Teachers face students whose lives and learning are greatly affected by the circumstances in which they live. It is beyond the scope of this framework to discuss all aspects of California’s diverse student population. Highlighted are some groups of students for whom it is especially important to acknowledge and value the resources they bring to school. Those groups are also addressed to recognize the need for schools to make necessary shifts to ensure student achievement by providing educational access and equity for all students. Though presented separately, *those populations are not mutually exclusive*; some students are members of multiple groups. Furthermore, although teachers become culturally competent about their students’ backgrounds, *each student population is a heterogeneous group*. Therefore, teachers should know their students as *individuals*.

Culturally Responsive Teaching

The disciplines of history and the related social sciences provide unique opportunities to integrate culturally and linguistically responsive teaching into classroom instruction in order to deepen content understanding, develop literacy, and promote engagement. Students may possess multiple cultural identities based upon their gender, sexual orientation, class, race, ethnicity, religion, and disabilities (Ignatjeva and Iliško 2008). Culturally competent teachers respect differences, are

aware of their own cultural identity and unconscious biases, and adapt their instruction accordingly.

To ensure that all students thrive in history–social science classrooms, teachers should adopt an *additive* stance toward the culture and language of their students by following four principles:

Exude a positive disposition. Teachers should develop an awareness of and positive disposition toward their students’ cultural and linguistic heritage, their communication styles, and of their students’ dialects of English. Teachers should also promote positive dispositions toward diversity among all students (LeMoine 1999; McIntyre and Turner 2013; Moll et al. 1992).

Recognize cultural and experiential backgrounds: Teachers should learn about their students’ lives and make connections between students’ experiences, backgrounds, and interests and the content learning in school. Teachers can fill gaps found in the curriculum by adding relevant examples of diversity beyond those in the standards. For example, they add culturally or ethnically diverse examples of individual or group achievements, contributions, primary-source documents (perspectives), images, art, literature, songs, textbooks, supplementary materials, and even posters and bulletin boards that may not already be present in their classrooms. It is important for students to see examples of members from their own gender and sexual orientation, as well as cultural, ethnic, and even linguistic backgrounds in the classroom materials that are used regularly.

Address language status. Teachers should take the stance that multilingualism and dialect variation are natural. In addition, teachers should make transparent for their students, in developmentally appropriate ways, that while standard English is the type of English privileged in school and in the workforce, bilingualism and *bidialecticism* (or proficiency in multiple dialects of English) are highly valued assets (Harris-Wright 1999).

Support the development of academic English. Teachers should focus instruction on intellectually rich and engaging tasks that allow students to use academic English in meaningful and authentic ways. To make meaning in history–social science, teachers should also make transparent to students how academic English works. This effort includes helping students to develop

register awareness so that they understand how and when to use different types of English to meet the language expectations of history–social science (Schleppegrell 2004).

English Learners

Students come to California schools from all over the world, speak a variety of primary languages, and bring a range of background experiences with formal and informal schooling. Many English learners (ELs) were born in California and have experienced instruction in English only in the U.S. Some ELs who enter the U.S. in late elementary through high school have strong academic backgrounds, are on par with their native-English-speaking peers in terms of content knowledge, and may have studied English in their home countries before emigrating. However, other ELs have had disrupted educational experiences due to a variety of reasons, including war, persistent violence, or famine in their home countries or because severe poverty, cultural norms, or political factors prevented them from attending school.

English learners are defined by the California Department of Education (CDE) as those students for whom there is a report of a primary language other than English on the state-approved Home Language Survey (CDE Language Census R30-LC) **and** who, on the basis of the state approved oral language (grades kindergarten through grade twelve) assessment procedures and literacy (grades three through twelve only), have been determined to lack the clearly defined English language skills of listening/comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing necessary to succeed in the school’s regular instructional programs.

Regardless of the background experiences of individual ELs, each California school and school district is responsible for ensuring that all ELs have full access to a rich and comprehensive history–social science curriculum via appropriately designed instruction and that each EL student makes steady (and, if necessary, accelerated) progress in their English language development related to history–social science.

English learners come to school with a range of cultural and linguistic backgrounds, experiences with formal schooling, proficiency with native language and English literacy, migrant statuses, and socioeconomic statuses, as well as interactions in the home, school, and community. Educators need to be informed of those factors in order to support ELs in achieving school success. History–social science teachers may accomplish this goal through the implementation of the CA ELD

Standards in tandem with the history–social science and other content standards. Regardless of their individual backgrounds and levels of English language proficiency, ELs at all levels of proficiency are able to engage in intellectually challenging and content-rich activities, with appropriate support from teachers that addresses their language and academic learning needs. Figure 20.1 shows language skills of the CA ELD Standards that may be practiced in history–social science classrooms.

FIGURE 20.1. Structure of the CA ELD Standards

Section 1: Goal, Critical Principles, and Overview		
Goal: This articulates the vision California has for all English learners.		
Critical Principles for Developing Language and Cognition in Academic Contexts: This emphasizes the three general areas teachers need to focus on when planning instruction for ELs and observing their progress. These areas are elaborated upon, by English language proficiency level, in Section 2.		
Part I: Interacting in Meaningful Ways Part II: Learning About How English Works Part III: Using Foundational Literacy Skills		
Section 2: Elaboration on Critical Principles for Developing Language and Cognition in Academic Contexts		
Part I: Interacting in Meaningful Ways		
Communicative Mode	Critical Principles Addressed (by English language proficiency level)	Standard Number
Collaborative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Exchanging information/ideas ■ Interacting via written English ■ Supporting opinions and persuading others ■ Adapting language choices 	1–4
Interpretive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Listening actively ■ Reading/viewing closely ■ Evaluating language choices ■ Analyzing language choices 	5–8

Figure 20.1. (continued)

Productive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Presenting ■ Writing ■ Justifying/arguing ■ Selecting language resources 	9–12
Part II: Learning About How English Works		
Language Process	Critical Principles Addressed (by English language proficiency level)	Standard Number
Structuring Cohesive Texts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Understanding text structure ■ Understanding cohesion 	1–2
Expanding and Enriching Ideas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Using verbs and verb phrases ■ Using nouns and noun phrases ■ Modifying to add details 	3–5
Connecting and Condensing Ideas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Connecting ideas ■ Condensing ideas ■ Connecting content to current events or students’ lives 	6–7
Part III: Using Foundational Literacy Skills		
This part contains no standards but signals teachers that ELs at all grade levels require particular instructional considerations for learning foundational literacy skills in English.		

Source: English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools (ELA/ELD Framework), p. 40.

Although learning an additional language is multilayered and complex, depends on many variables, and does not necessarily proceed in a linear fashion, there are some general stages of ELD. California refers to these stages as *Emerging*, *Expanding*, and *Bridging*. The grade-level CA ELD Standards provide guidance on determining the needs of ELs at the three stages by grade level (or grade span in the case of grades nine through ten and eleven through twelve). Figure 20.2 summarizes the general progression of ELD as conceptualized in the CA ELD Standards. (The CA ELD Standards proficiency level descriptors and grade-level standards provide more detailed information on these stages.)

FIGURE 20.2. General Progression of the Stages of ELD

→-----→-----→ ELD Continuum -----→-----→				
Native Language	Emerging	Expanding	Bridging	Lifelong Language Learners
ELs come to school with a wide range of knowledge and competencies in their primary language, which they draw upon to develop English.	ELs at this level typically progress very quickly, learning to use English for immediate needs as well as beginning to understand and use academic vocabulary and other features of academic language.	ELs at this level increase their English knowledge, skills, and abilities in more contexts. They learn to apply a greater variety of academic vocabulary, grammatical structures, and discourse practices in more sophisticated ways, appropriate to their age and grade level.	ELs at this level continue to learn and apply a range of advanced English language knowledge, skills, and abilities in a wide variety of contexts, including comprehension and production of highly complex texts. The “bridge” alluded to is the transition to full engagement in grade-level academic tasks and activities in a variety of content areas without the need for specialized instruction.	Students who have reached full proficiency in the English language, as determined by state and/or local criteria, continue to build increasing breadth, depth, and complexity in comprehending and communicating in English in a wide variety of contexts.

Source: CA ELD Standards.

It is important to note that an EL student at any given point along his or her trajectory of English language development may exhibit some abilities (e.g., speaking skills) at a higher proficiency level, while exhibiting other abilities (e.g., writing skills) at a lower proficiency level (Gottlieb 2006). Similarly, an EL may understand much more than she or he can say. Furthermore, an EL may successfully perform a particular skill at a lower proficiency level (e.g., reading and analyzing a science text) yet at the next higher proficiency level need review in the same reading and analysis skills when presented with a new or more complex type of text.

A Literate Discipline

Instruction in history–social science poses cognitive and content area challenges because it is a literacy-dependent discipline; its thinking is constructed in language. Students are better prepared to understand historical texts when they learn how to decipher the grammatical and methodological choices made by historians (Schleppegrell and Achugar 2003; Schleppegrell, Achugar, and Oteíza 2004). Students must receive explicit instruction on how to break text apart to gather further meaning, grapple with difficult discipline-specific vocabulary, and

deal with how history is often written, reconstructed, and presented.



Teachers use Part II of the CA ELD Standards as a guide for showing ELs how different text types are organized and structured (e.g., how a story is structured or where in an argument evidence is presented) or how language is used purposefully to make meaning (e.g., how sentences are combined to

show relationships between ideas). For example, a history teacher identifies a particular sentence in the textbook that is challenging for students but critical for understanding the topic. The teacher leads a discussion in which the class unpacks a dense sentence for its meaning by using more everyday language. Figure 20.3 presents an example (the main clause is in italics).

FIGURE 20.3. Sentence Unpacking

<p>Original sentence to unpack:</p> <p><i>“Although many countries are addressing pollution, environmental degradation continues to create devastating human health problems each year.”</i></p>
<p>Meanings:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Pollution is a big problem around the world. ■ People are creating pollution and ruining the environment. ■ The ruined environment leads to health problems in people. ■ Health problems are still happening every year. ■ The health problems are really, really bad. ■ A lot of countries are doing something about pollution. ■ Even though the countries are doing something about pollution, there are still big problems.
<p><i>What this sentence is mostly about:</i> Environmental degradation</p> <p><i>What it means in our own words:</i> People are creating a lot of pollution and messing up the environment all around the world, and even though a lot of countries are trying to do things about it, a lot of people have big health problems because of it.</p>

History–social science is particularly challenging for English learners. They must simultaneously develop fluency in a second language and also gain content and analysis skills in a complex subject area with high literacy demands. To learn English and achieve mastery of the History–Social Science Content Standards, students must participate in instructional programs that combine critical content knowledge and skill development in both English-language proficiency and the content standards and analysis skills contained in the *History–Social Science Framework*.

All students should have an opportunity to actively engage with the History–Social Science Content Standards regardless of their proficiency in the English language. Effective instructional practices foster English language development and at the same time teach history–social science content. Early instruction in English literacy and content knowledge must be incorporated into English

language development programs. Students in biliteracy programs should have a carefully designed scope and sequence that builds on skill in the primary language and ensures steady progress in both languages. In a structured English immersion program, instruction in history–social science for ELs should not be delayed until the students have mastered oral English. In fact, most studies promote instruction in the content knowledge, critical thinking and analysis skills, and the reading strategies of the disciplines despite students’ low literacy or limited proficiency in the English language (Shanahan and Shanahan 2008).

Students who study and learn the content standards and analysis skills contained in the *History–Social Science Framework* will acquire academic language, defined as the language of literacy and books, tests, and formal writing. The academic language used in the history–social science curriculum for ELs is a critical element that must be specifically designed, planned, scheduled, and taught. Content-specific knowledge, whether topical (e.g., mercantilism, Reconstruction, Cold War) or disciplinary (political, social, cultural, economic), and task-specific skills, such as comparing, explaining, analyzing, and describing, are critical components of academic language that are developed in history–social science classrooms and are aligned with the Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills. To develop the content-specific knowledge and task-specific skills of academic language in the history–social science classroom, teachers may consider the following instructional strategies:

- Sentence building, including determining units of meaning, describing, and elaborating;
- Reading for meaning, such as making inferences, drawing conclusions, and asking questions;
- Categorizing relationships and hierarchy of ideas and passage organization; and synthesis through written summary or explanation (Goldsmith and Tran 2012, 2013).

Vocabulary development is central to academic language and reading and writing in history. History–social science content is laden with discipline-specific vocabulary that is extremely complex, mostly conceptual, and cannot be explained with a brief definition. Consider the following history–social science vocabulary terms:

- nationalism
- communism
- economy
- culture
- citizen
- government
- political
- society

Most native speakers of English would have difficulty explaining these terms clearly and concisely. Students struggling to learn English would be even more hard-pressed to define them well. History–social science instructors must develop a repertoire of vocabulary strategies that make conceptual vocabulary clear to both native speakers of English and English learners.

In history–social science textbooks, authors often explain a concept and then use substitutes or *referrers* to label them later in the text to avoid repetition. These grammatical devices are difficult for ELs for many reasons. Consider the following sentence:

*Large portions of the population began moving from largely rural areas into industrial cities. This movement is known as **urbanization**.*

Some ELs may look for definitions to key vocabulary directly after the terms in boldface. In the example above, the definition came *before* the term. This may cause confusion for ELs who are used to seeing a definition after the term. In addition, *this movement* refers to the entire preceding sentence, which is also complex for nonnative speakers. An effective method to assist students in deciphering meaning embedded in history texts is to identify context clues that precede or follow key vocabulary. Several types of context clues help students learn vocabulary: appositions, contrast words or statements, illustrations and examples, and logical inferences. Terms such as “that is,” “known as,” “called,” “which were,” and “unlike” and punctuation marks (hyphens, parentheses, and commas) are consistently employed in history texts to present descriptions and explanations of key vocabulary and concepts.



Teachers should align history–social science instruction with the grade-level expectations in the four domains (reading, writing, speaking and listening, and language) described in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy.

Before classroom instruction begins, teachers need to know what they want the students to learn, their students’ level of English proficiency, and the language demands of the lesson’s instructional materials. During classroom instruction, teachers need to be particularly sensitive to the English-language proficiency of their students to avoid overloading them with the amount of information or language requirements of a given lesson. Extending knowledge from other subject areas to history–social science is also important. For example, students should be able to use mathematics and an understanding of numbers to comprehend meaning in historical statistics, or be able to apply knowledge about biology and disease from their science classroom to understand the impact of historical plagues or environmental policies.

Pacing history–social science content and providing structured support for language learning are essential instructional strategies. Teachers must be systematic and consistent in introducing and teaching the main ideas and key concepts to support language and critical thinking. It is especially advantageous for teachers and students when teachers “chunk” instructional materials and activities in small blocks of time to allow teacher/student clarification and feedback between content (disseminated and taught) and activities (explained and completed). This strategy efficiently reduces teacher repetition of concepts and activity directions. Moreover, teaching in small blocks of time allows students to have manageable tasks and spreads out their cognitive load. In the same amount of instructional time, a teacher could teach the same amount of content.

Language/Process-Assisted Historical Thinking

One instructional approach to combining the teaching of language and history–social science content is through *language/process-assisted historical thinking*, whereby all students are provided with significant support to be successful in history–social science (Goldsmith and Tran 2012, 2013). *Language/process-assisted historical thinking* is an instructional process in which teachers provide students with guided practice in historical thinking and analysis skills, as well as language assistance. It is an integrated form of differentiation that incorporates learning of

content knowledge with English language development. What does not vary in history–social science classrooms is the purposeful teaching of the historical significance (or “big idea”) of any lesson or unit. For example, in a lesson on American Indian resistance (HSS 5.3.4), teachers may disseminate the original texts (broken treaties, Indian letters, Indian tribal alliances, and so on) of these primary sources and/or selected excerpts.

Through *language/process-assisted historical thinking*, teachers support historical thinking when they explicitly provide guided practice in mastering the Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills. One instructional method is to lead a class exercise in deconstructing and recontextualizing reading passages (e.g., textbook, primary sources—newspapers, journals, travel logs, secondary sources) using graphic organizers to identify the grammatical structure of its sentences. Repeated practice in learning the relationship between sentence clauses through locating key concept vocabulary and abstract concepts of reading passages will develop students’ critical reading and comprehension skills. Students are taught how to analyze the language patterns of historical texts to determine the actors, points of view, historical meaning, and significance.

After engaging with the reading, students would benefit from practice with historical interpretation, expressly making claims or answering the focus question of the lesson or unit by analyzing and evaluating the evidence collected from their reading. Teachers may monitor and assess students’ progress in historical thinking and interpretation by providing written assignments and essays, oral discussions, quick writes, completed graphic organizers, or other course work and activities. Over time, students will have the ability to independently and confidently demonstrate any number of the Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills, including chronological sequencing and spatial context, cause and effect, examining evidence critically, acknowledging various points of view, and evaluating historical interpretation.

* * * * *

Sample Instruction

As a rule, each component of instruction in this fifth-grade history–social science classroom is differentiated, particularly because many of the students are ELs. While the teacher can often be found modeling the process and product of

lessons, students spend a significant amount of time collaborating with one another in their learning. In a unit on colonial Jamestown (HSS 5.4.2), the teacher prepares focus questions for historical inquiry and direction for students' standards-based reading: *Why did the English settle in Jamestown, and what happened as a result of the settlement?* The teacher also designs several graphic organizers to assist students in comprehending, compiling, and analyzing the text to answer the unit's overarching focus question.

First the teacher reviews the focus questions with the students to confirm understanding of the interpretive task at hand. In small discussion groups, students circle key words and phrases of the focus questions they consider important. Then the teacher examines and clarifies the student-selected key terms aloud: *settle, settlement, English, Jamestown, as a result, what, and why*. At this time the teacher also preteaches a key concept in the unit "Starvation Time." Building upon the students' prior knowledge, the teacher makes connections between the explorers (previous unit), skilled and unskilled labor (life experiences of students—nontransferable versus specialized skills such as plumbing, contractors, and the like), and ideas and values placed on land and wealth (previous unit and life experiences) in an open-ended question-and-answer discussion with the students. The teacher summarizes the discussion by reiterating the students' observations of how ill-equipped people on foreign territory might starve in extreme climate. Preteaching key concepts supports and promotes vocabulary acquisition, because students encounter new words and phrases in the proper context, and because the teacher had originally initiated the discussion by bridging their prior knowledge.

Secondly, the teacher employs a systematic functional grammar approach to reading the text with the class. This text comprehension strategy makes apparent the author's use of language in presenting information and interpretation (Schleppegrell, Greer, and Taylor 2008). The teacher assists the students in determining the historical events, figures, and meaning of this text through the repeated use of a graphic organizer the students are familiar with: "Breaking Down the Text."

An intensive study of the language features of history texts is a recurring instructional practice in this history–social science classroom. The teacher guides the class in deconstructing the reading passage and recontextualizing its meaning

for the inquiry-based instruction. After selected students read aloud each sentence, the teacher solicits responses for each of the graphic organizer’s listed categories: connector/time marker, subject, action (verb), who’s getting the action, and conclusion/question. The following paragraph allows the teacher to reinforce the preteaching discussion by having students consider the cause and effects of the “Starving Time,” the historical event, in the context of the people and places of seventeenth-century colonial America.

The passage below is from the Library of Congress’s “America’s Story” Web site:

Half of the Jamestown settlers were artisans, craftsmen, soldiers, and laborers, including a tailor, a barber, and two surgeons among them. The other half were “gentlemen,” men of wealth who did not have a profession, and who may have underestimated the rough work necessary to survive in the New World. After eight months, only 38 of the 120 pioneers were still alive . . . Jamestown, though it possessed a good harbor, was swampy, infested with mosquitoes, and lacked freshwater sources.

Below is a completed graphic organizer.

Breaking Down the Text

Passage Title: _____

Connector/ Time Marker	Subject	Action	Who’s Getting/ Receiving the Action?	Conclusion/ Question
	Half of the Jamestown settlers	were	artisans, craftsmen, soldiers, and laborers, including a tailor, a barber, and two surgeons	This seems like a good group of people to have for a new colony.

	The other half	were	"gentlemen"	What were "gentlemen" supposed to bring/add to the colony? They seem sort of useless.
	men of wealth who	did not have	a profession	
and	who	may have underestimated	the rough work necessary to survive in the New World	
After eight months	only 38 of the 120 pioneers	were	still alive	That is a huge loss. Were they mostly older people and children?
[though it possessed a good harbor]	Jamestown,	was	swampy	Did people die from drinking bad water?
		infested with	mosquitoes	
and		lacked	freshwater sources	

An ongoing notetaking-and-research exercise takes place during instruction of the unit. During each class period, the teacher asks the students to make connections and distinguish between important and unimportant details for answering the focus questions: *Why did the English settle in Jamestown, and what happened as a result of the settlement?* In an activity called "Keep It or Junk It," students sort and shift through information collected from their homework reading or the previous day's lesson to contribute to a class-generated list of relevant notes. To review the previous lesson and to build upon their content knowledge, students ask one another in discussion groups, "What else do you need to know?" They do this to complete the unit's guiding question. Repeated oral discussions and higher-order thinking in discussion groups give the students more confidence about their skills practice with academic language. This activity also

alleviates the anxiety of producing a written product, because they are familiar and comfortable with the academic tasks of identifying relevant historical evidence and constructing a historical argument and interpretation.

Once the unit progresses to drafting a formal essay, the teacher directs the class in scaling down and categorizing the student-generated class notes to use as evidence for answering the unit’s focus question. From a lengthy list of assorted facts and content and with the teacher’s assistance, the class sifts through commonalities and relationships and establishes three main concerns of the settlers in Jamestown—food and starvation, poor location, and conflict with the American Indians. A condensed version of the final class notes might look like this:

Food/Starvation	Poor Choice to Settle	Conflict
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ John Smith, Jamestown leader, “If you don’t work, you don’t eat.” ■ The Starving Time began during winter of 1609 and lasted until the spring of 1610. ■ Of the 100 settlers, half of them were gentlemen. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The water in the Chesapeake Bay was brackish. ■ Fresh water flowed from the James River. ■ The winters were very cold. ■ Not much vegetation grew during the winter months. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Over a 20-year period, both war and peace existed between the Powhatan and the English. ■ The Powhatan felt betrayed by the English when JS lied about how long the English planned to stay.

Finally, the formal writing assignment for this lesson requires students to write a five-paragraph essay. Each paragraph should include a claim and historical evidence to support the claim. The teacher works with the class to draft four of the five paragraphs together, including the introductory paragraph and thesis, two of the three paragraphs supporting the thesis statement, and the conclusion paragraph. The students analyze the content from their graphic organizers and select the relevant evidence to explain the English settlers’ hardships in Jamestown. This exercise in critical thinking and problem solving is aligned with the Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills.

An example paragraph of the teacher-guided essay:

Graphic Organizer for an Essay

THESIS STATEMENT: The English came to Jamestown looking for gold and land but faced death and starvation as a result of choosing a poor spot to settle.

TOPIC SENTENCE OF PARAGRAPH 1: The English settled along the banks of Chesapeake Bay because the location offered protection from the Spanish and what they thought would have been a good source of water.

Must haves: Brackish, polluted water
Diseases like typhoid, diarrhea, dysentery

Evidence A: _____

Evidence B: _____

Evidence C: _____

Teachers working to provide *language/process-assisted historical thinking* can offer English-language assistance by modeling and guiding students through lesson activities and planning time for peer discussion, support, and learning, as demonstrated by the sample lesson. The students’ ability to complete the assigned tasks independently or move from instruction that is scaffolded to less scaffolded should be a top priority. To support English language development in a history–social science classroom, teachers may try these additional instructional strategies:

- Present visual representations before the text,
- Produce verbal or printed sentence starters or sentence frames for students to complete,
- Model a final writing product,
- Teach content-specific vocabulary (concept maps),
- Hold class or small-group discussions, and/or
- Scaffold formal writing.

To attain English-language proficiency, students need opportunities, supported by appropriate instructional materials, to produce language they have acquired; to use language in academic interactions with peers and adults; and for their oral and written language to be monitored and corrected. Teachers must create an environment in which students feel comfortable in risking the use of new and unfamiliar language. Emphasis is placed on the students' producing language in a variety of contexts and the teachers' eliciting student participation and thought. Students should receive specific, constructive feedback from their teachers regarding the accuracy of their oral and written work. Teachers should analyze students' errors to determine development and progress in oral and written English and plan appropriate instruction to improve competence.

Figure 20.4 provides a tool for planning that teachers may find valuable.

FIGURE 20.4. Framing Questions for Lesson Planning

Framing Questions for All Students	Framing Questions for English Learners
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ What are the big ideas and culminating performance tasks of the larger unit of study, and how does this lesson build toward them? ■ What are the learning targets for this lesson, and what should students be able to do at the end of the lesson? ■ Which clusters of the CA History–Social Science Standards and the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy does this lesson address? ■ What background knowledge, skills, and experiences do my students have that are related to this lesson? ■ How complex are the texts and tasks? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ What are the English language proficiency levels of my students? ■ Which CA ELD Standards amplify the literacy and content standards at students' English language proficiency levels? ■ What language might be new for students and/or present challenges? ■ How will students interact in meaningful ways and learn about how English works in collaborative, interpretive, and/or productive modes?

Figure 20.4. *(continued)*

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ How will students make meaning, express themselves effectively, develop language, and learn content? ■ What types of scaffolding, accommodations, or modifications will individual students need for effectively engaging in the lesson tasks? ■ How will my students and I monitor learning during and after the lesson, and how will that inform instruction? 	
---	--

Source: ELA/ELD Framework, p. 98.

Advanced Learners

Advanced learners are students who demonstrate or are capable of performing academically at a level significantly above the performance of their age group. They may include

- students formally identified by a school district as gifted and talented
- other students who have not been formally identified as gifted and talented but who demonstrate the capacity for advanced performance

In California, each school district sets its own criteria for identifying gifted and talented students.

The informal identification of students’ learning needs (second bullet above) is important because some students, particularly California’s culturally and linguistically diverse learners, may not exhibit the characteristics of advanced learning in culturally or linguistically congruent or familiar ways. For example, a kindergartener who enters U.S. schools as a newcomer to English and is fluently translating for others by the end of the year may not be formally identified as advanced but may, in fact, be best served by programs offered to gifted and talented students. Likewise, students with disabilities may not be identified by teachers as gifted and talented as readily as others, yet some students with

disabilities may also be considered gifted and talented. They are considered *twice exceptional*, and instruction needs to address both sets of needs (Nicpon et al. 2011). Teachers should be prepared through pre-service and in-service professional learning programs to recognize the *range of learners* who are gifted and talented. As noted previously, the populations discussed in this chapter are not mutually exclusive, and each is heterogeneous.

A synthesis of research (Rogers 2007) on the education of students identified as gifted and talented suggests that they should be provided with the following:

- Daily challenge in their specific areas of talent
- Regular opportunities to be unique and to work independently in their areas of passion and talent
- Various forms of subject-based and grade-based acceleration as their educational needs require
- Opportunities to socialize and learn with peers having similar abilities
- Instruction that is differentiated in pace, amount of review and practice, and organization of content presentation

Instruction for advanced learners should have greater depth and complexity. Opportunities to engage with appropriately challenging text and content, conduct research, use technology creatively, and write regularly on topics that interest them can be especially valuable for advanced learners; these experiences allow students to engage more deeply with content and may contribute to motivation. Instruction that focuses on depth and complexity ensures cohesion in learning rather than piecemeal “enrichment.”

Teachers should provide assessments and tasks that vary in cognitive complexity or *depth of knowledge* (often referred to as DOK) called upon (Webb 2005). Depth of knowledge ranges from least to most complex and encompasses the following: recall and reproduction (Level 1), skills and concepts (Level 2), strategic thinking/reasoning (Level 3), and extended thinking (Level 4). The more complex tasks, those at DOK levels 3 and 4, generally require more time and involve the use of more resources. Advanced learners—**and all students**—should have ample opportunities to engage in a mixture of tasks with particular attention to those

most cognitively engaging and challenging—that is, tasks involving strategic thinking/reasoning and extended thinking.

Students Living in Poverty

More than one in five of California’s children and adolescents live in poverty (Bohn and Danielson 2014). Some students living in poverty are from families in which parents work at one or more jobs yet have difficulty surviving economically. Some students living in poverty have moved often with their families, changing schools every year or multiple times each year, because of economic circumstances, including job loss. Some are unaccompanied minors, some are living on the street or in shelters with their families, and some have stable housing but often go hungry. They are a heterogeneous group made up of all ethnicities, but students of color are overrepresented in the population of students in kindergarten through grade twelve living below the poverty line (Aud, Fox, and KewalRamani 2010).

The challenges that individuals living in poverty face are complex. The resources of many agencies working in collaboration are required to mitigate the negative effects of poverty. A broad interpretation of shared responsibility (that is, one that includes agencies beyond the public education system) is crucial in order to serve those students.

Poverty is a risk factor for poor academic outcomes. In other words, children and youths living in poverty are more likely than their peers to experience academic difficulty. However, the effects of poverty on individuals vary based on “the individual’s characteristics (such as personality traits), specific life experience (such as loss of housing), and contextual factors (such as neighborhood crime), as well as the stressor’s timing . . .” and the presence of protective factors, which includes affirming, positive, and supportive relationships with teachers and schools (Moore 2013, 4). Thus, the respectful, positive, and supportive schools called for throughout the entire framework are especially crucial for students living in the psychologically and physically stressful circumstances that come with poverty.

Children and youths living in poverty often miss many days of school; some stop attending altogether. Many transfer from one school to another as their living circumstances dictate. As a result, there are often gaps in their education. Research indicates that high residential mobility during the early years is related to poor

initial reading achievement and subsequent trajectories (Voight, Shinn, and Nation 2012). It is essential that teachers and districts identify student instructional needs early and work to determine how such needs may be addressed. Notably, children living in poverty who do experience academic success in the early years of school are more likely to succeed in subsequent years; early success in reading has been demonstrated to have particular significance for this population of students (Herbers et al. 2012).

Students living in poverty are more likely to struggle with engagement in school. Jensen (2008) discussed seven areas of concern for low-income students and recommended actions that teachers can take to mitigate the effects. The issues cannot be addressed solely in the classroom. Other resources must be harnessed to more fully address the needs of these students. (See also Kaiser, Roberts, and McLeod 2011 for a discussion of poverty and language delays.)

Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Students

All of California’s children and adolescents have the fundamental right to be respected and to feel safe in their school environment, yet many do not because of their sexual orientation or gender expression. Research indicates that students in kindergarten through grade six who are gender-nonconforming are less likely than other students to feel safe at school and more likely to indicate that they sometimes do not want to go to school because they feel unsafe or afraid. Furthermore, they are more likely to be mocked, called names, or bullied (GLSEN and Harris Interactive 2012). Lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) students between the ages of thirteen and eighteen also report feeling unsafe and experiencing harassment or assault at school. Like their younger counterparts, they miss days of school to avoid a hostile climate. Notably, students in middle school report higher frequencies of victimization than do students in high school (GLSEN 2012).

All California educators have a duty to protect students’ right to physical and psychological safety and ensure that each student has the opportunity to thrive. *Education Code* Section 200 et seq. prohibits discrimination on the basis of various protected groups, including sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression. California recognizes that discrimination and harassment in schools “can have a profound and prolonged adverse effect on students’ ability to benefit from public education and maximize their potential” (CDE 2012a).

Furthermore, research suggests that victimization based on sexual orientation or gender expression is related to lower academic achievement and educational aspirations as well as poorer psychological well-being (GLEN 2012). Both teachers and students should understand the terminology used to refer to individuals who are LGBT, and be able to understand the negative effects of slang terms or discriminatory language.

The Gay, Lesbian, and Straight Education Network (GLSEN 2012) has the following recommendations for schools regarding students in this heterogeneous population:

- Adopt and implement clear policies and procedures that address bullying, cyberbullying, and harassment for any reason, thus promoting respectful and safe environments for all students.
- Provide professional learning to educators and ensure that all students have access to a welcoming environment and supportive, respectful teachers, and school staff who will intervene on their behalf.
- Increase students' access to an inclusive curriculum (California Senate Bill 48 added language to *Education Code* Section 51204.5 prescribing the inclusion of the contributions of LGBT Americans to the economic, political, and social development of California and the United States of America, with particular emphasis on portraying the role of these groups in contemporary society).

Additional recommendations include the following:

- Make available and share age-appropriate literature that reflects the diversity of humankind and thoughtfully deals with the complexities and dynamics of intolerance and discrimination.
- Teach students, by example and through discussion, how to treat diverse others.

California students who are not themselves in this population may have parents or guardians who are LGBT. All students and their families need to feel safe, respected, and welcomed in school.

Students with Disabilities

In accordance with the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEA), reauthorized in 2004, California local educational agencies provide special education and other related services as a part of a guaranteed free appropriate public education to students who meet the criteria under one of the following categories: autism, deafness, deaf-blindness, emotional disturbance, hearing impairment, intellectual disability, multiple disabilities, orthopedic impairment, other health impairment, specific learning disability, speech or language impairment, traumatic brain injury, visual impairment, including blindness. See the National Dissemination Center for Children with Disabilities [<http://nichcy.org/disability/categories>] for descriptions.)

Students with specific learning disabilities and speech and language impairment make up approximately two-thirds of students receiving special education services (CDE Data Quest 2011). Although specific learning disabilities vary widely, difficulty with reading is the most common type of specific learning disability. (However, it is important to note that students experiencing difficulty with reading do not necessarily have a learning disability. There are many causes for low achievement in reading, including inadequate instruction. Under the IDEA, a student who is performing below grade level may not be determined to have a specific learning disability if the student's performance is primarily a result of limited English proficiency or if it is due to a lack of appropriate instruction.)

A student's membership in a particular disability category represents only a label for a qualifying condition. The severity of a disability and the educational needs in each disability category vary widely. Thus, each individualized education program (IEP) should be based on individual need and not the disability. All students with disabilities require knowledgeable teachers who work closely with education specialists and families to determine how best to provide equitable access to the curriculum.

Students who receive special education and related services in the public school system must have an IEP (<https://www.understood.org/en/school-learning/special-services/ieps/video-what-is-an-iep>). The IEP is a federally mandated document specifically designed to address an individual's unique educational needs. It includes information about the student's present levels of performance (including

strengths), annual goals, accommodations and modifications, and the services and supports that are to be provided in order to meet the goals. The members of the IEP team—students, teachers, parents, school administrators, and related services personnel—work collaboratively to improve educational results for students with disabilities. IEPs for ELs with disabilities should include linguistically appropriate goals and objectives in addition to all the supports and services the student may require due to the disability. The IEP serves as the foundation for ensuring a quality education for each student with a disability.

Depending on the individualized needs, some students with disabilities may receive supports and/or services with a 504 Plan (<http://specialchildren.about.com/od/504s/qt/sample504.htm>) rather than an IEP. A 504 Plan refers to Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act and the Americans with Disabilities Act (<http://specialchildren.about.com/od/disabilityrights/qt/ada.htm>), which specifies that no one with a disability may be excluded from participating in federally funded programs or activities, including elementary, secondary, or postsecondary schooling. Disability, in this context, refers to a “physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities.” This may include physical impairments; illnesses or injuries; communicable diseases; chronic conditions like asthma, allergies, and diabetes; and learning problems. A 504 Plan spells out the modifications and accommodations that will be needed for those students to have opportunities to perform at the same level as their nondisabled peers, and may include such supports as an extra set of textbooks, audio textbooks, a peanut-free lunch environment, or a tape recorder or mobile device for taking notes.

Classroom Example: Differentiated Instruction in a Grade Eight Co-Taught History–Social Science Class

Ms. Nash, a general education history–social science teacher, and Ms. Valdez, a special education teacher, co-teach a grade eight history–social science class of 36 students, nine of whom are students receiving specially designed instruction to support IEP goals for reading comprehension and written expression. The class is studying the Civil War period or, more specifically, the perspectives of a variety of historical figures during the Civil War.

Example *(continued)*

Ms. Nash and Ms. Valdez begin the lesson by reminding students of the question for discussion: “Was the Civil War a war for freedom?” They explain to students that this question will now be considered from the point of view of individuals from the North and the South who actually lived during the conflict. After a brief presentation on what *perspective* means and how it is influenced, students are placed strategically into one of six groups that are each assigned to a pair of historical actors and related secondary and primary sources. These documents will be used for part of their summative assessment at the conclusion of the unit: an argumentative essay.

As routinely practiced, the co-teachers carefully plan the groupings to ensure that membership is not static but changes frequently to ensure that all students have the opportunity to move across learning groups that best correspond to the instructional purpose and students’ instructional skills, interests, and needs. In addition, Ms. Nash and Ms. Valdez switch their instructional roles to ensure shared responsibility for teaching all students. They also make sure that accommodations and modifications are provided as identified in the students’ IEPs. In their classroom, two students are provided with digitized text and specialized software to access the text with auditory supports and visual enhancements and another student has access to a portable word processor with grammar/spell-check software to take notes and complete written assignments.

For today’s lesson, the students are grouped according to the level of scaffolding and differentiated instruction needed to comprehend the text. The final objective for all students is to understand the concept of perspective and how someone’s point of view will likely impact the answer to the question of whether the Civil War was a war for freedom. They will work collaboratively, in small groups of three to four, to identify and annotate claims and supporting textual evidence, as well as to explain how the evidence supports the author’s claim. The students are provided with elaboration stems, as well as sentence starters, to help support their meaningful engagement in listening and speaking. Ms. Nash and Ms. Valdez take turns monitoring the small groups periodically throughout the instructional period.

Example *(continued)*

Two of the groups are composed of students who need direct teacher support to navigate, comprehend, and respond to the text. The students work together with direct support from either Ms. Nash or Ms. Valdez to complete the same assignment as the other groups, focusing specifically on claims and supporting evidence. They are also provided with elaboration stems and sentence starters to help support their meaningful engagement in listening and speaking. The teachers differentiate instruction with read-alouds and think-alouds while providing visual supports: displaying, highlighting, and chunking the text by using document cameras. All six groups are held to the same rigorous expectations and standards.

After the six groups are finished, each group of students presents its claims and evidence. As each group presents, the students add necessary facts and details as information is being shared, read, or discussed into an advanced organizer prepared by the teachers to support and interpret the incoming information. The students will continue to complete their organizers after they receive the other two texts to annotate.

At the end of class, students are given an Exit Slip with a prompt as a way for Ms. Nash and Ms. Valdez to assess how accurately students can independently express the authors' claims and the ways they support those claims. The Exit Slip provides an informal measure of the students' understanding, allowing the teachers to adapt and differentiate their planning and instruction for the following lesson.

At the end of the unit, students will write an argumentative essay and participate in a mock talk show activity using their completed advanced organizer as well as copies of all of the texts.

Source: The History Blueprint: The Civil War, © 2011, The California History-Social Science Project, Regents of the University of California, Davis.

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RL.8.10; RI.8.1–3, 5, 10; W.8.1, 4, 9b; SL.8.1, 4

CA HSS Content Standard: 8.9.1

CA HSS Analysis Skills: Research, Evidence, and Point of View 1–5

Specially designed instruction is provided to students with disabilities, depending on the learners and their identified needs. **The education specialist and**

general education teacher share responsibility for developing and implementing IEPs. Together, they ensure students with disabilities are provided with the supports needed to achieve their highest potential, and they communicate and collaborate with families in culturally and linguistically appropriate ways.

Most students with disabilities are served exclusively in the general education classroom where they receive instruction primarily from the general education teacher. Typically, the education specialist consults with the general education teacher to provide resources, professional learning, and other necessary supports. Both the education specialist and the general education teacher monitor the student's progress in meeting curricular expectations of the classroom as well as the goals of the IEP.

Some students with disabilities receive core instruction in the general education class as well as instruction from the specialist (when needed), either in the general education setting or in a special education setting. The general educator receives guidance from the specialist, and the two (or more) collaborate to provide the student with optimal instruction. At times, general educators and education specialists engage in co-teaching: the general educator and the education specialist deliver instruction in the same general classroom setting to a blended group of students (that is, those with and without identified disabilities). There are several models of co-teaching (Bacharach, Heck, and Dahlberg 2010; Friend and Bursuck 2009).

Some students with disabilities require highly specialized or intensive intervention instruction from the educational specialist in an alternative setting outside the general education classroom. Those students participate in general education classes and interact with students without disabilities to the maximum extent appropriate, depending on the nature of their disabilities.

Accommodations and Modifications for Students with Disabilities

Most students who are eligible for special education services are able to achieve the standards when the following three conditions are met:

1. Standards are implemented according to the foundational principles of Universal Design for Learning. (See subsequent section in this chapter.)

2. Evidence-based instructional strategies are implemented, and instructional materials and curriculum reflect the interests, preferences, and readiness of each student to maximize learning potential.
3. Appropriate accommodations are provided to help students gain access to grade-level content.

Accommodations are changes to a curriculum’s materials that help a student with uncommon learning styles. Accommodations do not reduce the learning or performance expectations but allow the student to complete an assignment of assessment with changes in presentation, response, setting, timing, or scheduling so that learners are provided with equitable access to the curriculum during instruction and assessment. They also include learner-appropriate behavior management techniques. See figure 20.5 below.

More guidance is available in the Council of Chief State School Officers’ *Accommodations Manual: How to Select, Administer, and Evaluate Use of Accommodations for Instruction and Assessment of Students with Disabilities* (Thompson et al. 2005).

FIGURE 20.5. Types of Accommodations for Students with Disabilities

Type of Accommodation	Examples of Classroom Implementation
Changes in timing or scheduling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Extended time (e.g., to allow for limited dexterity) ■ Frequent breaks (e.g., to avoid physical discomfort) ■ Dividing assignment over several sessions (e.g., to avoid eyestrain or frustration)
Changes in setting/ environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Specialized furniture (e.g., adjustable height desk to allow for wheelchair) ■ Preferential seating (e.g., close to whiteboard to support low vision or to be away from distractions) ■ Stabilization of instructional materials (e.g., book-holder to support weak fine motor skills)

Figure 20.6. (continued)

Changes in how the curriculum is presented	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Varied lesson presentation using multisensory techniques ■ Use of American Sign Language ■ Provision of audio and digital versions of texts ■ Provision of tactile resources, such as physical models and raised maps
Changes in how the student responds	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Provision of wide-ruled paper or a computer for written work ■ Responds in braille ■ Use of a recording device to record/play back questions, passages, and responses
Behavioral strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Use of behavioral management techniques appropriate for the learner ■ Reinforce self-monitoring and self-recording of behaviors

Unlike accommodations, **modifications** are adjustments to an assignment or assessment that changes what is expected or measured. Modifications should be used with caution as they alter, change, lower, or reduce learning expectations and may increase the achievement gap between students with disabilities and peers who have no disabilities. Examples of modifications include the following:

- Reducing the expectations of an assignment or assessment (e.g., students complete fewer problems, receive fewer materials, or have less difficult problems to complete)
- Making assignments or assessment items easier
- Providing clues to correct responses

Accommodations and modifications play important roles in helping students with disabilities to gain access to the core curriculum and demonstrate what they know and can do. The student's IEP or 504 Plan team determines the appropriate accommodations and modifications for both instruction and state and district assessments. Decisions about accommodations and modifications are made on an individual student basis, not on the basis of category of disability. For example,

rather than select accommodations and modifications from a generic checklist, the IEP and 504 Plan team members (including families and the student) need to carefully consider and evaluate the effectiveness of accommodations for each student.

Accommodations and modifications support equitable instruction and assessment for students with disabilities. Accommodations and modifications should be the same across classroom instruction, classroom tests, and state/district assessments. However, some accommodations and modifications may be appropriate only for instructional use and may not be appropriate for use on a standardized assessment. It is crucial that educators are familiar with state policies regarding accommodations used during standardized assessment.

Universal Design for Learning and Multi-Tiered System of Supports

This section focuses on classroom- and school- or district-level processes and structures for planning for and supporting all of California’s learners in transitional kindergarten through grade twelve. It begins with a discussion of Universal Design for Learning (UDL) and then presents information about Multi-Tiered System of Supports (MTSS) and the implementation of culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogy.

Universal Design for Learning

UDL is a research-based framework for guiding educational practice (see www.udlcenter.org). Based on the premise that one-size-fits-all curricula create unintentional barriers to learning for many students, including the mythical average student, UDL focuses on planning instruction in such a way so as to meet the varied needs of students. Not a special education initiative, UDL acknowledges the needs of all learners at the first point of teaching, thereby reducing the amount of follow-up and alternative instruction necessary.

UDL involves the use of effective teaching practices and the intentional differentiation of instruction from the outset to meet the needs of the full continuum of learners. Teachers who employ UDL attend to how information is shared along with choices of action, expression, and engagement. In other words,

general education teachers consider, as they plan, different ways to present information and content, different ways in which the students can express what they know, and different ways of stimulating students' interest and motivation for learning—all based on students' needs (CAST 2011).

The UDL guidelines are organized by three primary principles. Figure 20.6 displays the three principles, the UDL guidelines, as well as practical suggestions for classroom implementation. For additional information on the guidelines, please visit the National Center for UDL: <http://www.udlcenter.org/aboutudl>.

FIGURE 20.6. UDL Principles, Guidelines, and Suggestions for Implementation

Principle I: Provide multiple means of representation to give students various ways of acquiring, processing, and integrating information and knowledge	
GUIDELINE 1 Provide options for perception	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Customize the display of information (e.g., change the size of text or images or change the volume of speech) ■ Provide alternatives for auditory information (e.g., provide written transcripts or use American Sign Language)
GUIDELINE 2 Provide options for language, mathematical expressions, and symbols	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Clarify vocabulary and symbols (e.g., provide a glossary or graphic equivalents or teach word components) ■ Illustrate key concepts through multiple media (e.g., provide illustrations, simulations, or interactive graphics or make explicit the connections between text and illustrations, diagrams, or other representations of information)
GUIDELINE 3 Provide options for comprehension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Activate or supply background knowledge (e.g., use advanced organizers and make explicit cross-curricular connections) ■ Highlight patterns, critical features, big ideas, and relationships (e.g., use outlines to emphasize important ideas or draw students' attention to critical features)

Figure 20.6. (continued)

<p>Principle II: Provide multiple means of action and expression to provide students with options for navigating and demonstrating learning</p>	
<p>GUIDELINE 4 Provide options for physical action</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Vary the methods for response and navigation (e.g., provide learners with alternatives to written responses) ■ Integrate assistive technologies (e.g., make touch screens and alternative keyboards accessible)
<p>GUIDELINE 5 Provide multiple tools for construction and composition</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Use multiple media for communication (e.g., provide options for composing, such as in text and film) ■ Build fluencies with graduated levels of support for practice and performance (e.g., provide more or less scaffolding depending upon the learner)
<p>GUIDELINE 6 Provide options for executive functions</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Guide appropriate goal setting (e.g., support learners in estimating the difficulty of a goal) ■ Support planning and strategy development (e.g., support learners in identifying priorities and a sequence of steps)
<p>Principle III: Provide multiple means of engagement to tap individual learners’ interests, challenge them appropriately, and motivate them to learn.</p>	
<p>GUIDELINE 7 Provide options for recruiting interest</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Optimize individual choice and autonomy (e.g., provide learners choice in the order they accomplish tasks) ■ Optimize relevance, value, and authenticity (e.g., provide home and community audiences for students’ work)
<p>GUIDELINE 8 Provide options for sustaining effort and persistence</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Vary demands and resources to optimize challenge (e.g., provide a range of resources appropriate for the learner) ■ Foster collaboration and communication (e.g., offer structures for group work and discuss expectations)

Figure 20.6. *(continued)*

GUIDELINE 9 Provide options for self-regulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Promote expectations and beliefs that optimize motivation (e.g., help students set personal goals) ■ Develop self-assessment and reflection (e.g., support students in identifying progress toward goals)
--	--

When initial instruction is planned in such a way that it flexibly adjusts to learner variability, more students are likely to succeed. Fewer students will find the initial instruction inaccessible, and therefore less “catch up” instruction will be needed.

Multi-Tiered System of Supports

A coordinated system of supports and services is crucial for ensuring appropriate and timely attention to students’ needs. The MTSS model expands California’s Response to Intervention and Instruction (RtI²) process by aligning all systems of high-quality first instruction, support, and intervention with structures for building, changing, and sustaining systems. The foundational structures of the MTSS include high-quality core instruction utilizing UDL principles and appropriate supports, strategies, and accommodations. In addition, assessments and progress monitoring are employed to allow for a data-based, problem-solving approach to instructional decision making.

Like RtI², the MTSS incorporates the three tiered structure of increasing levels of supports and begins with the establishment of strong core instruction in Tier 1. These tiers reflect the intensity of instruction and does not specify programs, students, or staff (i.e., Title 1 or special education). Students receiving either Tier 2 or Tier 3 support should not be deprived of engaging history–social science course work. Full participation in this course work is critical for ongoing content knowledge, language, and literacy development.

Some high schools include interventions in a content area such as social studies. In this example, 25 minutes might be dedicated to content area instruction and 25 minutes to comprehension or decoding strategies applied to the content area book. A block schedule of 90 minutes might incorporate 30 minutes of “reading enrichment” in which students with strong or average reading skills would read

independently and the teacher could run a small flexibly grouped remedial intervention in the same room. Alternatively, a reading specialist might co-teach a course and provide remediation or run a small group in a different setting. The latter would allow the reading specialist to conduct three groups, for 30 minutes with each, within the same 90-minute block.

Because these are small groups, there has to be an opportunity to create a teacher/tutor-to-student ratio of approximately 1 to 10. Thus, one classroom teacher and one paraprofessional (or two teachers) could teach a class of 20–24 students, or one reading specialist could pull out up to 10 students at any one time from one course.

Tier 1

Students in Tier 1 are generally making good progress toward the standards but may be experiencing temporary or minor difficulties. Although the needs of these students may not seem critical, they must be addressed quickly to prevent the students from falling behind. An effective instructional strategy is to reteach a concept in a different way to an individual or a group of students or schedule a study group to provide additional learning time. Occasionally, adults can be enlisted to reinforce learning at home, using instructional resources organized in ways that make it easy for them to do so. Some students may need periodic individual assistance or other types of support to ensure that they succeed in the regular classroom. Once the student has grasped the concept or procedure correctly, additional practice is usually helpful.

Tier 2

Students in Tier 2 may be working one to two grade levels below their peers. The regular classroom teacher can often address their learning difficulties, with minimal assistance, in the classroom environment. However, the students' learning difficulties should be examined systematically and with care. A student success team might be called on to discuss appropriate support for the student. In addition to reteaching a concept, the teacher may wish to provide specific assignments over a period of time for students to complete with a peer or tutor or by themselves at home. Regular study groups working before or after school, in the evenings, or on

weekends may provide an effective extension of the learning time. Some students may need extended blocks of time for the study of history–social science to master particularly complex content. Others may require specific accommodations and modifications to the classroom environment, curriculum, or instruction as identified in the students’ 504 Plan. Students with disabilities may need special accommodations and/or modifications of curriculum or instruction, as specified in their IEP, to enable them to participate successfully in a mainstream classroom.

For instance, to mitigate the impact of below-level reading skills, information about historical topics covered in class could be provided via online tutorial or virtual demonstration, a video, leveled-texts, digital text with translation (e.g., for ELs), or digital text with on-demand supports such as embedded dictionary and text-to-speech options. Providing options for students that minimize or remove the impact of barriers to their academic engagement will increase engagement rates and learning outcomes.

The integration of core instructional materials into tiered intervention utilizing a preview–preteach model of intervention will maximize the effectiveness of intervention and increase student benefit from core instruction. For instance, instead of facilitating word study or practicing vocabulary acquisition strategies with a random set of words, teachers utilize important content-specific vocabulary that students will need to know to master their current history–social science content. Interventions that tie very closely to core content instruction will be more effective than interventions that operate independently of core instruction. Furthermore, Tier 2 interventions should address both student academic and engagement needs through strategies such as goal setting, increased high-quality feedback, and students’ monitoring of their own progress. Also, a wise strategy is to select the most highly effective teachers who have the skills to quickly form positive and motivating relationships with students.

Tier 3

Students in Tier 3 are identified by their extremely and chronically low performance on one or more measures. These students perform well below their peers and should be referred to a student success team for a thorough discussion of options. A referral for special education evaluation may be advisable. If eligible for special education services, those students will be given an IEP that will describe

the most appropriate services. Specialized assistance will often be available through the special education referral, perhaps including intensive intervention by a qualified specialist, tutoring, services of a classroom assistant, specialized materials or equipment, changes in assessment procedures, or modification of the curriculum or instruction. In general education classrooms, teachers can place students in small groups by similar ability levels in order to provide them with more targeted attention, in addition to scaffolded instruction, and feedback. Students who are considered members of Tier 3, as well as the aforementioned groups, may greatly benefit from RtI² strategies.

Conclusion

California is committed to equity and access for all learners. Ensuring that all learners achieve their highest potential is a challenging and multifaceted endeavor, but it is one that can be accomplished by knowledgeable, skillful, and dedicated teams of educators who work closely with families and equally dedicated communities. The children and youths of this state deserve no less, and the nation will be stronger as a result.

CHAPTER 21

Instructional Strategies

Students of history–social science must develop content knowledge as well as the necessary skills for historical and spatial thinking, source analysis, interpretation, cultural understanding, economic reasoning, and civic participation. They develop and utilize these skills in reading, writing, speaking, and listening in order to access, interpret, analyze, evaluate, and use information effectively. Students also use these literacy skills to think critically, build arguments, and pose solutions or theories by using evidence and practices from history and the social sciences. In effective history–social science programs, students develop enthusiasm and confidence in their studies of history, geography, economics, civics, and government that will be useful for college, career, and civic life.

In addition to the disciplinary understanding and content knowledge outlined in the *History–Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools* (History–Social Science Content Standards) (see appendix C), history–social science teachers also bear a shared responsibility for their students’ overall literacy development, as outlined by the *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy) and the *California English Language Development Standards* (CA ELD Standards). These standards call for increased understandings in many areas: text complexity; use of

informational text; attention to literacy and ELD in all content areas; designated ELD; student collaboration and conversations; emphasis on academic language and language awareness; amount, variety, and rigor of student writing; use of textual evidence; research, analysis, evaluation, and strategic use of information; and integration of the strands of reading, writing, speaking and listening, and language in all curricular areas. Furthermore, teachers must appropriately incorporate ever-shifting uses of technology into instruction, attend to students' abilities to think critically and use their creativity, and ensure that all students can communicate and collaborate in a global society that values multiple perspectives, languages, and worldviews.

These emphases require that teachers, specialists, paraprofessionals, school and district leaders, and other school staff members continually acquire new and specialized knowledge and establish new ways of working together. All educators need to collaborate across grade levels and departments to create new curriculum units; plan instruction to meet the needs of all students; create, adapt, and administer periodic assessments; design needed learning supports and interventions; teach together (or co-teach); examine student results; and analyze the effectiveness of instruction. Moreover, they will need to reconsider school schedules and responsibilities so that attention to literary and informational texts is balanced and sufficient time is allocated to all content areas.

Three Components of Effective Instruction in History–Social Science

In preparation for effective instruction in history–social science, teachers must take a three-pronged approach to planning for student learning. Teachers must *develop knowledge of the content standards* on which the curriculum, instruction, and assessment are based. Teachers must *develop knowledge of the disciplines* that comprise history and the social sciences as well as the skills to teach these disciplines effectively. Teachers must also *develop knowledge of discipline-specific approaches to enhance student literacy*, as defined by the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, such as reading comprehension, academic language development, source analysis, and writing. Teachers of history–social science must address these three important components in order to develop a strong foundation for effective instructional programs.

Content Understanding

The History–Social Science Content Standards (appendix C) can challenge even the most skilled educator, given the volume and complexity of the content to be covered. Planning and preparation can help mitigate the enormity of the task at hand. The needs of students, teachers, parents, and administrators must be considered, and the plan must take into account the realities of the school calendar and external factors such as the state assessment system. A suggested plan follows.

Map the school year. Review the calendar for an entire school year to determine exactly how many days are available for instruction. Arrange units and lessons in a logical sequence, and determine the duration for maximum student understanding. Create a pacing guide to ensure that all subjects outlined in the content standards receive coverage over the course of the school year.

Organize instruction around questions and topics of disciplinary significance. Once all scheduling information has been recorded, turn to the grade-level standards to organize instruction around questions and topics of disciplinary significance in order to provide connections between standards to support student learning. Teachers should be mindful of the meaning and/or intent of each standard and the relationship(s) between a given standard and other standards. What topics of relative significance, enduring understandings—or “big ideas”—can be learned? Big ideas or essential questions are important, enduring, and transferable beyond the scope of a particular unit, which means students bring examples of that big idea into the unit of study and continue to find examples beyond that unit of study (Wiggins and McTighe 1998).

In other words, what is the point of studying this particular content? What prerequisite knowledge and skills will students need to understand this content? When a new topic, such as *imperialism* (HSS 10.4), is introduced, many students have little, if any, prior knowledge to launch their thinking and learning. An essential or compelling question, such as “How do economic practices drive government policies?” is worthy of introduction and discussion.

The teacher may also guide students in identifying examples from past lessons in history that relate to this idea. For example, Great Britain’s taxation of American colonists (HSS 5.4.5) and the development of feudalism in medieval Europe (HSS 7.6.3) can be mentioned. What entry-level assessment tools can be used to

determine the readiness of the class as a whole and of individuals within it? Are there any special learning or literacy obstacles inherent in this content?

With these topics of disciplinary significance in mind, teachers can then employ specific content and analysis skills standards to advance student learning. The History–Social Science Content Standards are primarily organized in chronological order, and they integrate all of the social sciences throughout each grade level. The Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills (HSS Analysis Skills) are grouped by grade spans: kindergarten through grade five, grades six through eight, and grades nine through twelve. As teachers examine the content for each grade, they should consider which of the analysis skills would be the most appropriate for students to practice to comprehend the major concepts of each unit. For instance, kindergarten standard HSS K.4.4 requires students to “construct maps and models of neighborhoods . . .,” and the HSS Analysis Skills Chronological and Spatial Thinking 4 states, “Students use map and globe skills to determine the absolute location of places and interpret information available through a map’s or globe’s legend, scale, and symbolic representations.” This example illustrates how the analysis skills can be a pathway for students to learn the grade-level content.

Units taught in the beginning of the year or term typically take more time than those that come later because teachers need time to teach the processes, skills, and procedures that students will use throughout the rest of the year or term. The planning process is most effective when done in collaboration with grade-level, departmental, or interdisciplinary colleagues to facilitate administration of common assessments, develop rubrics, and/or conduct group scoring sessions. Collaboration ensures consistency and sets similar expectations across courses. Collaboration also promotes the sharing of effective strategies in instruction, assessment, and feedback. History–social science teachers should consult with English–language arts teachers to ensure that student skill development is consistent with the common goals of literacy and language development as articulated in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy.

Choose good assessment options to gauge student learning and progress. After the teacher is confident of the main concepts or ideas to be studied in the unit, he or she should use a thorough understanding of assessment options to design or select appropriate formative and summative assessments.

Select classroom activities that will enable students to develop and demonstrate mastery. Once the teacher determines the level of student mastery of the content, an activity should be selected for students to learn the selected content and practice the appropriate HSS Analysis Skills. While deciding which activities to include, teachers keep in mind the level of readiness of the students, as well as any roadblocks to their understanding. These obstacles may stem from a lack of background due to the marginalization of history–social science instruction; they may be the result of problems many students have when they attempt to read and comprehend informational texts and primary sources; they may be the result of language acquisition issues for English learners (ELs); or they may encompass the problems that students with any other special needs encounter.

Teachers include activities that will help students develop their analysis skills, provide support for English language development, engage them with the curriculum, deepen their content knowledge, and omit any activities that will distract them from the main ideas to be understood.

In some cases, this will mean that teachers will need to delete a favorite activity that has “always” been done. It also means that when a teacher is gathering materials—for instance, a sixth-grade teacher preparing a unit to teach HSS 6.2.5 to HSS 6.2.7 and Historical Interpretation 2, 5, and 6—that he or she does not simply collect and use any or all lessons and activities that mention Egypt, the pyramids, and/or pharaohs. Rather, he or she will select only those lessons that will lead students to formulate answers to the essential question or big idea, which might be *How is a civilization’s religion reflected in its art and architecture?*

The following example is from grade five, HSS 5.5.1; Chronological and Spatial Thinking 5; Research, Evidence, and Point of View 2; and Historical Interpretation 2.

Central Investigative Question

Use the question to focus the students' attention.

How did climate and geography affect how American Indians in the Eastern Woodlands, Plains, Desert Southwest, and Pacific Northwest lived and obtained food, clothing, and tools?

Introduction

Have students work in groups to study the documents. Provide graphic organizers to assist students in analyzing them.

Provide students with a map of the United States that highlights cultural regions of American Indians, documents (e.g., a Menominee Indian folktale from the Great Lakes region, or excerpts from Black Elk's autobiography, *Black Elk Speaks*, or *Black Hawk: An Autobiography*), art (e.g., paintings of a Cree Indian, buffalo hunts, Iroquois longhouses, and woodland Indians hunting), and photos (e.g., cliff dwellings, Navajo weavers, and Pacific Northwest fishermen).

Question Review

Ensure that all students understand the question.

How did climate and geography affect how American Indians in the Eastern Woodlands, Plains, Desert Southwest, and Pacific Northwest lived and obtained food, clothing, and tools?

Specific Instructions for Students

Provide students with the scoring guide prior to their writing.

1. Begin with a thesis to answer the question.
2. Support or prove the thesis with evidence from the documents.
3. Make two points that will support the thesis for two groups of American Indians.
4. Write a conclusion that restates and summarizes the important points.

Sample Scoring Guide

Essay Component	Points Possible	Points Earned
Introduction		
The thesis statement introduces the topic clearly, provides a focus for the essay, and answers the question.	25	
Evidence		
The author develops the topic with facts, definitions, details, quotations, or other information and examples from at least two groups of American Indians to support the thesis.	20	
The author connects the evidence to the thesis statement by explaining how the specific quotes, data, or other information supports the main idea or argument of the essay.	20	
Conclusion		
The author provides a concluding statement related to the information presented.	10	
Overall quality of writing		
Each paragraph centers on only one topic; uses proper grammar, spelling, and mechanics; and features the correct use of verb tenses. The sentences are understandable and logically organized. The essay is written in formal language and in the third person, not first (I, me, my, we, our) or second person (you, your).	25	
Totals	100	

To prepare students to complete this assessment successfully, teachers will need to prepare targeted instruction. Starting with a secondary source, such as the textbook, teachers (often working with the school’s teacher-librarian) assemble various primary sources (maps, photos, and relevant documents) for students to examine evidence to consider the guiding question, formulate a thesis, and make an argument in response to the assigned prompt.

Students will need detailed instruction to analyze the sources effectively in order to both comprehend the evidence and consider its relevance to the task at hand. For example, key vocabulary terms—both content-specific terms related to American Indians, climate, and geography, as well as academic terms such as *obtained*—will need to be taught to make sure that students understand both the question and the sources they examine. Moreover, sufficient classroom time should be spent to ensure that students have gleaned the information needed to evaluate how climate and geography affected the American Indians in various regions. In some cases, students will need assistance with reading the text selections, while in others they will require practice in making inferences based on the relevant questions they pose after examining art and photos. In addition, for students to be successful writers, they will need specific instruction and practice in citing sources and marshaling evidence to support their point of view.

History–Social Science Disciplinary Understanding

The term *disciplinary knowledge* refers to the kinds of studies in which historians, geographers, economists, and other social scientists are involved. What do historians and geographers do, and how do they do what they do? What tools and processes do they use to make decisions and produce results as professionals in these fields? Disciplinary knowledge in history therefore refers to classroom practices of “doing history” in which students know what history is, examine how historical data are determined, and understand what teachers and historians say about the past (Lee 2004, 2005). For example, students know what kinds of questions to ask about sources to evaluate historical accounts, maps, and artifacts. Students know how to identify the context and perspective in order to interpret the value and limitations of information sources.

Teaching for disciplinary knowledge across the grade levels allows students to think about their own learning as they follow the techniques and strategies used by historians, geographers, and others in the field. Metacognitive skills are specialized to meet the needs of history–social science learning. Developing habits of mind also helps students through their own learning of history and the social sciences by developing perspectives and modes of thoughtful judgment designed to extend critical thinking (Bain 2000). Students understand that today’s events are tomorrow’s history, and that they can shape both.

History

The discipline of history includes the practice of historical research—creating historical arguments by reading and understanding historical documents and records. Students enhance their research and interpretation skills by using the concepts of contingency, analyzing source relevance, developing interpretations of sources, and demonstrating a grasp of the historical chronology and context in which the issue, problem, or events developed. When historians examine primary sources, they ask questions about an author’s identity, motives, participation in events at the time a document was written, and the audience for whom the document was intended. Historians contextualize the content of a document, which enables them to appreciate ways of perceiving and thinking that are quite different from conventional ways of perceiving and thinking today. In other words, they look at the document while keeping in mind the events and circumstances at the time the document was created.

Historians also compare information learned from several documents. Historians make inter-text links while reading documents, noting corroboration among primary sources as well as among historians’ interpretations (Wineburg 2001). Historical investigation is a process that consists of three stages: (1) Research, (2) Analyze evidence, and (3) Make an interpretation (CHSSP, UC Regents, 2006). In stage 1, students create an investigation question and seek information from primary and secondary sources. In stage 2, students analyze individual sources by answering questions: *What are the literal aspects of the document? What is the point of view of the source? How did historical circumstances shape the source? What can be learned from this piece of evidence?* Then students work with multiple sources to compare different pieces of evidence. In stage 3, students construct an explanation about history and seek guided peer review.

Geography

Geographers investigate global climate, landforms, economics, urbanization, political systems and boundaries, culture, and migration. The goal of teaching geography is to equip students with the knowledge, skills, and perspectives to do geography. This requires students to use geographic thinking and information to make well-reasoned decisions and to solve problems.

Using a geographic lens in their studies of history, economics, or other social sciences, students use geographic representations, analyses, and technologies to interpret the past, understand the present, and plan for the future. Students recognize that human cultures and identities are deeply connected to physical and human features that define places and regions. They also learn that spatial patterns on Earth are ever-changing, due in large part to human actions that modify and adapt to the physical and cultural environment (Gallagher Heffron and Downs 2012).

Geographic literacy combines geographic knowledge of cultural and physical features with geographic practices for the purpose of analyzing, understanding, and communicating information about important issues. Geographic practices are developed when students pose geographic questions, acquire geographic information, organize data, analyze geographic information, answer questions and design solutions, and then present geographic information (Schell, Roth, and Mohan 2013).

As students study local, national, and global issues, use of these geographic practices will enhance their understandings by providing a spatial context. Tenth-grade students studying about the events preceding and during World War I (HSS 10.5) will most certainly benefit from posing geographic questions, such as *Where were the principal theaters of battle, and why were they there? What geographic factors contributed to military decisions and outcomes?* Students can collect and organize information about climate and weather in key battle locations; interpret maps, charts, and accounts to understand the size and movement of troops over various terrain; and construct generalizations about the importance of natural geographic as well as cultural features in the outcome of some battles.

In the discipline of geography, students locate the places where concepts were first developed, map the movement of ideas from one place to another, and recognize the power of diffusion of ideas as an example of global linkage (NCSS 2013). Teachers must guide students in the process of asking geographic questions, acquiring multiple geographic resources, exploring geographic data, analyzing geographic information, and acting on geographic knowledge.

Civics and Government

Key concepts for students to learn in civics and government include American citizenship, civic life, private life, civil society, constitution, liberalism,

republicanism, politics, and systems of shared powers. Through these concepts students continually develop understandings of national identity, constitutional heritage, civic values, political and economic rights, and responsibilities as citizens participating in a democratic society in a global context.

Intellectual and participatory skills are inseparable from the content. These skills allow students to think critically about a political issue—understanding historical context, its significance, the effect on individuals and society, and possible solutions. Students should evaluate, take, and defend positions on particular topics or issues in class discussions or through formal learning activities, such as a mock trial, debate, or congressional hearing simulations. Students should be able to identify and understand the sources of and differences between power and authority, evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of government policies, suggest changes to either improve existing government policies or create new ones, and develop the capacity to participate in civic activities.

The Carnegie Corporation of New York and the Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (2011) outline six “promising approaches” to improve civic education. According to their report, entitled *The Civic Mission of Schools*, schools should:

- provide high-quality, formal instruction in government, history, law, and democracy;
- incorporate discussion of current local, national, and international issues and events into the classroom;
- have students apply what they learn through community service linked to the curriculum and classroom instruction;
- offer extracurricular activities that involve students in their schools and communities;
- encourage student participation in school governance;
- encourage student participation in simulations of democratic processes and procedures.

Civics teaches the principles and virtues that are meant to guide official institutions, such as legislatures, courts, and government agencies. Students learn about the social contract, separation of powers, consent of the governed, and

federalism as well as freedom, justice, equality, and liberty (NCSS 2013). Participatory skills are developed by providing students with opportunities to practice the skills of working with others to influence policies and decisions, articulating interests and making them known to key decision and policymakers, building coalitions, negotiating, compromising, seeking consensus, and managing conflict. These skills can and should be developed within and outside the classroom. For example, students can visit their local city hall to learn about municipal government, invite local lawmakers to the classroom to explain the legislative process, or visit a courtroom to learn about the judiciary.

Economics

Economics is a method for choosing how to develop, use, and distribute limited resources—natural resources, human capital, and physical capital—to promote growth, distribute production, and protect citizens. Economics helps individuals and societies achieve their goals efficiently by making reasoned decisions. The study of economics provides students with necessary concepts, tools, and ways of thinking that help them understand the interactions between buyers and sellers, exchange and markets, how national and global economies work, and the impact of governmental actions on both the economy as a whole and individual citizens (NCSS 2013).

Since cost-benefit analysis is a skill that the standards suggest should be taught from kindergarten through twelfth grade, it bears some explanation. Although there are many different versions of the term, cost-benefit analysis is simply looking at goals and the resources that are available to meet those goals, evaluating the alternative methods to achieve the goals in terms of advantages and disadvantages of each alternative, selecting one (the choice), and giving up the best alternative not selected (the opportunity cost). Students should understand that their goals need not be monetary. In fact, most goals are not monetary.

In kindergarten through grade three, children’s literature is an appropriate way for students to learn the basic economic concepts and skills of cost-benefit analysis, human resources, and to view school as an investment in human capital.

In the fourth through eleventh grades, students should hone their cost-benefit analysis skills, deepen their understanding of the importance of education in developing human capital, and develop a greater understanding of the tools of

economic analysis through historical examples. The decisions made by the people who came to California during the Gold Rush (HSS 4.3); the goals of the maritime explorers (HSS 5.2); the impact of British legislation on colonial jobs and income (HSS 5.5); the reasons for and advantages of ancient trade (HSS 6.2–6.7); the evolution of feudalism to capitalism (HSS 7.6); the role of investment, innovation, new forms of organization, and entrepreneurship in promoting productivity and growth; the economics of the U.S. Constitution (HSS 8.3); the impact of the Industrial Revolution on everyday lives (HSS 10.3); and the impact of government to both support capitalism and increased productivity and protect citizens from its excesses are examples of how students learn and apply economic concepts and analytical skills.

The twelfth-grade course is meant to deepen students' ability to apply economic reasoning (cost-benefit analysis with the goal of making decisions yielding the best benefits for individuals and societies) to all aspects of their lives and to all current and historical events. In addition, it is meant to reinforce their understanding of product, labor, and financial markets, developed in historical context in grades four through eleven. Students learn how competition, incentives, property rights, and information influence markets and the results if those components are missing. They learn how incentives influence people's choices. They gain an ability to "read" the signs of the economy through an understanding of basic economic indicators, and they learn to evaluate government economic policies aimed at promoting growth or supporting individual citizens. In a global context and with a global perspective, students learn about labor and business organizations.

Financial literacy should be included in this course as examples of the economic concepts and analytical tools mentioned previously. For example, budgeting may be taught as an example of scarcity; job applications may be used as examples of human capital inventories; student loans are examples of investments in human capital development; use of credit cards may help explain the opportunity cost of interest and repayment; interest on credit may be taught as an example of price determination through supply and demand. Students should also learn about the personal economic challenges that they will face as adults (including the dangers of excessive debt and identity theft) and how to avoid those pitfalls. In any discussions of financial literacy, the economic concepts and tools of analysis must be clearly applied.

Economics is a framework for thinking about human behavior (Imazeki 2013). The California Council on Economic Education developed nine principles that can guide student learning of the following economic reasoning skills: 1. People choose. 2. Every choice has a cost. 3. Cost-benefit analysis is useful. 4. Incentives matter. 5. Exchange benefits the traders. 6. Markets work with competition, information, incentives, and property rights. 7. Skills and knowledge influence income. 8. Monetary and fiscal policies influence people’s choices. 9. Government policies have benefits and costs.

In addition to these nine principles, students also learn the importance of investment, innovation, and entrepreneurship in promoting growth and that economics is global and interdependent.

History–Social Science Literacy Development

Students learn to comprehend history and the social sciences through a variety of texts presented in history–social science programs as well as discussions, presentations, projects, and experiences. History–social science texts include primary-source documents, maps, secondary-source textbooks, literature, newspapers, journals, and blogs. Students learn to read information from contemporary sources as well as historical documents. History–social science and language arts will be integrated, when possible, as students write summaries, persuasive arguments, and reports. Students listen to teachers, classmates, guest speakers, and authentic recordings. They also answer questions orally, talk with partners about the content, make oral and visual presentations, and give public speeches. And finally, students interpret complex visual information. In other words, the learning of history–social science is language-based (Schleppegrell 2004). Students process information by reading, writing, speaking, listening, and viewing. Teachers can facilitate text comprehension by effectively teaching students to use discipline-specific literacy strategies (Schell and Fisher 2007).

When historians explain how and why historical events came about, they choose the information they want to present, decide how to organize the information, and select the appropriate words to construct the text. By doing an analysis of the text, students can uncover those choices and develop an awareness of how language shapes what is learned and known. This activity contributes to the

development of students' critical thinking skills as they become familiar with academic language and learn history content (Schleppegrell 2004).

In the history–social science classroom, teachers need to employ a systematic approach to engage their students in critical reading, identify the common genres of written history, question sources to draw historical conclusions, and write expository prose appropriate for the discipline. To support student reading comprehension, teachers provide students with the tools to understand unfamiliar discipline-specific vocabulary and break apart text to recognize text patterns and organization.

Moreover, given the literate nature of the history–social science disciplines, teachers provide specific instruction to support their students' writing ability in explanation and argument. Expository writing assignments not only support student literacy, they reveal what students know, allow teachers to see how students process new information, and provide a unique opportunity for students to apply analytical skills to create a deeper understanding of historical figures, events, place, and systems.

Students prepare to read by recognizing the features and purposes of a textbook, letter, newspaper article, diary entry, and the like. Teaching text features, such as the headings, subheadings, captions, glossary, table of contents, and index, will assist students in navigating, accessing, and consuming information in print.

As students become more familiar with the parts and organization of the text and pay closer attention to text features, including illustrations, charts, and sidebars, they also learn about the structural patterns that they will encounter in their readings of the main text. Over time, students become proficient at recognizing repetitive patterns of chronological sequence, concept definition, cause-and-effect, comparison and contrast, and problem and solution. Teaching these text structures, cue words, and examples is important for students at all grade levels.

Teachers carefully select documents that will engage their students in historical thinking, geographic practices, and economic reasoning. The teacher can introduce students to a wide array of primary sources that include written texts and letters; excerpts of speeches, diaries, and ledgers; visual materials such as photographs, paintings, maps, political cartoons, charts, and graphs; digital

materials; and oral histories. Some examples of these primary sources are described in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, while other examples are provided throughout this framework. Effective teachers find age-appropriate primary sources that reveal historical thinking (Wineburg 2001).

As part of the careful selection of appropriate complex text, teachers play a critical role in ensuring that all students engage meaningfully with and learn from the challenging text. Instruction should include appropriate levels of scaffolding and strategies based on students' needs for the text and tasks. Teaching practices that illustrate this type of instruction and scaffolding include leveraging background knowledge; teaching comprehension strategies, vocabulary, text organization, and language features; structuring discussions; sequencing texts and tasks appropriately; rereading the same text for different purposes, including location evidence for interpretations or understandings; using tools, such as text diagrams and student-made outlines; and teaching writing in response to text. Figure 21.1 provides guidance for supporting learners' engagement with complex text in these areas, along with additional considerations critical for meeting the needs of linguistically diverse learners, including ELs and Standard English learners.

FIGURE 21.1. Strategies for Supporting Learners' Engagement with Complex Text

Strategies	Teachers support all students' understanding of complex text by. . .	Additional, amplified or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include. . .
Background Knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Leveraging students' existing background knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Drawing on primary language and home culture to make connections with existing background knowledge ■ Developing students' awareness that their background knowledge may <i>live</i> in another language or culture
Comprehension Strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Teaching and modeling, through thinking aloud and explicit reference to strategies, how to make meaning from the text using specific reading comprehension strategies (e.g., questioning, visualizing) ■ Providing multiple opportunities to employ learned comprehension strategies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Emphasizing a clear focus on the goal of reading as meaning making (with fluent decoding an important skill) while ELs are still learning to communicate through English

Figure 21.1. (continued)

Strategies	Teachers support all students' understanding of complex text by. . .	Additional, amplified or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include. . .
Vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Explicitly teaching vocabulary critical to understanding and developing academic vocabulary over time ■ Explicitly teaching how to use morphological knowledge and context clues to derive the meaning of new words as they are encountered 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Explicitly teaching particular cognates and developing cognate awareness ■ Making morphological relationships between languages transparent (e.g., word endings for nouns in Spanish, <i>-dad, -ión, ía, encia</i>) that have English counterparts (<i>-ty, -tion/-sion, -y, -ence/-ency</i>)
Text Organization and Grammatical Structures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Explicitly teaching and discussing text organization, text features, and other language resources, such as grammatical structures (e.g., complex sentences) and how to analyze them to support comprehension 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Delving deeper into text organization and grammatical features in texts that are new or challenging and necessary to understand in order to build content knowledge ■ Drawing attention to grammatical differences between the primary language and English (e.g., word order differences)
Discussions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Engaging students in peer discussions—both brief and extended—to promote collaborative sense making of text and opportunities to use newly acquired vocabulary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Structuring discussions that promote equitable participation, academic discourse, and the strategic use of new grammatical structures and specific vocabulary

Figure 21.1. (continued)

Strategies	Teachers support all students' understanding of complex text by. . .	Additional, amplified or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include. . .
Sequencing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Systematically sequencing texts and tasks so that they build upon one another ■ Continuing to model close/analytical reading of complex texts during teacher read-alouds while also ensuring students build proficiency in reading complex texts themselves 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Focusing on the language demands of texts, particularly those that may be especially difficult for ELs ■ Carefully sequencing tasks to build understanding and effective use of the language in texts
Rereading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Rereading the text or selected passages to look for answers to questions or to clarify points of confusion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Rereading the text to build understanding of ideas and language incrementally (e.g., beginning with literal comprehension questions on initial readings and moving to inferential and analytical comprehension questions on subsequent reads) ■ Repeated exposure to rich language over time, focusing on particular language (e.g., different vocabulary) during each reading

Strategies	Teachers support all students' understanding of complex text by. . .	Additional, amplified or differentiated support for linguistically diverse learners may include. . .
Tools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Teaching students to develop outlines, charts, diagrams, graphic organizers, or other tools to summarize and synthesize content ■ Teaching students to annotate text (mark text and make notes) for specific elements (e.g., confusing vocabulary, main ideas, evidence) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Explicitly modeling how to use the outlines or graphic organizers to analyze/discuss a model text and providing guided practice for students before they use the tools independently ■ Using the tools as a scaffold for discussions or writing
Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Teaching students to return to the text as they write in response to the text and providing them with models and feedback 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Providing opportunities for students to talk about their ideas with a peer before (or after) writing ■ Providing written language models (e.g., charts of important words or powerful sentences) ■ Providing reference frames (e.g., sentence, paragraph, and text organization frames), as appropriate

Source: *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools* (ELA/ELD Framework), pp. 75–76.

To become broadly literate, students need to read regularly and frequently as a part of classroom instruction. High-quality instructional materials for each content area should provide appropriate reading selections. In addition, teachers and teacher librarians work together to develop classroom and library collections of books that support all content areas and genres—literary and informational. See figure 21.2 for the range of text types that students should experience.

FIGURE 21.2. Range of Text Types

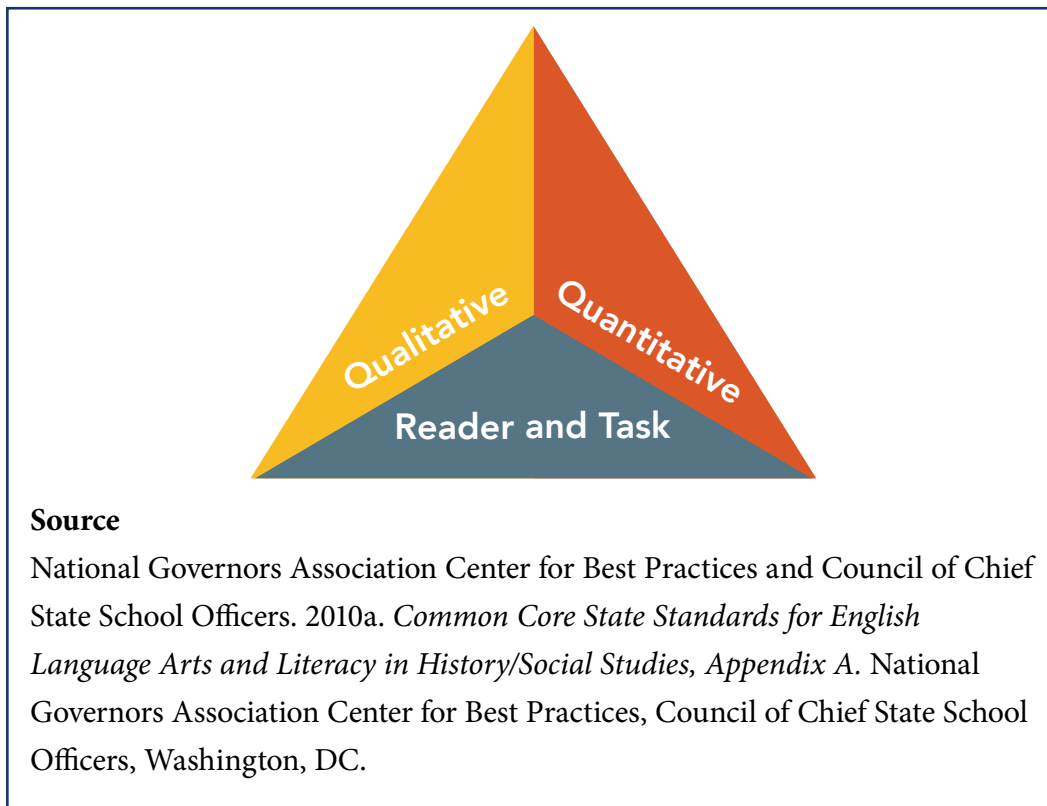
Grade Span	Literature			Informational Text
	Stories	Drama	Poetry	Literary, Nonfiction and Historical, Scientific, and Technical Texts
K-5	Includes children’s adventure stories, folktales, legends, fables, fantasy, realistic fiction, and myths.	Includes staged dialogue and brief familiar scenes.	Includes nursery rhymes and the subgenres of the narrative poem, limerick, and free verse poem.	Includes biographies and autobiographies; books about history, social studies, science, and the arts; technical texts, including directions, forms, and the information displayed in graphs, charts, or maps; and digital sources on a range of topics.

Figure 21.2. (continued)

6–12	Includes the subgenres of adventure stories, historical fiction, mysteries, myths, science fiction, realistic fiction, allegories, parodies, satire, and graphic novels.	Includes classical through contemporary one-act and multi-act plays, both in written form and on film, and works by writers representing a broad range of literary periods and cultures.	Includes classical through contemporary works and the subgenres of narrative poems, lyrical poems, free verse poems, sonnets, odes, ballads, and epics by writers representing a broad range of literary periods and cultures.	Includes the subgenres of exposition, argument, and functional text in the form of personal essays, speeches, opinion pieces, essays about art or literature, biographies, memoirs, journalism, and historical, scientific, technical, or economic accounts (including digital sources) written for a broad audience.
------	--	--	--	---

Source: *ELA/ELD Framework*, p. 56.

Text complexity may be difficult to determine and involves subjective judgments by expert teachers who know their students. A three-part model for determining the complexity of a particular text is described by the National Governors Association and Council of Chief State School Officers (NGA/CCSSO) in appendix A of the CCSS for ELA/Literacy for annotations of the complexity of several texts. Teachers consider (1) qualitative dimensions, (2) quantitative dimensions, and (3) the reader and task. Figure 21.3 represents the three dimensions. See appendix A of the CCSS for ELA/Literacy for annotations of the complexity of several texts.

FIGURE 21.3. The Standards' Model of Text Complexity

Qualitative dimensions refer to those aspects of text complexity best measured or measurable only by an attentive human reader. They include levels of meaning (literary texts) or purpose (informational text). For example, *The Giving Tree* by Shel Silverstein is not just about a tree, and *Animal Farm* by George Orwell is not just about animals. Qualitative dimensions depend on text structure, language conventionality and clarity, and knowledge demands. Texts that make assumptions about readers' life experiences, cultural/literary knowledge, and content/discipline knowledge are generally more complex than those that do not. For example, a text that refers to a Sisyphean task or Herculean effort assumes that readers are familiar with Greek and Roman mythology. More detail is provided about each of these qualitative factors in figure 21.4.

FIGURE 21.4 Qualitative Dimensions of Text Complexity

Levels of Meaning (in Literary Texts) or Purpose (in informational texts)

- Single level of meaning → Multiple levels of meaning
- Explicitly stated purpose → Implicit purpose, may be hidden or obscure

Structure

- Simple → Complex
- Explicit → Implicit
- Conventional → Unconventional (chiefly literary texts)
- Events related in chronological order → Events related out of chronological order (chiefly literary texts)
- Traits of a common genre or subgenre → Traits specific to a particular discipline (chiefly informational texts)
- Simple graphics → Sophisticated graphics
- Graphics unnecessary or merely supplementary to understanding the text → Graphics essential to understanding the text and may provide information not otherwise conveyed in the text

Language Conventionality and Clarity

- Literal → Figurative or ironic
- Clear → Ambiguous or purposefully misleading
- Contemporary, familiar → Archaic or otherwise unfamiliar
- Conversational → General academic and domain-specific

Knowledge Demands: Life Experiences (Literary Texts)

- Simple theme → Complex or sophisticated themes
- Single themes → Multiple themes
- Common, everyday experiences or clearly fantastical situations → Experiences distinctly different from one's own
- Single perspective → Multiple perspectives

Figure 21.4. (continued)

- Perspective(s) like one's own → Perspective(s) unlike or in opposition to one's own

Knowledge Demands: Cultural/Literary Knowledge (chiefly literary texts)

- Everyday knowledge and familiarity with genre conventions required → Cultural and literary knowledge useful
- Low intertextuality (few if any references/allusions to other texts) → High intertextuality (many references/allusions to other texts)

Knowledge Demands: Content/Discipline Knowledge (chiefly informational texts)

- Everyday knowledge and familiarity with genre conventions required → Extensive, perhaps specialized discipline-specific content knowledge required
- Low intertextuality (few if any references to/citations of other texts) → High intertextuality (many references to/citations of other texts)

Source

Excerpted from

National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Council of Chief State School Officers (NGA/CCSSO). 2010a. *Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies*, Appendix A, 6. National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers, Washington DC.

Quantitative dimensions refer to those aspects of text complexity, such as word length or frequency, sentence length, and text cohesion, that are difficult if not impossible for a human reader to evaluate efficiently, especially in long texts, and are thus today typically measured by computer software. Figure 21.5 displays an updated chart of text complexity by grade bands and associated ranges of complexity. However, the scores in figure 21.5 may be misleading. Quantitative factors are not appropriate for determining the complexity of some types of text, such as poetry and drama, nor are they appropriate with kindergarten and grade one texts.

Exemplar texts are listed in appendix B of the CCSS for ELA/Literacy by grade span; however, Hiebert (2012/2013) indicates that the range of texts on the lists varies and recommends further analysis to identify texts appropriate to the beginning, middle, and end of each grade, especially for grades two and three. Furthermore, Hiebert and Mesmer (2013, 45) argue that text levels at the middle and high school “have decreased over the past 50 years, not the texts of the primary grades.” They warn against the possible unintended consequences of accelerating the complexity levels of text at grades two and three.

Caveats aside, the aim of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy is to increase the rigor and intellectual challenge of texts that students can successfully navigate so that by the end of grade twelve, all students will be prepared for the demands of college and career and have the skills to engage deeply with challenging literature for personal satisfaction and enjoyment. The *ELA/ELD Framework* promotes a steady progression of complexity through the grades as mediated by knowledgeable and effective teachers. Hiebert (2012) recommends seven key actions for teachers in considering text:

- Focus on knowledge
- Create connections
- Activate students’ passion
- Develop vocabulary
- Increase the volume
- Build up stamina
- Identify benchmarks

FIGURE 21.5. Updated Text Complexity Grade Bands and Associated Ranges from Multiple Measures (from Supplemental Information for Appendix A of the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy: New Research on Text Complexity)

Common Core Band	ATOS*	Degrees of Reading Power®	Flesch Kincaid 8	The Lexile Framework®	Reading Maturity	Source-Rater
2nd–3rd	2.75–5.14	42–54	1.98–5.34	420–820	3.53–6.13	0.05–2.48
4th–5th	4.97–7.03	52–60	4.51–7.73	740–1010	5.42–7.92	0.84–5.75
6th–8th	7.00–9.98	57–67	6.51–10.34	925–1185	7.04–9.57	4.11–10.66
9th–10th	9.67–12.01	62–72	8.32–12.12	1050–1335	8.41–10.81	9.02–13.93
11th–CCR	11.20–14.10	67–74	10.34–14.2	1185–1385	9.57–12.00	12.30–14.50
*Renaissance Learning						

Source: *ELA/ELD Framework*, p. 73.

Vocabulary is essential to student performance in content area reading. Learning vocabulary is facilitated by frequent engagement with new words in meaningful contexts that teaches students how words are conceptually related. Merely hearing language is not enough for students to learn academic language. They must produce it by speaking and writing it (Beck, McKeown, and Kucan 2002; Biemiller 1999; Corson 1995). Nagy (1988) argues that successful vocabulary instruction consists of three critical components: (1) integration, or connecting new vocabulary to prior knowledge; (2) repetition, or using/encountering the new word several times; and (3) meaningful use, or multiple opportunities to use new vocabulary in reading, writing, and discussion.

In other words, students benefit from instruction that introduces them to vocabulary before reading, supports vocabulary development during reading, and

Example (*continued*)

provides them with many opportunities to practice the use of their new vocabulary after reading. Teachers may pre-assess students for their background knowledge of the lesson's content and vocabulary in order to determine what needs to be learned, further developed, and/or unlearned (misconceptions). In addition, before students read the text and in order to prepare them for understanding it, it is important for students to begin learning about the selected vocabulary terms in context. Because teachers do not want to overwhelm students with a long list of vocabulary terms before reading, they must consider the purpose for introducing or reviewing essential vocabulary, which may be specific to the lesson (content vocabulary) or general academic terms related to history–social science and other academic subjects (academic vocabulary). For example, a lesson on ancient India may include content vocabulary terms, such as *subcontinent*, *raja*, *Sanskrit*, and *guru*, as well as academic vocabulary terms, such as *region*, *leader*, *language*, and *spiritual*. More on vocabulary instruction can be found in chapter 20 on universal access and equality.

Deciding which words to teach is important. Figure 21.6 displays a model for conceptualizing categories of words (Beck, McKeown, and Kucan 2013). The levels, or tiers, range in terms of commonality and applicability of words. Conversational, or Tier One, words are the most frequently occurring words with the broadest applicability. Domain-specific, or Tier Three, words are the least frequently occurring with the narrowest applicability.

Most children acquire conversational vocabulary without much teacher support, although explicit instruction in this corpus of words may need to be provided to some ELs, depending on their experience using and exposure to conversational English. Domain-specific, or Tier Three, words—crucial for knowledge acquisition in the content areas—are typically taught in the context of the discipline; definitions are often provided by both the texts and teacher. Target words are used repeatedly, and additional support for understanding, such as diagrams or glossary entries, is offered. General academic, or Tier Two, words are considered by some to be the words most in need of attention (Beck, McKeown, and Kucan 2013; appendix A, 33, in NGA/CCSSO 2010). Tier Two words impact meaning, yet they are not likely to be defined in text. They appear in many types of texts and contexts, sometimes changing meaning in different disciplines. Teachers make vital decisions about which words to teach.

FIGURE 21.6. Categories of Vocabulary

Vocabulary	Definition	Examples
Conversational (Tier One)	Words of everyday use	<i>happy, dog, run, family, boy, play, water</i>
General Academic (Tier Two)	Words that are far more likely to appear in text than in everyday use, are highly generalizable because they appear in many types of texts, and often represent precise or nuanced meanings of relatively common things	<i>develop, technique, disrupt, fortunate, frightening, enormous, startling, strolled, essential</i>
Domain-Specific (Tier Three)	Words that are specific to a domain or field of study and key to understanding a new concept	<i>equation, place value, germ, improvisation, tempo, percussion, landform, thermometer</i>

Source: *ELA/ELD Framework*, p. 81.

Graphic organizers, such as Venn diagrams, concept maps, semantic webs, compare-and-contrast charts, and cause-and-effect charts, help students transform information and vocabulary presented in texts. Students use careful thought and planning, as well as rereading and critical thinking, to graphically represent and summarize information (words, concepts, ideas) presented through text or lecture. Teachers must select appropriate graphic organizers to meet specific goals and objectives. For example, a lesson on family history, the development of a community, or the events leading to the American Revolution may require a flowchart or storyboard, which places events in a sequential (although, not necessarily linear) order. If the lesson focuses on the characteristics of a culture or a good leader or the parts of a neighborhood, it would make sense to use a cluster or web for a graphic organizer, which identifies parts of a topic.

Throughout the history–social science curriculum, students are exposed to a variety of writings from and about people and events of the past, including biographies and autobiographies. Writing-to-learn strategies are effectively integrated throughout lessons as well because the process of writing actually helps

students process and solidify the information they learn. In summarizing, for instance, the writer must decide what information to delete, what to substitute, and what to keep, requiring analysis at a fairly deep level (Marzano, Pickering, and Pollock 2001).

From notetaking to writing prompts, students can record information, thoughts, questions, and opinions to enhance their understandings and engagement with the material. Preassessments may be made by using quick-writes or anticipation guides to identify each student's background knowledge about particular topics that will be presented in the lesson or unit. Post-assessments may take more formal forms of expository writing, such as historical arguments and explanation, the two most privileged forms of writing, where students are asked to marshal evidence to support a thesis. Teachers may also use speeches, brochures, letters, and poetry to both deepen student understanding and assess learning. Furthermore, to address the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy in grades six through twelve, teachers should have students write routinely over extended and shorter time frames for a range of tasks, purposes, and audiences.

Working with expository text, teachers can help students develop the necessary reading comprehension skills in order to make sense of the complex and often abstract concepts and events common to the study of history and the related social sciences. These skills do not develop on their own, however. Teachers must explicitly teach students how to break apart text to make meaning. Teachers instruct students how text is organized to achieve different goals and how this organization should guide their close reading. Students need to learn how to create strong thesis statements and to extract relevant and important supporting details to support their thesis. Through a discipline-specific approach to text, students can deepen their understanding of the history–social science disciplines, engage in critical thinking, and develop academic literacy that will support their continued growth and development.

Beyond responding to text-dependent questions orally and in writing, students learn to present evidence in their writing and oral presentations to support arguments and demonstrate a clear analysis of their reading and research. Students exercise their critical thinking skills, which are tied to twenty-first century learning, to sort through large quantities of information available via technology and determine their credibility. Their aim is to cite evidence that is clear and

logical and that argues powerfully for their point of view. Figure 21.7 presents typical functions of text-dependent questions and a process for developing them.

FIGURE 21.7. Text-Dependent Questions

Typical text dependent questions ask students to perform one or more of the following tasks:

- Analyze paragraphs on a sentence by sentence basis and sentences on a word by word basis to determine the role played by individual paragraphs, sentences, phrases, or words.
- Investigate how meaning can be altered by changing key words and why an author may have chosen one word over another.
- Probe each argument in persuasive text, each idea in informational text, each key detail in literary text, and observe how these build to a whole.
- Examine how shifts in the direction of an argument or explanation are achieved and the impact of those shifts.
- Question why authors choose to begin and end when they do.
- Note and assess patterns of writing and what they achieve.
- Consider what the text leaves uncertain or unstated.

The following seven steps may be used for developing questions:

1. Identify the core understandings and key ideas of the text.
2. Start small to build confidence.
3. Target vocabulary and text structure.
4. Tackle tough sections head-on.
5. Create coherent sequences of text-dependent questions.
6. Identify the standards that are being addressed.
7. Create the culminating assessment.

Source

Student Achievement Partners. 2013. "A Guide to Creating Text-Dependent Questions for Close Analytic Reading." *Achieve the Core*.

Academic Conversations

Because well-organized classroom conversations can enhance academic performance (Applebee 1996; Applebee et al. 2003; Cazden 2001; Nystrand 2006), students should have multiple opportunities *daily* to engage in academic conversations about text with a range of peers. Some conversations will be brief, and others will involve sustained exchanges. Kamil et al. (2008, 21) assert “discussions that are particularly effective in promoting students’ comprehension of complex text are those that focus on building a deeper understanding of the author’s meaning or critically analyzing and perhaps challenging the author’s conclusions through reasoning or applying personal experiences and knowledge.”

In the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, College and Career Readiness, Anchor Standard 1 in Speaking and Listening underscores the importance of these collaborations and requires students to “prepare for and participate effectively in a range of conversations and collaborations with diverse partners, building on others’ ideas and expressing their own clearly and persuasively.”

Some students may be unfamiliar with the language necessary to engage in some school tasks. These tasks may include participating in a debate about a controversial topic, writing an explanation, taking a stand in a discussion and supporting it with evidence, comprehending a historical account, or critiquing a story or novel. The language used in these tasks varies based on the discipline, topic, mode of communication, and even the relationship between the people interacting around the task. As they progress through the grades from the early elementary years and into secondary schooling and the language demands of academic tasks in school increase, all students continually need to develop a facility with interpreting and using academic English. Figure 21.8 discusses the concept of academic language in more detail.

FIGURE 21.8. Academic Language

Academic language broadly refers to the language used in school to help students develop content knowledge and to convey their understandings of this knowledge. It is different than the type of English used in informal, or everyday, social interactions. For example, the way we describe a movie to a

Figure 21.8. (continued)

friend is different from the way a movie review is written for a newspaper. These two communicative acts or texts have different audiences and purposes (to persuade someone to do something versus to entertain and inform readers). Similarly, the text structure and organization of an oral argument is different than that of a written review because the purpose is different.

There are some features of academic English that are common across disciplines, such as general academic vocabulary (e.g., *evaluate, infer, resist*), but there is also variation based on the discipline, such as domain-specific vocabulary (e.g., *decades, frontier*). However, academic English encompasses much more than vocabulary. In school or other academic settings, students choose particular ways of using language or language resources to meet the expectations of the people with whom they interact or the academic tasks they are assigned. Although these language resources include vocabulary, they also include ways of combining clauses to show relationships between ideas, expanding sentences to add precision or detail, or organizing texts in cohesive ways. Language resources enable students to make meaning and achieve specific purposes (e.g., persuading, explaining, entertaining, describing) with different audiences in discipline-specific ways.

From this perspective, language is a meaning-making resource, and *academic English* encompasses discourse practices, text structures, grammatical structures, and vocabulary—all inseparable from meaning (Bailey and Huang 2011; Wong-Fillmore and Fillmore 2012; Schleppegrell 2004; Snow and Uccelli 2009). As indicated, academic English shares characteristics across disciplines (it is densely packed with meaning, authoritatively presented, and highly structured) but is also highly dependent upon disciplinary content (Christie and Derewianka 2008; Derewianka and Jones 2012; Moje 2010; Schleppegrell 2004).

Not all children come to school equally prepared to engage with academic English. However, all students can learn academic English, use it to achieve success in academic tasks across the disciplines, and build upon it to prepare for college and careers. Attending to how students can use the language

Figure 21.8. *(continued)*

resources of academic English to make meaning and achieve particular social purposes is critically important. Deep knowledge about how language works allows students to

- Represent their experiences and express their ideas effectively;
- Interact with a broader variety of audiences; and
- Structure their messages intentionally and purposefully in order to achieve particular purposes.

For more on the characteristics of academic English, see chapter five of the CA ELD Standards (CDE 2014).

Source: *ELA/ELD Framework*, p. 80.

“Such plentiful occasions for talk—about content, structure and rhetorical stance—cultivate students’ curiosity, motivation, and engagement; develop their thinking through sharing ideas with others, and prepare them to participate fully in [college]-level academic work” (Katz and Arellano 2013, 47). Other purposes of academic conversations include promoting independent literacy practices and encouraging multiple perspectives. “When students are able to ‘make their thinking visible’ (Schoenbach, Greenleaf, and Murphy 2012) to one another (and become aware of it themselves) through substantive discussions, they eventually begin to take on the academic ‘ways with words’ (Heath 1983) they see classmates and teachers skillfully using” (Katz and Arellano 2013, 47).

Being productive members of academic conversations “requires that students contribute accurate, relevant information; respond to and develop what others have said; make comparisons and contrasts; and analyze and synthesize a multitude of ideas in various domains” (CDE 2013, 26). Learning to do this requires instructional attention. Educators should teach students how to engage in discussion by modeling and providing feedback and guiding students to reflect on and evaluate their discussions. In the history–social science class, students should have ample opportunities to discuss controversial topics like proposed legislation, disputed government policies, and popular social movements. Teachers should facilitate these discussions judiciously by structuring the discussions strategically to avoid offending students and promote a culture of civic discourse.

Although academic vocabulary is a critical aspect of academic English, it is only one part. Language is a social process and a meaning-making system, and grammatical structures and vocabulary interact to form registers that vary depending on context and situation (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004). Furthermore, discourse structures or the organization of texts differ by discipline. Advanced English proficiency hinges on the mastery of a set of academic registers used in academic settings and texts that “construe multiple and complex meanings at all levels and in all subjects of schooling” (Schleppegrell 2009, 1). Figure 21.9 presents the concept of register in more detail.

FIGURE 21.9. Understanding Register

Register refers to the ways in which grammatical and lexical resources are combined to meet the expectations of the context (i.e., the content area, topic, audience, and mode in which the message is conveyed). In this sense, “register variation” (Schleppegrell 2012) depends on what is happening (the content), who the communicators are and what their relationship is (e.g., peer-to-peer, expert-to-peer), and how the message is conveyed (e.g., written, spoken, or other format). More informal or “spoken-like” registers might include chatting with a friend about a movie or texting a relative. More formal or “written-like” *academic* registers might include writing an essay for history class, participating in a debate about a scientific topic, or providing a formal oral presentation about a work of literature. The characteristics of these academic registers, which are critical for school success, include specialized and technical vocabulary, sentences and clauses that are densely packed with meaning and combined in purposeful ways, and whole texts that are highly structured and cohesive in ways dependent upon the disciplinary area and social purpose (Christie and Derewianka 2008; Halliday and Matthiessen 2004; O’Dowd 2010; Schleppegrell 2004).

Many students often find it challenging to move from more everyday or informal registers of English to more formal academic registers. Understanding and gaining proficiency with academic registers and the language resources that build them opens up possibilities for expressing ideas and understanding the world. From this perspective, teachers who understand the lexical, grammatical, and discourse features of academic English and how to make

Figure 21.9. *(continued)*

these features explicit to their students in purposeful ways that build both linguistic and content knowledge are in a better position to help their students fulfill their linguistic and academic potential.

Teaching about the grammatical patterns found in specific disciplines has been shown to help students with their reading comprehension and writing proficiency. The aims are to help students become more conscious of how language is used to construct meaning in different contexts and to provide them with a wider range of linguistic resources. Knowing how to make appropriate language choices will enable students to comprehend and construct meaning in oral and written texts. Accordingly, instruction should focus on the language features of the academic texts students read and are expected to write in school (e.g., arguments, explanations, narratives). Instruction should also support students' developing awareness of and proficiency in using the language features of these academic registers (e.g., how ideas are condensed in science texts through nominalization, how arguments are constructed by connecting clauses in particular ways, or how agency is hidden in history texts by using the passive voice) so that they can better comprehend and create academic texts (Brisk 2012; Gebhard et al. 2011; Fang and Schleppegrell 2010; Gibbons 2008; Hammond 2006; Rose and Acevedo 2006; Schleppegrell and de Oliveira 2006; Spycher 2007).

Source: *ELA/ELD Framework*, p. 83.

Promoting rich classroom conversations requires planning and preparation. Teachers need to consider the physical environment of the classroom, including the arrangement of seating; routines for interaction, including behavioral norms and ways for students to build on one another's ideas; scaffolds, such as sentence starters or sentence frames; effective questioning, including the capacity to formulate and respond to good questions; flexible grouping; and structures for group work that encourages all students to participate equitably. Figure 21.10 provides a sample approach to support academic conversations in a history–social science classroom.

FIGURE 21.10 Academic Conversations

“As the “discussion starter” in a Common-Core aligned history lesson, the young man struggles to start. The teacher prompts, there is a long pause, the student asks his group “Can you clarify the part about . . . ,” another long pause while a different student turns to the text to find evidence and formulate an answer, another student chimes in, the conversation builds, and a document-based conversation about industrialization emerges. The conversation gains momentum and peaks with “I think we got it!” and concludes with a group-generated statement about why the topic addressed in the text is important.

Eleventh-grade teacher Jessica Williams, a teacher leader from Winters Unified School District and the UC Davis History Project, has been on a quest to improve her students’ academic conversation skills for several years. The conversation described above is one of many she has recorded in her classroom as she refines her approach. Jessica wanted her students to have deeper conversations when they discussed documents and prepared to build and defend arguments, and she recognized their need to build and practice oral fluency with academic language in line with the Common Core State Standards.

At first, Jessica had her students make regular use of a set of sentence frames packaged neatly in a foldable book. She found this provided some help to her students, but that many “grew out” of the frames midyear. She was also dissatisfied with the shallow conversations the frames seemed to yield. Students were not having the collaborative discussions described in CCSS Speaking and Listening anchor standard 1.¹ Jessica was experiencing what other educators have documented: frames can guide students as they begin to practice with academic language, but frames alone are not sufficient.²

1. Prepare for and participate effectively in a range of conversations and collaborations with diverse partners, building on others’ ideas and expressing their own clearly and persuasively.

2. Jeff Zwiers and Marie Crawford address this problem in their book *Academic Conversations, Classroom Talk That Fosters Critical Thinking and Content Understandings*.

Figure 21.10. (continued)

As she prepared to tackle the problem of classroom discourse anew, Jessica was especially focused on helping her students build capacity to “propel conversations.”³ Jessica created three conversation skill pairings, which she calls “discussion starters,” based on Zwiers and Crawford’s Five Core Skills of Academic Conversation (see figure 21.11). She also identified four conversation scenarios (see figure 21.12) that would best support what students are required to do in her history classes—analyze historical evidence and build historical arguments based on that evidence.

The purpose of the discussion starters was to provide scaffolds for what she calls “emerging academic conversationalists.” She thought it might be overwhelming to provide students with all possible angles in one conversation at once, which is why she decided to have them start by practicing two at a time. Her goal is to immerse students in increasingly complex discussion practice, then reduce, or even eliminate the scaffolds. The discussion starters are still sets of discussion frames; however, they are combined purposefully with conversation scenarios designed to help students propel the conversation forward. Ultimately, Jessica wants to see her students analyze primary sources to understand what they reveal about an historical event, and develop claims and counterclaims supported by evidence.”

Figure 21.11. These starters can be copied, folded in half, cut apart, and laminated to create two-sided cards with one half of the conversation on one side and the other half on the other side.

Source: “Conversations in the Common Core Classroom,” by Letty Kraus, in *The Source*, pp. 26–30, a publication of the California History-Social Science Project. Copyright © 2015, Regents of the University of California.

3. See the CCSS Speaking and Listening Standards in California Department of Education, *California Common Core Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (Sacramento: California Department of Education, 2013), 68.

FIGURE 21.11. Discussion Starters

ASK A CLARIFYING QUESTION	ELABORATING ON AN IDEA
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ I have a question about . . . ■ Can you elaborate on the . . . ? ■ What does _____ mean by . . . ? ■ Can you clarify the part about . . . ? ■ I understand . . . , but I want to know . . . ■ I am a little confused about . . . ■ Something else I'd like to know is . . . ■ Could you please . . . <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ repeat that? ○ explain what _____ means? ○ give me an example of _____? ○ explain your idea in more detail? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ I think it means . . . ■ It seems to me that . . . ■ In other words,... ■ I interpreted that to mean . . . ■ What I understood was . . . ■ More specifically, it is . . . because . . . ■ Another point about that is . . . ■ It is important because . . . ■ Here is a different way to think about that . . . ■ It is also important to remember . . . ■ We should consider the idea about...

Figure 21.11. (continued)

SYNTHESIZE	BUILD ON AN IDEA
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Overall, we can say that . . . ■ The main point seems to be . . . ■ As a result of this conversation, we think that . . . ■ A summary of our evidence might be . . . ■ When we consider all the evidence . . .The evidence seems to suggest . . . ■ The question is asking_____. ■ What key ideas can we take away? ■ What points can we share? ■ What can we agree on? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Another example is _____. ■ I'd like to add something. I would say that _____. ■ You made a good point when you said _____. I would also like to add . . . ■ Yes, but it's also true that _____. ■ I see what you're saying. That reminds me of _____. ■ Even though _____, I think _____. ■ Wouldn't that also mean _____? ■ As _____ already mentioned, _____. ■ If that is the case, then _____.

Figure 21.11. (continued)

SUPPORT YOUR THINKING	CHALLENGE AN IDEA
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The article/author states that _____. ■ _____ is/was an example of _____. ■ The text/information suggests/proves/shows that _____. ■ According to the author/text/data, it is clear that _____. ■ _____ is evidence that/proof of _____. ■ _____ validates/confirms/reinforces . . . ■ A close reading of _____ suggests/clarifies/reveals _____. ■ Based on the data/information from _____, we can assume that _____. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ I don't quite agree with your point about . . . ■ I have another way of looking at this. I think . . . ■ My idea is slightly different. I think . . . ■ I understand that . . . However, . . . ■ Although you may think . . ., my perspective is . . . ■ Some argue . . . But I disagree because . . . ■ On the other hand . . . ■ However . . . ■ While it may be true that . . . I think . . .

Source: "Conversations in the Common Core Classroom," by Letty Kraus, in *The Source*, pp. 26–30, a publication of the California History-Social Science Project. Copyright © 2015, Regents of the University of California.

FIGURE 21.12. Conversation Scenarios

What	Why	How
Clarify and Elaborate	Support analysis and discussion of textual evidence to develop understanding	<p>SIMPLE: one student, facilitate beginning the discussion with a clarifying question</p> <p>COMPLEX: a jigsaw, students start in home groups then move to expert groups to discuss and record understandings before moving back to home groups</p>
Stand and Synthesize	Review information from an activity, reading, lecture, or set of documents to demonstrate understanding	Students stand, pair up, and take turns synthesizing points or demonstrating listening by paraphrasing what they heard from their partner.
Support Claims and Debunk Counterclaims with a Written Script	Practice critical analysis of claims in an argument	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Students read a document set on their own, write a claim, and cite supporting evidence in several "Support Your Thinking" sentences. 2. Students pair up with one other student to share their claims and practicing challenging each other's ideas. Students add a written counterclaim to their original work.

Figure 21.12. (continued)

<p>Structured Academic Conversation (Uses various combinations of discussion starters.)</p>	<p>Build capacity for unstructured academic conversations</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Students are introduced to a historical investigation question. 2. Gather and discuss evidence and make claims based on that evidence. 3. Students are placed in groups of three and assigned the roles of conversationalist, coach, and recorder. 4. The conversationalists form the inner circle flanked by their two other team members. 5. The conversation is focused on the investigation question. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Conversationalists participate in the discussion first. ■ Discussion is interrupted by “coach meetings.” Coach provides feedback to conversationalist on how they’re doing in the discussion. ■ Recorder observes and records instances where the conversationalist asks questions, builds on ideas, supports thinking, or challenges ideas.
--	---	---

Source: “Conversations in the Common Core Classroom,” by Letty Kraus, in *The Source*, pp. 26–30, a publication of the California History-Social Science Project. Copyright © 2015, Regents of the University of California.

Teachers and students should consider how they could assess and build accountability for collaborative conversations. Possible tips to consider include the following:

- **Active Listening**—Students use eye contact, nodding, and posture to communicate attentiveness.

- **Meaningful Transitions**—Students link what they are about to say to what has just been said, relating it to the direction/purpose of the conversation.
- **Shared Participation**—All students share ideas and encourage tablemates to contribute.
- **Rigor and Risk**—Students explore original ideas, ask important questions that do not have obvious or easy answers, and look at the topic in new ways.
- **Focus on Prompt**—Students help each other remain focused on the key question, relating their assertions back to the prompt.
- **Textual/Evidentiary Specificity**—Students refer often and specifically to the text in question or to evidence that supports their claims.
- **Open-Minded Consideration of All Viewpoints**—Students are willing to alter initial ideas, adjust positions to accommodate others’ assertions, and “rethink” claims they have made.

These conversations may be assessed on a three-point rating scale (*clear competence, competence, little competence*) by the teacher and, as appropriate for their grade, the students.

21st Century Learning

All students need to acquire the cognitive, as well as social skills and dispositions, that will enable them to succeed in the dynamic, fast-paced, and complex world of the 21st century. Recognizing the challenges of the decades ahead, various education, business, and government groups identified sets of skills and dispositions deemed critical for the success of individuals in the pursuit of higher education and careers as well as for responsible citizenship—so-called *twenty-first century skills*.

The Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21) (<http://www.p21.org/>) is a national organization of educational nonprofits, foundations, and businesses that advocates 21st-century readiness for all students. Formed in 2002, the organization developed a framework for 21st century learning that consists of student outcomes and systems of support, the latter of which addresses standards and assessments, curriculum and instruction, professional development, and learning environments.

Student outcomes, presented in figure 21.13, are organized into four categories: (1) core subjects (e.g., English, mathematics, science, social science) and 21st century themes, (2) life and career skills, (3) learning and innovation skills, and (4) information, media, and technology skills. The California Department of Education joined the Partnership in 2013 and is integrating 21st century skills into all academic core content areas as well as career and technical education.

FIGURE 21.13. Student Outcomes Identified by the Partnership for 21st Century Skills

Core Subjects and 21st Century Interdisciplinary Themes	Life and Career Skills	Learning and Innovation Skills (The "4 Cs")	Information, Media, and Technology Skills
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Global awareness ■ Financial, economic, business, and entrepreneurial literacy ■ Civic literacy ■ Health literacy ■ Environmental literacy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Flexibility and adaptability ■ Initiative and self-direction ■ Social and cross-cultural skills ■ Productivity and accountability ■ Leadership and responsibility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Creativity and innovation ■ Critical thinking and problem solving ■ Communication and collaboration 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Information literacy ■ Media literacy ■ Information, communications, and technology literacy

Source: Partnership for 21st Century Skills 2011.

Strategies for English Learners

All teachers are responsible for ensuring that their EL students have full access to an intellectually rich and comprehensive history–social science curriculum and that each EL student makes steady progress in both their academic content learning and their English language development. With appropriate scaffolding

from their teachers and well-designed programs, ELs at all levels of English language proficiency are able to engage with intellectually challenging content and language-rich instruction so that they can develop the advanced levels of English necessary for college and career readiness and meaningful engagement with civic life.

To achieve these goals and to fully include ELs in history–social science instruction, *all teachers of ELs* should use the CA ELD Standards in tandem with the History–Social Science Content Standards and the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy. The ELA/ELD Framework uses the term *integrated ELD* to refer to ELD throughout the day and across the disciplines and includes snapshots of this integration.

All K–12 teachers who teach history–social science to ELs should ensure that ELs have full access to a robust curriculum and develop advanced levels of English in history–social science in a timely manner. This can be done only through careful lesson and unit planning (using the CA ELD Standards), observation of what students do and say during history–social science instruction, reflection on how ELs engage with particular approaches to instruction, and necessary refining and adjusting of instruction, based on observation and reflection. It is critical that schools and districts ensure EL students are not deprived of history–social science learning opportunities due to placement in an ELD class during “history–social science time.”⁴ Indeed, because of the focus on real people and events that may be relevant to students’ personal narratives, as well as other high-interest topics, and the potential for discussions rich in disciplinary language, history–social science classes are ideal learning environments for integrated English language development.

For this reason, history–social science teachers should work closely with site and district ELD specialists to ensure that their classrooms do indeed serve EL students in concert with an opportunity to learn history–social science. By the same token, ELD specialists should work closely with history–social science teachers to understand how to design and provide language instruction that is *in the service of* history–social science learning. Figure 21.14 presents one way a teacher helps her

4. For newcomer ELs in secondary school (ELs who are within their first year in U.S. schools, for example), a specially designed history–social science class that integrates ELD with history–social science learning may offer an equally rich history–social science learning experience.

students deconstruct a challenging sentence while she maintains meaning making as the primary goal.

FIGURE 21.14. Sentence Deconstruction Focusing on Structure and Meaning

Sentence: Broken into clauses	Analysis: Type of clause and how I know	Meaning: What it means
Although many countries are addressing pollution,	Dependent (subordinate clause) It starts with <i>although</i> , so it can't stand on its own. It <i>depends</i> on the other clause.	The clause gives credit to a lot of countries for doing something about pollution. Using the word <i>although</i> tells me that the rest of the sentence will show that what they are doing is not enough.
environmental degradation continues to create devastating human health problems each year.	Independent (main clause) It can stand on its own, even if I take the other clause away.	The clause has the most important information. Pollution keeps hurting a lot of people every year all over the world.

Source: *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools* (ELA/ELD Framework), p. 116.

ELs benefit from intentional and purposeful designated ELD instruction that builds into and from content instruction. The classroom example below illustrates how designated ELD can build from and into the types of lessons outlined in this chapter. It also illustrates how teachers can show their students how to deconstruct, or *unpack*, the language resources in complex texts in order to understand the meanings of sentences and the way language chosen by writers shapes these meanings.

Grade Eleven Classroom Example: Designated ELD Instruction Unpacking Sentences and Nominalization in Complex History Text

Background

English learners from different eleventh-grade English classes come together in Mr. Martinez’s designated ELD class, which is designed to support ELs who are relatively new to English. The students are at a range of English language proficiency levels, from late Emerging through early Expanding, and have been in U.S. schools for about two years. Some students spent their first year at a newcomer school where they participated in an intensive program specifically designed for high school students learning English as an additional language. Other students were placed directly in mainstream classes and in a designated ELD class like this one. All EL students at the school have a *zero period* where they take an elective, thereby extending their school day and ensuring that they can receive targeted language instruction without missing out on any content classes or electives, such as art and music, or after school activities, such as athletics.

Many of Mr. Martinez’s students are also in Ms. Robertson’s English class, but some are in other teachers’ English classes. Mr. Martinez works closely with the English teachers and other content area teachers to ensure that he understands the types of reading, writing, and conversation tasks expected of his EL students. He plans his instruction and designs lessons to support his students in developing disciplinary literacy so that they will be able to interact more meaningfully with texts and tasks in their content classes. He has asked the other teachers to provide him with information about the texts students are reading, writing, and discussing, so he can explicitly make connections to what they are studying in their other classes.

Lesson Context

Mr. Martinez frequently calls students’ attention to the stylistic choices authors make—“how style and content contribute to the power, persuasiveness, or beauty of the text” (RI.11–12.6). Paying particular attention to his ELs’ language learning needs, he uses the CA ELD Standards as focal standards for instruction. He wants to guide students to notice how writers strategically

Example (*continued*)

adopt particular language resources to convey their opinions or attitudes, sometimes in ways that may not be immediately evident.

In today's lesson, Mr. Martinez focuses on students unpacking sentences to understand them better and identify some of the language resources authors are using. He knows that his students are often challenged by the texts they are asked to read in their content classes. Some texts contain complex sentences and long noun phrases that are densely packed with meaning. Mr. Martinez has noticed that many of the complex texts contain *nominalizations*, which use a verb, an adjective, or an adverb as a noun, or as the head of a noun phrase. Typically expressed (in everyday language) by verbs (e.g., *destroy*) or adjectives (e.g., *strong*), in academic text they are often expressed as *things*, or nouns and noun phrases (e.g., *destroy* → *destruction*, *strong* → *strength*). He wants his students to learn how to tackle some of the linguistic features that can make sentences difficult to read (e.g., complex sentences, long noun phrases, nominalizations), so he plans to show them how they can analyze sentences. The learning target and cluster of CA ELD Standards in focus for today's lesson are presented below (Part I of the standards, grades eleven and twelve. The number of the standard follows).

Example *(continued)*

Learning Target: The students will *unpack* long sentences or break down long sentences and analyze how nominalization can affect an author’s message or reader’s interpretation of a text.

CA ELD Standards (Expanding): Part I.11–12.1 – *Contribute to class, group, and partner discussions, sustaining conversations on a variety of age and grade-appropriate academic topics by following turn-taking rules, asking and answering relevant, on-topic questions, affirming others, providing additional, relevant information, and paraphrasing key ideas; Part I.11–12.8 – Explain how a writer’s or speaker’s choice of phrasing or specific words produces nuances and different effects on the audience; Part I.11–12.12a – Use an increasing variety of grade-appropriate general academic and domain-specific academic words accurately and appropriately when producing increasingly complex written and spoken texts; Part II.11–12.7 – Condense ideas in a growing number of ways to create more precise and detailed simple, compound, and complex sentences.*

Lesson Excerpts

In today’s lesson, Mr. Martinez shows his students how to break down or *unpack* some of the sentences from *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee: An Indian History of the American West* by Dee Brown, which most students have started reading in their English classes. A few students have not yet begun reading the text because they are in other English classes, so he invites those who have started to read excerpts to provide an overview. To build background knowledge before analyzing the language of the text in more depth, he prompts those who are sharing to use particular words and phrases, such as “Cherokee Nation,” the “permanent Indian frontier,” and “removed.”

He tells students that they will look intensively at an excerpt that may seem quite challenging the first time they read it. He assures them, however, that with multiple readings, the meaning will become increasingly clear. He also promises to show them a helpful method for unpacking the meanings in particularly tricky sentences. He briefly explains some terms from the excerpt

Example *(continued)*

that he anticipates will be particularly challenging for students (e.g., *stages*, *decade*, *permanent*, *blotted out*, *rounded them up*). Next, he reads the excerpt aloud as students follow along, silently reading their own copies. When he models reading in this way, students are able to hear what the text sounds like, including Mr. Martinez’s pronunciation as well as his pauses and intonation. The excerpt he uses is the following:

The decade following the establishment of the “permanent Indian frontier” was a bad time for the eastern tribes. The great Cherokee nation had survived more than a hundred years of the white man’s wars, diseases, and whiskey, but now it was to be blotted out. Because the Cherokees numbered several thousands, their removal to the West was planned to be in gradual stages, but the discovery of Appalachian gold within their territory brought on a clamor for their immediate wholesale exodus. During the autumn of 1838, General Winfield Scott’s soldiers rounded them up and concentrated them into camps. (A few hundred escaped to the Smoky Mountains and many years later were given a small reservation in North Carolina.) From the prison camps they were started westward to Indian Territory.

After reading aloud, Mr. Martinez invites the students to share their understanding of the excerpt thus far with members of their table groups. Most of the students have already read this excerpt in their English class, and this brief discussion allows Mr. Martinez to listen and assess what students know and what language they use to convey their knowledge. After the brief discussion, he answers a few clarifying questions students pose, using the students’ primary language(s) as appropriate and possible (Mr. Martinez speaks Spanish and some Portuguese). This time, he asks students to read the excerpt aloud with him chorally. He tells them to focus on the literal meanings of the text as they read.

MR. MARTINEZ: Who thinks this text is challenging? I find it challenging, but I’m going to show you some helpful ways of attacking complex texts like this one. First of all, let’s talk a little bit about why this text seems difficult. What do you notice? (He listens as students comment.) Even in this short excerpt, the sentences have a lot of tightly packed information. For example, let’s just look at this long noun phrase: *The decade*

Example *(continued)*

following the establishment of the “permanent Indian frontier.”

Wow! That’s a lot of information crammed into a small amount of space. The main noun, or thing, in that phrase is *decade*, which means ten years, and everything around that word is providing more details and information about that decade.

Mr. Martinez then shows his students a technique for unpacking tricky sentences that contain long noun phrases such as the one he just highlighted. He uses the following procedure:

Sentence Unpacking Teaching Process

1. Choose a sentence from a text students have already read. Ensure that it is *a sentence that is critical for understanding the key meanings of the topic in the text.*
2. Model, through thinking aloud and using natural language, how to unpack the meanings of the sentence, teasing apart the densely-packed information into workable chunks.
3. Put the meanings back together (condense) in your own words (paraphrase), and compare your version with the original sentence.
4. Talk about the language resources used in the original sentence and why the author may have chosen them to convey these ideas.
5. Discuss how the sentence is structured and how this structure affects meaning (e.g., connects, condenses, combines, enriches, or expands ideas).
6. Return to the core meaning of the sentence to make sure that students retain it as the central focus.

Example (continued)

Mr. Martinez has prepared a chart for students to use when they “unpack” sentences:

Sentence Unpacking
<p>1. Unpack the sentence to get at all the meanings:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ <i>What is happening?</i> ■ <i>Who or what is involved?</i> ■ <i>What are the circumstances surrounding the action (when, where, in what ways)?</i> <p>2. Repackage (paraphrase) the meanings in your own words:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ <i>What does this sentence mean in my own words?</i> ■ <i>How can I condense my words to make the sentence more compact?</i> <p>3. Think more deeply about the original sentence:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ <i>What do I notice about the language the author chose to use?</i> ■ <i>How does this language make meanings in specific ways?</i>

He displays the sentence he will unpack using the document camera. Thinking aloud as he proceeds, he splits the sentence into its more meaningful clausal chunks and proceeds to write all the meanings he sees in the sentence in bullet points. The students watch and listen, and he invites them to ask questions when they are unclear about the language he uses.

Because the Cherokees numbered several thousands, their removal to the West was planned to be in gradual stages, but the discovery of Appalachian gold within their territory brought on a clamor for their immediate wholesale exodus.

- Numbered—There were lots of (several thousand) Cherokee Indians.
- Their removal—Someone was supposed to be removed from their lands. (the Cherokees?)

Example *(continued)*

- Gradual stages—They (the government?) were supposed to take the Cherokees to the West slowly over time.
- Because—There were several thousand Cherokees, so they were supposed to move them slowly.
- The discovery—People (the government?) discovered Appalachian gold on Cherokee land.
- Appalachian gold—People (the government?) wanted the gold from Appalachia.
- A clamor—People made a lot of noise about something.
- Immediate wholesale exodus—People (who?) told the government to move all the Cherokees off their land right away, now.

MR. MARTINEZ: So, you can see that there's a lot *packed into* that one sentence. When I'm reading a sentence like this, in my head, I'm *unpacking* the meanings in my own words, so I can understand it. Obviously, I'm not writing all of this down, but I wanted to show you what's going on in my head. After I've unpacked the sentence, I put all of those meanings back together again so I can get a better sense of what the author was trying to convey. What do you think this sentence is saying? (He listens to their responses.) I think that what this sentence is saying is that people found out that there was gold on the Cherokees' land in the Appalachian mountains, and they wanted the gold, so the people wanted the Cherokees out fast. Even though there were thousands of Cherokees, and they were supposed to move them off of their land slowly, some people complained and made sure that all of the Cherokees moved off their land right away.

EUGENIA: But, that's not what it says. It's not saying it the same way. The author has other words.

Example (continued)

MR. MARTINEZ: You are right, and that's what's interesting here. What are some of the differences between the way it's written and the way I just used my own words to say it?

VICTOR: You use a lot more words!

MR. MARTINEZ: Yes, I did use a lot more words, but I can *condense* what I said even more and still use my own words: *The U.S. government was supposed to move the Cherokee Indians off of their land slowly, but the government discovered gold on the Cherokees' land, so people wanted the Cherokees to leave faster.* One of the things you have when you write is time, and when you have time, you can condense your ideas, make them more compact.

After some more discussion, during which Mr. Martinez clarifies students' understandings about the process of unpacking sentence meanings, he guides his students to unpack another sentence with him. This time, he has them tell him what to write, prompting them if they get stuck. Next, he asks his students to work in pairs to unpack the remaining sentences of the section, using the same process, and looking in their English dictionaries and thesauruses, and/or their bilingual dictionaries as needed. He requires students to agree on the words they will use to unpack and then repackage (or paraphrase) the meanings, and he also requires both students in each pair to write. As students work together, he listens in on their conversations. One student, Suri, has noticed that there are some words that are making it difficult to see who is doing what (e.g., *their removal, the discovery, a clamor, an exodus*).

SURI: So the word, like *removal*. It say "their removal to the West," but it no say who is removing. When he unpack it, he say people, some people remove them. But who? Who remove the Cherokee Nation?

FAYYAD: Maybe we can look here (pointing to the text). Here, it says it "was planned . . ." Huh. That doesn't tell who.

Example *(continued)*

Mr. Martinez takes note of the students' conversations so that he can address their questions and observations with the whole group. When he pulls the class back together to debrief, he asks them to report on their discussions. Each pair takes turns using the document camera to explain how they unpacked one of the sentences and then put them into their own words. They also share what they noticed about the language the author used.

SURI: It's hard to know who was doing it.

MR. MARTINEZ: Can you elaborate on that?

SURI: There are all these words—*removal*, *discovery*, *clamor*. We don't know who is doing that. We don't know who is removing or who is discovering. I think it the soldiers because then it say, "*General Winfield Scott's soldiers rounded them up.*"

MR. MARTINEZ: That's a great observation, Suri. What you're noticing is that writers can put a lot of information in sentences by using nouns or noun phrases to stand in for whole ideas. This is called *nominalization*. So, instead of saying "the army removed the Cherokees from their ancestral lands to the West," or "the white settlers discovered gold," the author can just write "their *removal* to the West," and "the *discovery* of gold." That packs in more information into a sentence, and it also makes it harder to see who is doing the action—who the agent of the action is. When people do things, they're the *agents*. So, one of the things nominalization does is hide the agent or who is doing the action. These types of words—things that are usually verbs, or sometimes adjectives—are sometimes turned into nouns or things. This is called *nominalization*. There are lots of reasons *why* an author would *choose* to do that, and we're going to look at some of those reasons today.

Example (continued)

Mr. Martinez writes a student-friendly definition of nominalization on a piece of chart paper, which he will later post for the students' future reference:

Nominalization	
<p>What is it?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Turning one part of speech into nouns or noun groups. ■ Usually verbs: construct → construction ■ Sometimes adjectives: different → difference 	<p>Why use it?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ In history texts, nominalization is often used to make actions (verbs) or qualities (adjectives) into <i>things</i>. ■ This lets the writer interpret and evaluate the <i>things</i> and say more about them. ■ It also hides the <i>agents</i> (who is doing the action).

Examples:

I **destroyed** (v.) the car. → The **destruction** (n.) of the car . . .

They **removed** (v.) the Native Americans. → The **removal** (n.) of the Native Americans . . .

I am exhausted (adj.). → My exhaustion prevented me from enjoying the party.

As Mr. Martinez discusses the chart, he explains what he is writing and asks his students questions about the terms and examples.

MR. MARTINEZ: So, if you write, “The destruction of the car . . .,” that hides who did it. Why would you want to do that?

AMIR: (laughing) Because you don’t want the police take away your driver license!

MR. MARTINEZ: Right, if I say it like a thing, “the destruction of the car,” we

Example *(continued)*

can't tell who did it—me! That one was pretty easy. If you write “The removal of the Native Americans . . .,” that also hides the agent. Why would the historian want to hide agency here? Talk for a minute with the person sitting next to you first.

SELENA: If you hide the agent, the people who do it, we think it just happen. But we don't know who do it. Or we have to think hard to see who did it.

KATIA: And I think it show that the Native Americans do not make the decisions themselves. Someone forced them to leave their land. But if you don't say who force them, then it makes it softer or seem not so bad.

ELOIS: We don't know who *planning* to remove the Cherokee, and we don't know who *removing* them.

MR. MARTINEZ: Right, and how do we know someone is removing them?

NADIA: It say, “their removal.” But they are not removing themselves.

MR. MARTINEZ: Good observation. Notice this word: removal. It's related to the verb remove, right? But is it a verb here?

AMIR: That's passive voice.

MR. MARTINEZ: That's a great connection you're making. This is like passive voice, but it's a little different. The thing that's the same is that you don't know who the agent is when you use passive voice or nominalization. But what's different is that passive voice is still in the verb form. So, you might say something like “The Cherokees *were removed*.” However, nominalization turns the verb into a noun or a “thing.” Instead of seeing *were removed*, you'd see *their removal*.

Example (continued)

Mr. Martinez writes the following examples of what he is explaining on the board:

Active Voice	Passive Voice	Nominalization
The U.S. government removed the Cherokees.	The Cherokees were removed.	<i>Their removal . . .</i>
<i>verb form – can see agent</i>	<i>verb form – cannot see agent</i>	<i>noun form – cannot see agent</i>

He then guides the students to find other nominalizations in the text. They read the sentences together, and at the end of each one, he asks them to identify any nominalizations. The class decides together if the words are nominalizations; the students highlight them and then discuss what questions they should be asking themselves when they read. Finally, Mr. Martinez asks the students to translate the part of the sentence that contains the nominalization into a sentence using the more typical verb form of the word. A portion of the chart the class generates follows:

Nominalizations	Questions about Agency	Verb form translation
the establishment	Who established the “permanent Indian frontier?”	The U.S. government established (made) the “permanent Indian frontier.”
their removal	Who is removing the Cherokees?	The army removed (took away) the Cherokees to the West.
the discovery	Who discovered the gold?	The U.S. government discovered (found) gold.
a clamor	Who is clamoring for their exodus?	The white settlers clamored (made a lot of noise) for the Cherokee people to leave.

Example (continued)

Next Steps

For the rest of the year, Mr. Martinez will expand his students' understandings of nominalization and other language resources by drawing their attention to instances of nominalization and facilitating discussions about the word meanings and possible reasons an author might have chosen to use them. In the next collaborative planning session, Mr. Martinez unpacks sentences with his colleagues. The science teacher notes that this would be a very useful technique for his classes since the science texts he uses contain many densely packed sentences. Together, the teachers look at one of the sentences from a science text that students are currently reading, and they unpack it together, using Mr. Martinez's technique.

Resource

Brown, Dee. *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee: An Indian History of the American West*. New York: Holt Rinehart Winston, 1970.

Sources

Adapted from California Department of Education. 2014. "Chapter 5, Learning About How English Works." In *California English Language Development Standards: Kindergarten Through Grade 12*, 160–176. Sacramento: California Department of Education.

Additional Information

Fang, Zhihui, and Mary J. Schleppegrell. 2010. "Disciplinary Literacies Across Content Areas: Supporting Secondary Reading Through Functional Language Analysis." *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 53 (7): 587–597.

Source: ELA/ELD Framework, Chapter 7, pages 803–11.

Implications for Integrated ELD. This framework uses the term *integrated ELD* to refer to ELD throughout the day and across the disciplines. Teachers can use both Parts I and II of the CA ELD Standards throughout the day in tandem with the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the History–Social Science Content Standards (appendix C) to support their ELs in learning rich content and developing advanced levels of English. Implied in these examples is the need for all teachers to do the following:

- Routinely preview the texts used for instruction and the tasks in order to identify language that may be challenging for ELs.
- Determine where there are opportunities to highlight and discuss particular language resources (e.g., powerful or precise vocabulary, different ways of combining ideas in sentences, ways of starting paragraphs to emphasize key ideas).
- Observe students to determine how they are using the language teachers are targeting.
- Adjust whole-group instruction or work with small groups or individuals in order to provide adequate and appropriate support.

Above all, ELs should routinely and frequently engage in school tasks where they engage in discussions to develop content knowledge, apply comprehension strategies and analytical skills to interpret complex texts, produce oral and written English that increasingly meets the expectations of the context, and develop an awareness about how English works to make meaning.

This page is left blank intentionally.

CHAPTER 22

Professional Learning

This chapter considers the systems in which educators and students can be supported to learn and grow. It puts forth a vision of the school as a learning community in which all adults are engaged in the ongoing cycle of learning, reflecting on, and improving their own practice (Little 2006; Ermeling and Gallimore 2013; Garmston and Zimmerman 2013; Learning Forward 2011). For teachers and school leaders to create classroom instruction for students that is motivating, engaging, integrated, respectful, and intellectually challenging, they too must participate in a learning culture that has these same qualities. This learning environment mirrors the type of learning desired in California classrooms: it motivates and engages teachers' efforts, integrates their learning, respects their knowledge and capabilities, and challenges their intellect. As students grapple with complex texts and concepts, persist through difficulties, and set their own goals for learning, so too do their teachers and leaders. Ensuring that California's students experience high-quality history–social science instruction requires specific and sustained attention to the implementation of the evidence-based practices described in this framework. This chapter describes the adult learning, leadership practices, and disciplinary resources necessary for such implementation.

Professional learning is the vehicle for all school staff—teachers, administrators, specialists, counselors, teacher librarians, and others—to learn to effectively implement the curricular and

instructional practices proposed in this framework (Killion and Hirsh 2013; Darling-Hammond et al. 2009). Over the years, professional learning has had many names—*professional development*, *staff development*, and *training*—and has taken many forms—workshops, conferences, college courses, institutes, book study, lesson study, classroom observations and shadowing, coaching, conversations with colleagues, co-teaching, assessing student work, collaborative planning, action research, online learning, learning walks, and more. Professional learning is the process in which education professionals—teachers, administrators, and others—actively learn (through critical analysis of practice, reflection on their own teaching, consistent collaboration with colleagues, and other interactive tasks) the knowledge and skills needed to improve teaching, leading, and student learning. Professional learning may be formal or informal, but its goal is always to improve student learning and achievement.

Leadership in a professional collaborative learning culture is distributed and shared. It is not limited to principals or other administrators and, in fact, promotes teacher leadership as a powerful means of establishing a healthy and collaborative school culture. Responsibility for student success is held in common and transcends departmental and grade-level boundaries (Garmston and Zimmerman 2013; Kruse and Louis 2009).

Distributed leadership is closely connected to professional learning and includes professional collaborations, coaching, and data-driven decision-making, as well as opportunities for teachers to share their expertise in more formal ways. Teachers, for example, may present to colleagues a new teaching technique they have implemented and share their reflections of the process. By the same token, school and district leaders must envision themselves first and foremost as responsible for ensuring that all classrooms are environments where each and every student thrives. This requires leaders to position themselves as advocates for teacher learning, collaboration, and continuous reflection.

As noted above, professional collaborative learning to ensure student success is key. Frequent and meaningful collaboration with colleagues and parents/families is critical for ensuring that all students meet the expectations of the *History–Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools* (History–Social Science Content Standards), the *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects*

(CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy), and the *California English Language Development Standards* (CA ELD Standards). Teachers are at their best when they routinely collaborate with their teaching colleagues to plan instruction, analyze student work, discuss student progress, integrate new learning into their practice, and refine lessons or identify interventions when students experience difficulties. Students are at their best when teachers enlist the collaboration of parents and families as partners in their children’s education. Schools are at their best when educators are supported by administrators and other support staff to implement the type of instruction called for in this framework. School districts are at their best when teachers across the district have an expanded professional learning community they can rely upon as thoughtful partners and for tangible instructional resources.¹

Over the past decade, much has been written regarding the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary for effective teaching. Teachers are, above all, lifelong learners. Ongoing learning is essential to effective teaching, and professional learning opportunities are crucial to gain and deepen professional knowledge and professional judgment in teachers (Mindich and Lieberman 2012). Over the course of a teaching career, teachers are likely to see many changes—changes in the needs of their learners, in expected outcomes, and in the knowledge valued by society. As a result, teaching must adapt and continually improve while maintaining curiosity, flexibility, and imagination on the part of teachers and their students. For students to achieve the History–Social Science Content Standards, the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, and the CA ELD Standards, teachers need effective preparation and ongoing professional learning to support their own success as learners and, in turn, to support their students’ learning.

Researchers have argued that teacher professional learning is the key to improving outcomes for students. In their report for the National Staff Development Council and Stanford University’s Center for Opportunity Policy in Education, Wei, Darling-Hammond, and Adamson (2010, 1) note, “Rigorous scientific studies have shown that when high-quality [professional learning] approaches are sustained by providing teachers with 50 or more hours of support *per year*, student test scores rise by an average of 21 percentage points.” International studies also underscore the need for ongoing professional

1. *ELA/ELD Framework*, 238.

development (OECD 1998, 2005, 2009). They note that development of teachers beyond initial preparation can update individuals' knowledge of subject matter, improve individuals' pedagogy in keeping with new standards and research-based teaching techniques, enable individuals and schools to apply changes in curricula or other aspects of teaching practice, to exchange information between educators and other groups (such as academics, community groups, various industries, and so on), and to help less-effective teachers become more effective.

However, professional learning is particularly susceptible to budget fluctuations, especially for teachers who teach disciplines other than English language arts and mathematics. Wei, Darling-Hammond, and Adamson (2010, 8) found that “teachers in the United States receive far less professional development, mentoring, and planning time than teachers in the world’s high-achieving nations.” While the number of new teachers participating in induction programs has steadily increased over the years and there have been small increases in professional learning in the “content of the subjects taught, the uses of computers for instruction, reading instruction, and student discipline and classroom management,” there has been a shift from programs of nine to sixteen hours to eight hours or fewer. In addition, “well under half of teachers reported access to professional development on teaching students with disabilities (42 percent) and teaching ELLs (27 percent)” (Wei, Darling-Hammond, and Adamson 2010, 2–3).

For English Learners (ELs), the problem of inadequate, fragmented, or irrelevant teacher professional learning warrants critical attention. ELs have language, literacy, and disciplinary literacy learning needs that require specialized instruction that many teachers have not yet mastered. However, according to the National Center for Education Statistics (cited in Wei, Darling-Hammond, and Adamson 2010, 62), only 12.5 percent of teachers have participated in more than eight hours of professional learning about how to work with ELs. In one study, teachers of ELs characterized their professional learning as poorly planned, executed by presenters with little experience or knowledge of ELs, not applicable to their course content, and outdated (Gándara, Maxwell-Jolly, and Driscoll 2005). Research reviews of effective professional learning for teachers of ELs suggest that this professional learning occurred over extended time (one to three years) and focused on hands-on practice, teaching methods that were immediately applicable to the classroom, and in-class lesson demonstrations with a teacher’s own or a colleague’s students (August and Shanahan 2006).

Benchmarks of Effective Professional Learning

Darling-Hammond and others (2009, 5) found that “collaborative approaches to professional learning can promote school change that extends beyond individual classrooms.” The researchers also note that effective professional learning

- “is intensive, ongoing, and connected to practice;
- focuses on the teaching and learning of specific academic content;
- is connected to other school initiatives;
- builds strong working relationships among teachers.”

Desimone (2009, 183) identifies from recent research five features of professional learning that are “critical to increasing teacher knowledge and skills and improving their practice, and which hold promise for increasing student achievement : . . (a) content focus, (b) active learning, (c) coherence, (d) duration, and (e) collective participation [work in grade-level, departmental, and school teams].”

Standards for professional learning provide a useful tool for evaluating efforts to organize and facilitate professional learning for teachers and others. In 2011, the professional organization Learning Forward (formerly the National Staff Development Council) revised its standards. The seven standards that follow describe the characteristics and conditions of effective, high-quality professional learning.

- **Learning Communities:** Professional learning that increases educator effectiveness and results for all students occurs within learning communities committed to continuous improvement, collective responsibility, and goal alignment.
- **Leadership:** Professional learning that increases educator effectiveness and results for all students requires skillful leaders who develop capacity, advocate, and create support systems for professional learning.
- **Resources:** Professional learning that increases educator effectiveness and results for all students requires prioritizing, monitoring, and coordinating resources for educator learning. This includes discussions about allocating sufficient time for effective instruction.

- **Data:** Professional learning that increases educator effectiveness and results for all students uses a variety of sources and types of student, educator, and system data to plan, assess, and evaluate professional learning.
- **Learning Designs:** Professional learning that increases educator effectiveness and results for all students integrates theories, research, and models of human learning to achieve its intended outcomes.
- **Implementation:** Professional learning that increases educator effectiveness and results for all students applies research on change and sustains support for implementation of professional learning for long-term change.
- **Outcomes:** Professional learning that increases educator effectiveness and results for all students aligns its outcomes with educator performance and student curriculum standards.

Research on effective professional learning (Desimone 2009) and on effective implementation, or change (Fixsen and Blase 2009) points to collective participation and facilitative administrative action as important elements of success. *Collective participation* occurs when teachers in the same school, grade level, or department participate in the same professional learning. This collective participation has the potential to promote collaboration, discussion, and shared responsibility (Borko 2004; Darling-Hammond and Sykes 1999; Grossman, Wineburg, and Woolworth 2001; Lewis, Perry, and Murata 2006; Stoll and Louis 2007; Wilson and Berne 1999). Collective participation resonates with Wenger's (1998) social theory of learning, which suggests that learning, rather than being solely an individual process, is social and collective and that many people learn in communities of practice. Most researchers and reformers agree that communities of practice have the following characteristics: Teachers work together to

- reflect on their practice, forming social and professional bonds;
- develop shared understandings about practice and work to refine particular effective practices;
- collaborate on problems of practice using evidence, such as student work and assessment data;
- view their teaching from a critical stance, confront challenging topics (such

as approaches they have tried but that have failed), and engage in difficult conversations (such as beliefs and attitudes about groups of students);

- provide mutual support and mutual accountability; learn to deal constructively with conflict;
- focus on their improvement to achieve student improvement.

Knowles' (1973) seminal research on adult learning points to adult learners' needs for independence, autonomy, and relevance to their specific setting. Team members' perceptions of the usefulness of the work are critical. Effective collaborative professional structures bring the adults in a school together to work on shared concerns, needs, and strategies and build consensus and ownership for the groups' tasks and outcomes. Student data serve as the catalyst for action and further research in effective collaborative professional structures. Analysis of data leads to examination of instruction as well and is "systematically connected to cycles of planning and teaching related to specific learning needs" (Ermeling and Gallimore 2013, 45).

Coaching is often an outgrowth or part of these collegial structures and can take many forms. It can be mentor, instructional, peer, or supervisory coaching. Wei, Darling-Hammond, and Adamson (2010) document the efficacy of coaching that includes modeling, observation, and feedback. They also note that coaching associated with student achievement gains is usually conducted as a part of a coherent school reform effort. Joyce and Showers first documented the impact of coaching in professional learning (1980, 2002) arguing that 90 percent of learners would transfer a new skill into their practice as a result of theory, demonstration, practice, corrective feedback, and job-embedded coaching. The challenge for most schools in implementing coaching is finding the resources to support it. Districts and schools will need to make hard decisions about resource allocation as they move forward.

Creating collegial structures in schools is vital for successful integration of the History–Social Science Content Standards, the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, and the CA ELD Standards. Integrating history–social science, ELD, and disciplinary literacy and ensuring that a designated time for ELD is used purposefully requires that teachers—across disciplines—collaborate frequently to assess student needs and accomplishments, analyze the results of formal and informal assessments, and

plan instruction, including multidisciplinary units, for multiple settings. For students who are ELs, standard English learners, advanced learners, or who have disabilities, collaboration amongst classroom teachers, specialists, counselors, and other support staff is critical. Sharing responsibility for student learning means that all teachers, including history–social science instructors, are responsible for meeting the needs of students and providing appropriate instruction. ELD instruction and literacy instruction do not occur in just one setting; they occur in all classrooms as well as in designated settings.

Planning lessons and units together is an effective collaborative practice. Lesson planning should incorporate the cultural, linguistic, and background experiences students bring to the classroom, the assessed needs of students, and look ahead to year-end and unit goals. Unit planning is a complex process that requires teachers to simultaneously consider the specific instructional activities (e.g., hands-on investigations) students will experience; the texts students will read, interpret, and discuss; the big ideas and essential content understandings students will acquire; the types of language students will use in speaking and writing; the various tasks that will support students to engage meaningfully with content, texts, and one another; the culminating tasks teachers will guide their students to successfully perform; as well as the History–Social Science Content Standards, the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy, and the CA ELD Standards.

The qualities of effective professional learning are clear. The challenge for California educators is to create, disseminate, and implement programs of professional learning for history–social science teachers that reflect these qualities. Ultimately, effective professional learning should mirror effective classroom instruction. The same kinds of active engagement with critical thinking and problem posing; collaborative discussions about intellectually stimulating and relevant topics; use of rigorous and appropriate texts; respect for diversity of cultures, languages, and perspectives; and other features found in effective classrooms should be found in professional learning sessions.

Schools and districts should begin by determining their assets and needs and then create short- and long-term plans (up to five or more years) for professional learning that builds consistently over time but can also be adapted and refined as needed. Schools and districts need to consider where teachers

are within their career trajectories and support them accordingly. Translating knowledge into classroom action propels the process of implementation; teachers can be supported in that process by coaches, leaders, and other professional collaborations. Effective professional learning also parallels effective professional collaboration; teachers learn from one another as they also learn from specialists and coaches.

Sources of Professional Learning

Professional learning can be provided and facilitated by a variety of individuals and organizations, including school leaders, school districts, county offices of education, California Subject Matter Projects, local colleges and universities, technical assistance agencies, the California Department of Education, independent consultants, and most importantly, teachers themselves. *The sources and locations of professional learning can be many (see sample list below); what is critical is that their selection be based on a comprehensive plan for professional learning coordinated at the district and school levels and informed by teachers and other staff.* Districts and schools should consider the steps of implementation and the standards of professional learning outlined earlier in this chapter in designing a plan that addresses both immediate and long-term goals.

- The **Buck Institute for Education** presents workshops and provides resources for problem-based learning modules to economics teachers.
- The **California Council of Economic Education** has programs featuring activity-based professional development throughout the state as well as travel abroad programs sponsored by the National Council on Economic Education.
- The **California Council for the Social Studies** holds annual conferences that feature teacher workshops and scholar presentations.
- The **California Department of Education** has prepared a series of online professional learning modules for the English Language Development and Common Core State Standards, including two modules specific to the literacy standards for history/social studies, available on the Brokers of Expertise Web site (<http://www.myboe.org/>)

- The **California Geographic Alliance** is part of the National Geographic network of alliances and supports California educators through professional development workshops, conference presentations, and institutes designed to increase geographic literacy among K–12 students.
- Both the **California History–Social Science Project (CHSSP)**, headquartered at the University of California, Davis, and the **California International Studies Project**, headquartered at San Diego State University, offer professional development programs in a variety of school-year and summer programs, including ongoing coaching and lesson study facilitation. The CHSSP also regularly offers a variety of Common Core and ELD-aligned Webinar programs and free curriculum, available for download from its Web site.
- The **Center for Civic Education** provides workshops and institutes for teachers in which focused content is combined with student programs.
- The **Constitutional Rights Foundation** provides support for civics-based education programs.
- California’s **Education and the Environment Initiative** offers free online and face-to-face workshops for standards-based and Common Core aligned curriculum addressing California Environmental Principles and Concepts.

(Contact information for these and other history–social science professional learning providers is available from the California Department of Education: <http://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/hs/re/> and <http://www.cde.ca.gov/pd/ca/hs/>).

The Human Rights Resource Center of the University of Minnesota provides free access to online curricula and lesson plans through the *This Is My Home* K–12 Human Rights Education Initiative and Curriculum and other resources (<https://www.law.umn.edu/human-rights-center>).

Educational materials on international humanitarian law can be accessed on the American Red Cross Web site at: <http://www.redcross.org/humanityinwar/> resources.

Links to other high-quality online sources of human rights education materials, including curricula, lesson plans, and other resources, may be found on the Educational Resources site of the Human Rights Educators USA Web page (http://www.hreusa.net/materials_teaching.php).

This page is left blank intentionally.

CHAPTER 23

Criteria for Evaluating Instructional Materials: Kindergarten Through Grade Eight

This chapter provides the criteria for evaluating the alignment of instructional materials with the *History–Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools* and the *History–Social Science Framework for California Public Schools*. The content standards were adopted by the California State Board of Education (SBE) in October 1998. They describe what students should know and be able to do at each grade level. The framework incorporates the standards and includes instructional guidelines for teachers and administrators. The framework, together with the standards, defines the essential skills and knowledge in history–social science that will enable all California students to enjoy a world-class education.

The instructional materials must provide guidance for the teacher to facilitate student engagement with the content standards, framework, and curriculum at each grade level and to teach students all the analysis skills required for the grade spans. Students

should be able to demonstrate reasoning, reflection, and research skills. These skills are to be learned through, and applied to, the content standards and are to be assessed only in conjunction with the content standards. Special attention should also be paid to the appendixes in the framework, which address important overarching issues.

To be adopted, materials must first meet *in full* the criteria statements in Category 1, History–Social Science Content/Alignment with Standards. Materials will be evaluated holistically in the other categories of Program Organization, Assessment, Universal Access, and Instructional Planning and Support. This means that while a program may not meet every criterion listed in those categories, they must on balance meet the goals of each category to be eligible for state adoption. Programs that do not meet Category 1 in full and do not meet each one of the other four categories as judged holistically will not be adopted. These criteria may also be used by publishers and local educational agencies as a guide for developing and selecting instructional materials for grades nine through twelve. To assist the SBE in the evaluation of instructional materials, publishers will use a standards map template and evaluation criteria maps supplied by the California Department of Education to demonstrate a program’s alignment with the standards.

The criteria are organized into five categories:

- 1. History–Social Science Content/Alignment with Standards:** The content as specified in the *Education Code*, the *History–Social Science Content Standards*, and the *History–Social Science Framework*
- 2. Program Organization:** The sequence and organization of the history–social science program
- 3. Assessment:** The strategies presented in the instructional materials for measuring what students know and are able to do
- 4. Universal Access:** Instructional materials that are understandable to all students, including students eligible for special education, English learners, and students whose achievement is either below or above that typical of the class or grade level
- 5. Instructional Planning and Support:** The instructional planning and support information and materials, typically including a separate edition

specially designed for use by teachers in implementing the *History–Social Science Content Standards* and *History–Social Science Framework*

History–social science instructional materials must support teaching aligned with the standards and framework. Materials that are contrary to or inconsistent with the standards, framework, and criteria are not allowed. Extraneous materials should be minimal and clearly purposeful. Any gross inaccuracies or deliberate falsifications revealed during the review process will result in disqualification, and any found during the adoption cycle will be subject to removal of the program from the list of state-adopted textbooks. Gross inaccuracies and deliberate falsifications are defined as those requiring changes in content.

Category 1: History–Social Science Content/ Alignment with Standards

1. Instructional materials, as defined in *Education Code* Section 60010(h), support instruction designed to ensure that students master all the History–Social Science Content Standards for the intended grade level. Analysis skills of the pertinent grade span must be covered at each grade level. This instruction must be included in the student edition of the instructional materials; while there can be direction in materials for the teacher to support instruction in the standards, this cannot be in lieu of content in the student edition. The standards themselves must be included in their entirety in the student materials, either at point of instruction or collected together at another location.
2. Instructional materials reflect and incorporate the content of the *History–Social Science Framework*.
3. Instructional materials shall use proper grammar and spelling (*Education Code* Section 60045).
4. Instructional materials present accurate, detailed content and a variety of perspectives and encourage student inquiry.
5. History is presented as a story well told, with continuity and narrative coherence (a beginning, a middle, and an end), and based on the best recent scholarship. Without sacrificing historical accuracy, the narrative is rich

with the forceful personalities, controversies, and issues of the time.

Primary sources, such as letters, diaries, documents, and photographs, are incorporated into the narrative to present an accurate and vivid picture of the times in order to enrich student inquiry.

6. Materials include sufficient use of primary sources appropriate to the age level of students so that students understand from the words of the authors the way people saw themselves, their work, ideas and values, assumptions, fears and dreams, and interpretation of their own times. These sources are to be integral to the program and are carefully selected to exemplify the topic. They serve as a voice from the past, conveying an accurate and thorough sense of the period. When only an excerpt of a source is included in the materials, the students and teachers are referred to the entire primary source. The materials present different perspectives of participants, both ordinary and extraordinary people, in world and U.S. history, and further student inquiry.
7. Materials include the study of issues and historical and social science debates. Students are presented with different perspectives and come to understand the importance of reasoned debate and reliable evidence, recognizing that people in a democratic society have the right to disagree.
8. Throughout the instructional resources, the importance of the variables of time and place—history and geography—is stressed repeatedly. In examining the past and present, the instructional resources consistently help students recognize that events and changes occur in a specific time and place. Instructional resources also consistently help students judge the significance of the relative location of place.
9. The history–social science curriculum is enriched with various genres of fiction and nonfiction literature of and about the historical period. Forms of literature such as diaries, essays, biographies, autobiographies, myths, legends, historical tales, oral literature, poetry, and religious literature richly describe the issues or the events studied as well as the life of the people, including both work and leisure activities. The literary selections are broadly representative of varied cultures, ethnic groups, men, women, and children and, where appropriate, provide meaningful connections to the content

standards in English–language arts, mathematics, science, and visual and performing arts.

- 10.** Materials on religious subject matter remain neutral; do not advocate one religion over another; do not include simulation or role playing of religious ceremonies or beliefs; do not include derogatory language about a religion or use examples from sacred texts or other religious literature that are derogatory, accusatory, or instill prejudice against other religions or those who believe in other religions. Religious matters, both belief and nonbelief, must be treated respectfully and be explained as protected by the U.S. Constitution. Instructional materials, where appropriate and called for in the standards, include examples of religious and secular thinkers in history. When the standards call for explanation of belief systems, they are presented in historical context. Events and figures detailed in religious texts are presented as beliefs held by members of that religion, are clearly identified as such, and should not be presented as fact unless there is independent historical evidence justifying that presentation. All materials must be in accordance with the guidance provided in appendix F, “Religion and History–Social Science Education,” and *Education Code* sections 51500, 51501, 51511, and 51513.
- 11.** Numerous examples are presented of women and men from different demographic groups who used their learning and intelligence to make important contributions to democratic practices and society and to science and technology. Materials emphasize the importance of education in a democratic society.
- 12.** For grades six through eight, the breadth and depth of world history to be covered are described in the course descriptions in chapters 10, 11, and 12. In addition to the content called for at grade six, instructional materials shall include the grade seven content standards on the Roman Empire (standard 7.1 and its sequence) and Mayan civilization (standard 7.7 and the applicable Mayan aspects of the sequence). In addition to the content called for at grade eight, materials shall include the grade seven content standards on the Age of Exploration, the Enlightenment, and the Age of Reason (standard 7.11 and its sequence).

13. Student writing assignments are aligned with the grade-level expectations in the *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy) (adopted by the State Board of Education in 2013), including both the Writing Standards for K–5 and 6–12 (as applicable), and the Writing Standards for Literacy in History/Social Studies 6–12, the *California English Language Development Standards*, and the *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework*.
14. Instructional materials use biography to portray the experiences of men, women, children, and youths. Materials shall include the roles and contributions of people from different demographic groups: Native Americans; African Americans; Mexican Americans; Asian Americans; Pacific Islanders; European Americans; lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender Americans; persons with disabilities; and members of other ethnic and cultural groups to the total development of California and the United States (*Education Code* Section 60040).
15. Instructional materials, where appropriate, examine humanity’s place in ecological systems and the necessity for the protection of the environment (*Education Code* Section 60041). Materials include instructional content based upon the Environmental Principles and Concepts developed by the California Environmental Protection Agency and adopted by the State Board of Education (*Public Resources Code* Section 71301) where appropriate and aligned to the history–social science content standards. (See appendix C.)
16. Instructional materials for grades five and eight shall include a discussion of the Great Irish Famine of 1845–1850 and the effect of the famine on American history (*Education Code* Section 51226.3(e)).
17. Emphasis is placed on civic values, democratic principles, and democratic institutions, including frequent opportunities for discussion of the fundamental principles embodied in the U.S. Constitution and the Bill of Rights. When appropriate to the comprehension of pupils, instructional materials shall include a copy of the U.S. Constitution and the Declaration of Independence (*Education Code* Section 60043).

18. Materials emphasize America’s multiethnic heritage and its contribution to this country’s development while explaining how American civic values provide students with a foundation for understanding their rights and responsibilities in this pluralistic society (*Education Code* sections 51226.5 and 60200.6).
19. Materials on American life and history give significant attention to the principles of morality, truth, justice, and patriotism and to a comprehension of the rights, duties, and dignity of American citizenship, inspiring an understanding of and a commitment to American ideals. Examples of memorable addresses by historical figures are presented in their historical context, including the effect of those addresses on people then and now (*Education Code* sections 52720 and 60200.5).
20. Materials for studying the life and contributions of Martin Luther King, Jr., and the civil rights movement shall be included at each grade level, with suggestions for supporting the respective holidays in honor of this man and the accompanying activities (*Education Code* Section 60200.6). In those grade levels when the life of King is not directly connected to the historical narrative (e.g., sixth grade), it is acceptable to include this content in a distinct product that is included as part of the core program for that grade level. However, these materials must be provided to all students using the program.
21. Where appropriate to the topics being covered, materials highlight the life and contributions of Cesar Chavez, the history of the farm labor movement in the United States, and the role of immigrants, including Filipino Americans, in that movement (*Education Code* Section 51008).

Category 2: Program Organization

1. Sequential organization of the material provides structure concerning what students should learn each year and allows teachers to convey the history–social science content efficiently and effectively.
2. The instructional materials provide instructional content for 180 days of instruction for at least one daily class period.

3. The content is well organized and presented in a manner consistent with providing all students an opportunity to achieve the essential knowledge and skills described in the standards and framework. The academic language (i.e., vocabulary) specific to the content is presented in a manner that provides explicit instructional opportunities for teachers and appropriate practice for all students.
4. A detailed, expository narrative approach providing for in-depth study is the predominant writing mode and focuses on people and their ideas, thoughts, actions, conflicts, struggles, and achievements.
5. Explanations are provided so that students clearly understand the likely causes of the events, the reasons the people and events are important, why things turned out as they did, and the connections of those results to events that followed.
6. The narrative unifies and interrelates the many facts, explanations, visual aids, maps, and literary selections included in the topic or unit. Those components clearly contribute directly to students' deeper understanding and retention of the events.
7. The relevant grade-level standards shall be explicitly stated in both the teacher and student editions. Topical or thematic headings reflect the framework and standards and clearly indicate the content that follows.
8. Each topic builds clearly on the preceding one(s) in a systematic manner.
9. Topics selected for in-depth study are enriched with a variety of materials and content-appropriate activities and reflect the framework's course descriptions.
10. Each unit presents strategies for universal access, including ways in which to improve the vocabulary and reading and language skills of English learners in the context of history–social science.
11. The materials support the development of academic vocabulary for all students and provide instruction and opportunities for student practice and application in key vocabulary.

12. Materials explain how history–social science instruction may be improved by the effective use of library media centers and information literacy skills.
13. The tables of contents, indexes, glossaries, content summaries, and assessment guides are designed to help teachers, parents/guardians, and students.

Category 3: Assessment

1. Assessments in the instructional materials should reflect the goals of chapter 19. Assessment tools measure what students know and are able to do, including their analysis skills, as defined by the standards.
2. Entry-level assessments are provided to help teachers gauge student readiness for embarking upon the instructional program. Information is provided to teachers to help them utilize the results of those assessments to guide instruction and to determine modifications for specific students or groups of students.
3. Formative assessment tools that publishers include as a part of their instructional materials should provide evidence of students' progress toward mastering the content called for in the standards and framework and should yield information teachers can use in planning and modifying instruction to help all students meet or exceed the standards.
4. Summative assessments enable teachers to determine when students have achieved mastery of the content and skills outlined in the standards. Summative assessments enable teachers to determine if students can apply knowledge and/or skills learned during a unit to new exercises.
5. Materials provide frequent assessments at strategic points of instruction by such means as pretests, unit tests, chapter tests, and summative tests.
6. Materials assess students' progress toward meeting the instructional goals of history–social science through expository writing. Student writing assessments are aligned with the grade-level expectations in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy (adopted by the State Board of Education in 2013), including both the Writing Standards for K–5 and 6–12 (as applicable), and the Writing Standards for Literacy in History/Social Studies 6–12, the

California English Language Development Standards, and the English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework.

7. Materials include analytical rubrics that are content-specific and provide an explanation of the use of the rubrics by teachers and students to evaluate and improve skills in writing, analysis, and the use of evidence.
8. Assessment tools include multiple measures of student performance, such as selected response, short answer, essay, oral presentation, debates and speeches, service-learning projects, research projects, certificates, and performance-based tasks.
9. Assessment tools measure how students are able to use library media centers and information literacy skills when studying history–social science topics.

Category 4: Universal Access

1. The instructional materials should reflect the goals of access and equity outlined in chapter 20.
2. Instructional materials present comprehensive guidance for teachers in providing effective, efficient instruction for all students. Instructional materials should provide access to the standards and framework-based curriculum for all students, including those with special needs: English learners, advanced learners, students below grade level in reading and writing skills, and special education students in general education classrooms. Materials should include suggestions for teachers on how to differentiate instruction to meet the needs of students in those groups.
3. Materials for kindergarten through grade three focus on the content called for in the *History–Social Science Content Standards*, including the Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills, and the *History–Social Science Framework* while complementing the goals of the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework*.
4. Materials for grades four through eight provide suggestions to further instruction in history–social science while assisting students whose reading and writing skills are below grade level.

5. Instructional materials are designed to help meet the needs of students whose reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills fall up to two grade levels below the level prescribed in the English–language arts content standards and to assist in accelerating students’ skills to grade level.
6. Materials must address the needs of students who are at or above grade level. Although materials are adaptable to each student’s point of entry, such differentiated instruction is focused on the history–social science content standards.
7. All suggestions and procedures for meeting the instructional needs of all students are ready to use with minimum modifications.
8. Materials provide suggestions for enriching the program or assignments for advanced learners by:
 - studying a topic, person, place, or event in more depth
 - conducting a more complex analysis of a topic, person, place, or event
 - reading and researching related topics independently
 - emphasizing the rigor and depth of the analysis skills to provide a challenge for all students
9. Materials provide suggestions to help teach English learners the History–Social Science Content Standards while reinforcing instruction based on the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy and the *California English Language Development Standards*—notably to read, write, comprehend, and speak at academically proficient levels. Materials provide support for Integrated ELD instruction as described in the *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework*.
10. Materials incorporate the principles of Universal Design for Learning (UDL) as described in chapter 20, “Access and Equity.”

Category 5: Instructional Planning and Support

1. Teacher-support materials are built into the instructional materials and contain suggestions and illustrative examples of how teachers can implement the instructional program.
2. The teacher and student materials present ways for all students to learn the content and analysis skills called for in the standards and the framework.
3. Directions are explicit regarding how the analysis skills are to be taught and assessed in the context of the content standards.
4. Instructional materials provide a road map for teachers to follow when they plan instruction while leaving them the flexibility and freedom to organize units around student inquiry.
5. Teacher and student materials are coordinated so that teachers can easily locate places where students are working (e.g., have correlating page numbers in print materials or corresponding references in electronic materials).
6. Instructional materials include a teacher-planning guide describing the relationships between the components of the program and how to use all the components to meet all the standards.
7. Publishers provide teachers with easily accessible and workable instructional examples and students with practice opportunities as they develop their understanding of the content and analysis skills.
8. Blackline masters are accessible in print and in digitized formats and are easily reproduced. Black areas shall be minimal to require less toner when printing or photocopying.
9. The teacher materials describe what to teach, how to teach, and when to teach.
10. Terms from the standards and framework are used appropriately and accurately in the instructions.
11. All assessment tools, instructional tools, and informational technology resources include technical support and suggestions for appropriate use of technology.

12. Electronic learning resources, when included, support instruction and connect explicitly to the standards.
13. The teacher resource materials provide background information about important events, people, places, and ideas appearing in the standards and framework.
14. Instructional practices recommended in the materials are based on the content in the standards and framework and on current and confirmed research.
15. Materials discuss and address common misconceptions held by students.
16. Homework extends and reinforces classroom instruction and provides additional practice of skills that have been taught.
17. Materials include suggestions on how to explain students' progress toward attaining the standards.
18. Materials include suggestions for parents on how to support student achievement.
19. The format clearly distinguishes instructions for teachers from those for students.
20. Answer keys are provided for all workbooks and other related student activities.
21. Publishers provide charts of the time requirements and cost of staff development services available for preparing teachers to implement fully the program.
22. Materials provide teachers with instructions on how outside resources (e.g., guest speakers, museum visits, and electronic field trips) are to be incorporated into a standards-based lesson.
23. Materials provide guidance on the effective use of library media centers to improve instruction and on the materials in library media centers that would best complement the history–social science content standards and framework.

This page is left blank intentionally.

APPENDIX A

Capacities of Literate Individuals

All of California’s students should develop readiness for college, careers and civic life by the time they graduate from high school, and they should attain the following capacities of literate individuals as outlined by the National Governors Association (NGA) Center for Best Practices and the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) detailed below.

They demonstrate independence.

Students can, without significant scaffolding, comprehend and evaluate complex texts across a range of types and disciplines, and they can construct effective arguments and convey intricate or multifaceted information. Likewise, students are able independently to discern a speaker’s key points, request clarification, and ask relevant questions. They build on others’ ideas, articulate their own ideas, and confirm they have been understood. Without prompting, they demonstrate command of standard English and acquire and use a wide-ranging vocabulary. More broadly, they become self-directed learners, effectively seeking out and using resources to assist them, including teachers, peers, and print and digital reference materials.

They build strong content knowledge.

Students establish a base of knowledge across a wide range of subject matter by engaging with works of quality and substance. They become proficient in new areas through research and study.

Capacities of Literate Individuals

They read purposefully and listen attentively to gain both general knowledge and discipline-specific expertise. They refine and share their knowledge through writing and speaking.

They respond to the varying demands of audience, task, purpose, and discipline.

Students adapt their communication in relation to audience, task, purpose, and discipline. They set and adjust purpose for reading, writing, speaking, listening, and language use as warranted by the task. They appreciate nuances, such as how the composition of an audience should affect tone when speaking and how the connotations of words affect meaning. They also know that different disciplines call for different types of evidence (e.g., documentary evidence in history, experimental evidence in science).

They comprehend as well as critique.

Students are engaged and open-minded—but discerning—readers and listeners. They work diligently to understand precisely what an author or speaker is saying, but they also question an author’s or speaker’s assumptions and premises and assess the veracity of claims and the soundness of reasoning.

They value evidence.

Students cite specific evidence when offering an oral or written interpretation of a text. They use relevant evidence when supporting their own points in writing and speaking, making their reasoning clear to the reader or listener, and they constructively evaluate others’ use of evidence.

They use technology and digital media strategically and capably.

Students employ technology thoughtfully to enhance their reading, writing, speaking, listening, and language use. They tailor their searches online to acquire useful information efficiently, and they integrate what they learn using technology with what they learn offline. They are familiar with the strengths and limitations of various technological tools and mediums and can select and use those best suited to their communication goals.

They come to understand other perspectives and cultures.

Students appreciate that the twenty-first-century classroom and workplace are settings in which people from often widely divergent cultures and who represent diverse experiences and perspectives must learn and work together. Students actively seek to understand other perspectives and cultures through reading and listening, and they are able to communicate effectively with people of varied backgrounds. They evaluate other points of view critically and constructively. Through reading great classic and contemporary works of literature representative of a variety of periods, cultures, and worldviews, students can vicariously inhabit worlds and have experiences much different than their own.

Source: NGA/CCSSO 2010, 7.

This page is intentionally left blank.

APPENDIX B

Problems, Questions, and Themes in the History and Geography Classroom

The course descriptions in this framework are organized to encourage the study of patterns of change and continuity over time. Students investigate the past in chronological sequences from remote to recent eras. Chronological reasoning supports the ability of students to comprehend relationships between causes and effects, demonstrate connections between past and present, and analyze the significance of historical periods and turning points.

Historical Problems as a Foundation of Study

The *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy), the *College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards* (C3 Framework), and the *California English Language Development Standards* (CA ELD Standards) all define the development of historical thinking skills in terms of critical inquiry. Presenting analytical problems and posing significant questions about human

thought and action in the past should be at the heart of history education. As the C3 Framework (NCSS 2013, 24) declares, “central to a rich social studies experience is the capacity for developing questions that can frame and advance an inquiry.” Recent research on issues of how students learn about the past shows persuasively that they are likely to achieve more effective outcomes when they and their teachers begin, not merely with statements or outlines of material to be covered, but by defining problems in relation to particular historical developments and translating these problems into logical and open-ended historical questions.¹ Students explore plausible answers to their selected questions on a basis of documentary, material, or other forms of historical evidence. Historical problems may be constructed at widely varying levels of intellectual sophistication and complexity, and they must be tailored to the grade and developmental level of students. Even so, teachers may introduce this strategy at any grade level and in the context of California, United States, or world history and geography, as well as in the study of civics and economics.

Launching study of the historical topics described in this framework with overarching problems to be examined invariably encourages teachers and students to ask “*Why* are we studying this topic? Why might the knowledge learned from this study be important to us? How might the topic be significant for understanding our own world? How will the texts we read or images we look at help answer our main questions? Erecting investigations of the past on a platform of inquiry gives intellectual purpose to study, helps classrooms prioritize and organize concepts and information, encourages analytical comparison of historical developments across time and space, and helps shape anticipated learning outcomes and authentic student assessments.

In the absence of questions that guide study, students may be more inclined to perceive history education as mainly tasks to be completed—information to be

1. Robert B. Bain, “Challenges of Teaching and Learning World History,” in Douglas Northrop, ed. *A Companion to World History* (Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell, 2012), 111–127; Peter J. Lee, “Putting Principles into Practice: Understanding History,” in J. Bransford and S. Donovan, eds., *How Students Learn History in the Classroom* (Washington, DC: National Academy of Sciences, 2005), 31–77; Denis Shemilt, “Drinking an Ocean and Pissing a Cupful: How Adolescents Make Sense of History,” in L. Symcox and A. Wilschut, eds., *The Problem of the Canon and the Future of History Teaching* (Charlotte, NC: Information Age, 2009), 141–209; Sam Wineburg, *Historical Thinking and Other Unnatural Acts: Charting the Future of Teaching the Past* (Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 2001).

covered, readings to be completed, activities to be performed, or homework to be handed in. For example, colonial New England is an important subject in United States history, but its study becomes dynamic when posed as one or more large and people-centered historical questions: Why did British men and women want to cross the Atlantic to settle in New England in the seventeenth century when native peoples already inhabited that region? What kind of society did Europeans try to create, one that was the same as in Britain, or something new? Why was colonial New England settled mainly by European migrants but the British colonies in the Caribbean region mainly by African slaves?

Some topics in history may suggest an obvious problem and a single main question. Others may require teachers and students to ponder what the significant historical issue might be and to float a number of questions that might be cogent and engaging. Some questions may have clear relevance for students' own lives. Others may probe for greater understanding of how people lived in the distant past, why individuals or groups made the momentous decisions they did, or why some conditions in human societies have changed rapidly but others remained for generations.

Historical Problems at Different Scales

This framework encourages teachers and students to explore the past at different scales of time, places, and subject matters. Classrooms investigate some historical developments that evolved over long periods of time or involved people around the world. Or they may investigate others that were compressed in time or that took place in a single country or city. Students examine key events, particular groups, and individual achievements but also explore their historical significance by placing them in a larger comparative, regional, or global context. One of the skill pathways recommended in the C3 Framework guidelines (NCSS 2013, 46) is evaluation of “how historical events and developments were shaped by unique circumstances of time and place as well as broader historical contexts.”

Study should involve flexible shifting between different contexts of time, space, and topic as well as investigation of historical problems at various scales. It is not that history is seen more clearly at small scales than at big ones; rather, it is that *different things*—different events, different human groups, different patterns of change and continuity—are seen. From the study of geography, one learns that a

map of one's neighborhood is appropriate for understanding local landscapes or traffic routes, but a map of the whole United States is needed to query, for example, the importance of national railway building in the nineteenth century or the relative impact of the Great Depression on different parts of the country.

Viewing the past at relatively large scales not only throws into relief the broader significance of local events, particular inventions, or individual deeds. It also introduces students to important developments such as the growth of major religions or the spread of democratic ideas that cut across particular civilizations, regions, or countries. On the other hand, an in-depth study of the past on relatively small scales anchors “big pictures” to concrete examples, illustrations, stories, ideas, and personalities. Teachers and students may tailor the scale at which they pose a historical problem to the class in the time they have to investigate it, or they may introduce a single topic at two or more scales. For example, both this framework and the History–Social Science Content Standards for grade seven world history recommend study of the Black Death of the fourteenth century as a calamity that affected nearly all of Europe.

Students may also benefit, however, by moving to a smaller scale to undertake a case study that poses questions about the social impact of this plague pandemic on, say, a single English town. Alternatively, students may zoom outward to consider the whole Afroeurasian context of the Black Death, exploring its Inner Eurasia origins, the means of its spread across the hemisphere, and its comparative effects on peoples of China, the Middle East, and North Africa, as well as of Europe. Furthermore, students may compare the Black Death as a trans-hemispheric phenomenon with modern or recent examples of large-scale pandemics and their consequences.

Guiding Questions with Historical Themes

When teachers approach history as a process of critical inquiry, they may wish to emphasize some types or categories of history more than others, depending on the topic under study. These categories typically include political ideas and institutions, production and trade, technology, belief systems, gender issues, the environment, and so on. By giving special attention to particular modes of change and continuity, teachers may achieve greater subject-matter coherence. They may also formulate questions that examine particular types of historical development

in order to take advantage of their own particular intellectual interests or strengths. Educators use the word *theme* in different ways. This framework defines it as subject matter that addresses specific spheres of human thought and activity over time—in other words—the persistent and recurring issues of the human condition.

Notwithstanding the value of thematic investigation, this framework makes clear that historical learning is most engaging and successful when the structure of learning is fundamentally chronological. A curriculum whose structure is too rigidly thematic, centering on the study of such categories as “empire,” “human rights,” “religion,” or “technology” one after the other and over relatively long temporal sequences risks detaching particular phenomena from the wider social contexts in which they may be best understood or, worse, reducing history—the study of change over time—to “background information” for exploring current issues.

Nevertheless, there are many engaging historical problems that address universal or enduring aspects of the human venture and shed light on the exploration of what it means to be human in the world and to what extent differences and similarities have defined human interactions over time. Attention to these questions fosters comparative thinking as well as analytical links between past events and present conditions. Comparative thinking also provides opportunities to connect study of the past to other humanistic and social scientific disciplines, not only civics, economics, and geography, but also sociology, anthropology, philosophy, religious studies, and the arts.

Teachers may best introduce thematic subjects in chronologically grounded studies by choosing particular themes for emphasis during all or part of the school year. Teachers highlight topics in this framework that relate to chosen themes, repeatedly posing questions that weave those themes into the sequential study of historical eras.

Teachers may identify a wide range of thematic ideas. The seven key themes presented here represent a variety of historical spheres that classrooms may explore. These descriptions are intended to suggest historical issues that teachers and students may address in pursuing the topics in both United States and world

history in chronological order.² A set of sample historical questions pertinent to grades five through eight and ten and eleven follow each key theme description.

Key Theme 1: Patterns of Population

The number of people inhabiting the world, the distribution of populations, and the migration patterns of men and women from one region to another have always had a large effect on all other types of change. The study of population size, density, and distribution is called *demography*.

Ninety thousand years ago there may have been fewer than 100,000 human beings on the planet. Today there are more than 7.4 billion. Compared to most animal species, humans have multiplied at an astounding rate in that period and especially in the past 300 years. When today's schoolchildren are thirty-something in 2035, they should expect to share the earth with about 8.7 billion people.³ The global population has grown over millennia because humans have shown the ability to acquire new skills and invent new technologies over and over again. This has allowed them to settle new regions and find new ways to control their environment.

The population of hominid ancestors began to grow, though very gradually, after they began to make tools, perhaps about 2.4 million years ago. In the following eons, hominids developed technologies, including a variety of tools and knowledge of how to use fire. These innovations allowed them to spread from the eastern side of Africa to other parts of that continent and as far east as Indonesia and China.

From about 200,000 years ago, the modern human species evolved, that is, *Homo sapiens*, or people “like us.” Eventually this species acquired language, a talent that permitted people to learn from one another and to pass knowledge from one generation to the next. Consequently, people invented much more

2. These descriptions are adapted from the seven “Key Themes” in World History for Us All, a Web-based model curriculum for middle and high school world history at <https://whfua.history.ucla.edu/shared/themes.php#SevenKeyThemes>. World History for Us All is a project of the National Center for History in the Schools (Department of History, University of California, Los Angeles) in cooperation with San Diego State University.

3. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, Population Estimates and Projections Section, http://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/unpp/panel_population.htm.

sophisticated tools, and in turn, these inventions allowed humans to settle more challenging environments, including very cold ones. By 15,000 years ago, or even earlier, people inhabited every continent except Antarctica. In all these places, people survived by foraging, hunting, and fishing, and they lived in bands, that is, communities typically numbering no more than a few dozen men, women, and children. World population began to rise, but very gradually.

The period of world history extending from about 10,000 to 300 years ago is called the agrarian age, because more and more people lived by farming or animal-raising than only by foraging and hunting. Agriculture allowed people to settle in larger, denser groups because a given piece of territory could support many more farmers than it could food gatherers. As farming technologies improved, people began to build villages, small towns, and, about 5,500 years ago, the first cities. In the 10,000 years of the agrarian age, global population rose from about 6 million to 680 million.

In the eighteenth century, human numbers began to shoot up at a much faster rate than ever before. Today five babies are born and only two people die in the world every second. That makes a net gain of three new people every second. The crowding of this planet has had an enormous impact on the way people live. But why did this acceleration happen?

One factor is the mass exploitation of coal, petroleum, and natural gas. This fossil fuel revolution released vast amounts of energy for human use, driving both the industrial revolution and soaring agricultural production. The planet has therefore been able to feed, clothe, and house many more people than during the agrarian age. A second factor has been advances in medicine and public health that, on a global scale, have pushed up both birthrates and life expectancies far higher than in earlier ages. A third factor has been the development of much faster and more efficient systems for moving food and manufactured goods around the world.

Global population growth has not always been smooth. Over the long term, demographic dips have occurred, some of them severe. Between 1300 and 1400, for example, world population may have dropped about 16 percent mainly due to a combination of climatic cooling (the “Little Ice Age”) and recurring plague epidemics that started with the Black Death.

In the sixteenth century, the Indian population in the Americas dropped catastrophically primarily due to contact with people from Eurasia and Africa who introduced infectious diseases previously unknown in the Western Hemisphere and employed weapons and means of transportation previously unknown in the Americas in patterns of conquest and settlement. In the twentieth century, wars, revolutions, genocides, epidemics, and famines carried off tens of millions of people. None of those disasters, however, offset the accelerating population of recent centuries.

The growth and multiplication of cities in the world is an important aspect of demographic change. Seven thousand years ago, the planet had no cities. The earliest ones appeared in the Tigris-Euphrates, Nile, and Indus River valleys between 6,000 and 4,000 years ago, though only a tiny percentage of global population lived in them. As recently as 1800 CE, only about 3 percent of humans inhabited towns of 5,000 or more people. Today, however, about 50 percent live in cities. Tokyo, the world's biggest city at present, has more than 37 million inhabitants, a number perhaps nearly equal to the population of the entire planet 5,000 years ago. Of the 25 biggest cities in the world today, only two—New York and Los Angeles—are in the United States. Some cities have become gigantic so recently that many Americans might have trouble finding them on a map—for example, Dhaka, Shenzhen, or Lagos.

The world's rural, that is, nonurban population lives in small towns, villages, farmsteads, or nomad camps. As of 2010, less than 20 percent of the United States population was rural. By contrast, Africa today is about two-thirds rural, despite the continent's many big cities. Living in the country, however, does not necessarily mean that people have plenty of room for themselves. On the island of Java in Indonesia, for example, there are about 2,000 people per square mile, most of them farmers.

Human migration is another important part of population history. The first great migration was the peopling of the earth. That process started on the eastern side of tropical Africa and, by 14,000 years ago or perhaps earlier, human groups had reached the southern end of South America. Since then, people have continued to travel and migrate, sometimes short distances, sometimes very long ones. The distribution of populations in terms of the country or region people inhabit has constantly changed. Large numbers have migrated permanently to new homes, but

others have moved temporarily to perform seasonal labor or to work for companies abroad. Most men and women who have migrated voluntarily have aimed to settle in new lands to seek better jobs or simply safety from war or famine or the effects of changes in climate, even though they do not necessarily find what they want when they reach their destination.

Large-scale and long-term migrations in world history have included human colonization of islands scattered across the Pacific Ocean, the movement of Bantu-speaking farmers throughout central and southern Africa, the forced migration of African slaves to the Americas, and the movement of Europeans in the nineteenth century to lands with temperate climates, especially to the United States, but also to South America, Russia, Australia, and South Africa. Rural-to-urban migration has also been a worldwide pattern. Cities have always attracted country people because they offer new occupations, military protection, social support, public services, and cultural variety. The communication and transport revolution that began with the railroad, steamship, and telegraph less than 300 years ago has made possible migratory movements at a much greater scale than in earlier eras.

* * * * *

Population growth and density have had a huge impact on how people live, work, and get along together. The presence today of more than 7 billion people on the planet represents a drastic change from just a century ago. Population growth, urbanization, and migration affect people's daily lives in countless ways. As of 2010, for example, nearly 13 per cent of the U.S. population was born outside its borders. In today's schoolrooms, therefore, students are more likely than ever to have been born in a different country or to have parents who were. This fact suggests the importance of understanding both the local and global demographic patterns that have shaped the kind of society that exists today.

Key Theme 2: Uses and Abuses of Power

Why don't people live in a world where all human beings are equally powerful, individuals cannot control the actions of one another, and no nation can dominate any other? It is well known that the president of the United States is much more powerful than individual citizens, heads of corporations are more powerful than employees, and the members of public school boards are more

powerful than teachers. Differences in power are present at many levels of human society: between individuals, between states, between social classes. In fact, power is all around.

Changes in power relations have been one of the central themes of history. Much of history, especially before modern times, is about monarchs and peasants, owners and slaves, empires and colonies, one race dominating another, or men dominating women.

Teachers and their students may ask many critical questions about power. Yet consolidation and use of power has existed in dynamic tension with the constant human quest to understand and define the relationship of people with one another. The National Council for the Social Studies, in its Position Statement on Human Rights Education, notes: “Questions about rights and responsibilities of humans in society are as old as humankind. Cultures across the globe have for millennia identified people’s rights and guaranteed their protection. Even when tied to group identity—family, band, community, religion, class—socially-acknowledged rights have been used to support fairness, compassion for the poor, and justice for members and strangers. . . . As is often the case in human history, ideals proclaimed in the name of ‘We the People’ and conduct tolerated in actual practice have sometimes been in conflict.” http://www.socialstudies.org/positions/human_rights_education_2014 (accessed June 29, 2017).

For most of history, people lived in tiny, familylike communities that moved periodically during the year. These bands experienced power as personal relationships, as they do in families today. As children grew up, they found themselves playing a part in already established power relationships. Parents normally had power over children, older community members over younger ones. Some individuals enjoyed temporary power because of special skills. For example, a woman or man who knew most about a rare food plant would likely be the person to lead an expedition to gather it. Power, therefore, seems always to have been a natural part of family and personal relations. Relationships in the community however, could turn violent, as they sometimes do in families today.

When agriculture began to emerge about 10,000 years ago, human communities started to grow. In some regions, people began to live in larger, denser settlements. In these communities—the earliest villages, towns, and cities—power relationships

were transformed. Why? In large communities, new types of problems appeared, and many occasions arose when people needed to act collectively. To do that, leaders, managers, or organizers were needed, which meant that ordinary people had to surrender some authority to leaders. People had to act together when under attack, to worship the gods together to ensure good harvests, and to work together to build temples or repair irrigation canals. If hundreds or even thousands of people had to be organized for a task, leaders had to take charge.

But how were leaders selected? In foraging bands and agrarian villages, they probably emerged quite naturally. In communities of that scale, extended families, or kinship groups of people related by birth, marriage, or adoption maintained social order and cooperation. Older members of these groups, as well as members of families that were larger or had been around longer, tended to enjoy higher status. In this way, the community sometimes regarded particular families as being the “natural” leaders.

Communities also chose leaders because of their particular skills, perhaps as fighters, peacemakers, alliance builders, or intermediaries between the community and the gods. Anthropologists have described leaders in relatively small-scale societies as “big men,” though in some cases they might be big women. These leaders collected valued goods from their family and friends and then gave them away in large feasts. Eventually, big men could call in these debts by demanding support from those who attended their feasts. In this way, big men accumulated special and sometimes permanent authority. However, if these leaders failed to lead effectively, they might be overthrown. Political power used to work along these lines—for example, among Native American societies of northwestern North America.

About 6,000 years ago, the state began to emerge. The state is a particular form of human organization. The concept of the state includes the idea of government, but the two terms do not mean exactly the same thing. A state is a population that inhabits a territory and that has a central governing authority. A state is assumed to possess sovereignty, which means that it is politically independent of other states and recognizes no authority above itself. In world history, states have varied greatly in size and organization, from city-states centered on a single urban area to huge multiethnic empires. The state possesses a government, which is the group of people and system of institutions that administers and regulates the affairs of the state.

The elements of central government may include, depending on the period of history and a variety of other factors, a supreme ruler (monarch or emperor), a small ruling group (oligarchy), an elected head of state, a code of laws, lawmaking bodies, a bureaucratic administration, a system of courts, a police force, and an army.

Among several types of governments, monarchies and oligarchies were common in premodern times, republics and constitutional monarchies since the nineteenth century. Yet many ancient societies developed codes of laws and rules of public conduct that sought to define and place limitations on the power of rulers and to establish an ethical basis for civic engagement. Examples such as the Code of Hammurabi, the Torah, the Upanishads, the laws of republican Rome, the Analects of Confucius, and the like antedate the Magna Carta and exist across a broad cultural and geographic spectrum.

The earliest states known in Mesopotamia (mainly Iraq and Syria today) had just one city plus surrounding villages and agricultural land. But much larger states, even giant empires, eventually appeared, at first in Egypt more than 5,000 years ago and in Mesopotamia about 4,300 years ago. A particularly spectacular example was the empire centered on Persia ruled by the Achaemenid Dynasty between the sixth and fourth centuries BCE. Its monarchs ruled millions of people and incorporated hundreds of cities and towns stretching for a time from Turkey and Egypt in the west to Afghanistan in the east. The Mongol empire that arose in the thirteenth century CE came to embrace, at its greatest extent, the lands of Eurasia stretching from Poland to Korea. In the later fifteenth century, the Inca Empire extended about 3,000 miles along South America's Pacific coast and Andean mountain spine.

Before modern times, a relatively small elite group controlled the governments of almost all states and held themselves apart from the mass of people over whom they ruled. Whether called king, queen, emperor, sultan, or shah, these rulers typically regarded themselves as the "owners" of the state and the state as their personal property. They expected personal loyalty from the wealthy families, administrators, judges, and soldiers who helped them rule.

Such governments controlled much of the state's resources, which they used freely to force the town-dwellers and farmers who made up most of the population

to pay taxes and do other things that they might not otherwise wish to do. The structure of the state was like a pyramid—a hierarchy of power in which all people were supposed to know which level they belonged on. From the royal household, military command, and top bureaucrats down to village chiefs, peasants, and slaves, everyone was expected to know who had more power and who had less.

Government and religious leaders usually made close alliances. Religious specialists typically enjoyed a generous income and privileges in return for teaching people that they had a moral duty to obey those above them in the hierarchy. Finally, all the premodern states that much is known about were patriarchal. Women exerted considerable informal power in the “private sphere,” whether in the royal palace or the peasant household, but on all levels of the social pyramid men tended to hold authority over women in public life.

Rather than constantly coerce and punish people, the governments of kingdoms and empires normally found it advantageous to get people to pay taxes, perform labor, and otherwise cooperate voluntarily. Peasants who felt continually repressed and terrorized tended to produce fewer of the crops and other resources that the government needed.

To keep the society and economy running smoothly, rulers typically sought the advice and opinions of local leaders, respected laws and customs much of the time, protected the population against invasions or other disasters, and maintained canals, roads, and marketplaces. Rulers and ruled commonly engaged in negotiations, though these were sometimes hidden from public view. Furthermore, premodern states did not have sophisticated enough communications or an administrative system to allow them to interfere much in the day-to-day lives of ordinary people, especially those who lived far from the major cities. In rural or remote provinces, most men and women dealt mainly with local chiefs, judges, and military officers. In these circumstances, the mass of population at the bottom levels of the pyramid often accepted their status to safeguard their families and get on with their lives. Riots and rebellions periodically broke out but usually only when poverty, hunger, or government brutality made people desperate.

In modern times, and especially in the last two centuries, the nature of states has dramatically changed. For one thing, the number of states in the world, both large and small, has declined from at least a few thousand just two or three

centuries ago to fewer than 200 today. Almost all of these sovereign states are members of the United Nations (U.N.). In addition, modern states, even relatively small ones, are much more powerful than earlier states were. Their governments intervene much more insistently in people's daily lives, partly due to much more powerful means of coercion and sophisticated communications technologies. In the contemporary period, the power of the state is sometimes seen as in contest with or influenced by the power of nongovernmental economic entities, such as large and multinational corporations whose economic power may influence the exercise of power by the state.

In the past two centuries and especially since the mid-twentieth century, many states have used wealth and technology to benefit their populations in numerous ways. Others, however, have used their resources mainly to benefit a relatively small ruling group. Repressive, authoritarian states such as Germany under the Nazis, Russia under Stalin, China under Mao Zedong, or Iraq under Saddam Hussein have aimed to eliminate as much as possible all layers of power or influence separating the central government, typically dominated by a single political party or group of military officers, from everyone else in the society. In the past few decades, fortunately, the number of states in which political leaders govern, keep order, protect rights, and work for economic prosperity in ways that involve the active, voluntary participation of the population have grown as a percentage of all sovereign states.

Modern states with strong democratic institutions, whether they are republics or constitutional monarchies, invariably possess certain key characteristics. One is the idea that individuals are citizens, not the personal subjects of the ruler, which was the case in most premodern states. Citizens have a basically impersonal rather than personal relationship with government officials. In democratic republics, for example, citizens have an interest in safeguarding the *office* of president, not in keeping a particular individual in the presidency for an indefinite period.

A second characteristic is the rule of law, the idea that not only does society have laws people are required to obey but that *everyone*, including the most powerful political leaders, is required to obey them. A third feature is the concept of accountability: the rulers, whether monarchs, prime ministers, or presidents, cannot do whatever they like but must account for their actions to the citizens by

abiding by the decisions of elected legislatures (representatives of the people) and by periodically submitting themselves to election.

The ideal that modern states *should* have these characteristics is nearly universal. Even the most ruthless dictators in modern world history claim to represent the will of the citizenry in order to make themselves seem legitimate in the eyes of the world. These rulers take the title of president, hold presidential elections (in which they are the only candidate!), and give lip service to constitutions and bills of rights. Democratic institutions in states like these are in reality extremely weak. World history also offers many examples of the institutions, which hold states together, completely collapsing as a consequence of invasions, civil wars, or economic disruption. In no state in the world, however, do modern democratic institutions work perfectly. To preserve them, citizens must be vigilant against political corruption, miscarriages of the rule of law, severe economic inequality, bureaucratic incompetence, and the excessive influence of special-interest groups. A challenge for large democratic societies is to maintain their democratic structure without succumbing to a coercive majoritarianism that overruns these different communities within communities.

In the electronic age, possessing and controlling information is a crucial way of exerting power. States, corporations, interest groups, universities, and other holders of power manage and disseminate floods of valuable information. Governments and other power groups from ancient times to today have had an interest in controlling the flow of knowledge and news, including official propaganda and commercial advertising. Understanding the complex relationship in history between information and power will help citizens consider more carefully the sources, accuracy, and validity of information they receive.

* * * * *

In our complex world, powerful individuals and groups affect people's lives every day. To deal with power, it is necessary to understand how it evolved in history. Many students in school today will grow up to exercise some degree of power as managers, executives, soldiers, parents, educators, or officeholders. A person's ethnicity, gender, age, occupation, wealth, education, and state of health may all affect the power exercised in his or her lifetime. Students need to see the history of states and their governments in the context of a long-term historical

perspective to understand how they work in people's lives today. The power that governments, corporations, armies, and other groups exercise also raises moral questions of right and wrong, and so does the power inherent in a particular socioeconomic, racial, ethnic, or indigenous status. How does society know when governments or corporations are using power appropriately? Is it ever right to try to overthrow a government? When is a country justified in using military power? Why should the rule of law apply equally to everyone? Learning how power has been used in the past helps society consider how it may be applied justly and compassionately.

Key Theme 3: Worlds of Exchange

People tend to take today's complex world economy for granted. Americans jog in shoes made in Indonesia, wear shirts made in Guatemala, and use smartphones whose components may be manufactured in several different countries. Columbian coffee, Argentinian beef, and Senegalese peanuts are consumed without awareness of the webs of exchange that brought those products to local stores.

People also tend to believe that international trade is a fairly recent development in world history. In fact, people have been exchanging products, technologies, and information, often over long distances, since Paleolithic times. The sea, air, and land routes that move goods around the world today are really complex extensions of networks of exchange that people began to organize long before the earliest cities arose.

Routes of commerce that connected the early river valley civilizations of Egypt, Mesopotamia, and the Indus River valley became gradually connected to other regional networks, eventually spreading across and interlocking most of Afroeurasia. Well before Europe became economically important on the world scene, China, India, and the Middle East routinely exchanged products by way of both the Inner Eurasian silk roads and the maritime routes of the Indian Ocean. Native Americans created ancient trade routes that linked far-flung areas of North America and ran along the Andean mountain spine. European desires to gain direct access to African gold and South Asian pepper inspired long voyages of exploration in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Those voyages greatly transformed older patterns of trade. For the first time in about 12,000 years,

people living in Afroeurasia and the Americas forged links with each other across both the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, making possible a truly globe-encircling system of exchange.

Over time, exchanges of goods across political or cultural frontiers have become progressively deeper, denser, and more intricate, linking more societies together over greater distances. Furthermore, exchanges have taken place at accelerating speed due to innovations in transport and communication. A big jump occurred, for example, in the nineteenth century following the invention of the telegraph, railroad, and steamship. The webs of telegraph lines and later undersea cables that wove the globe together are reminders that economic exchange has involved not only products but also information. The history of commerce has involved the exchange of all kinds of cultural and material information, from spear point design to gunpowder technology to Web site data. Furthermore, information about prices, transport schedules, and local market conditions has always been vital to producers, consumers, merchants, and investors.

Why have humans wanted to trade with one another for thousands of years? Their basic motive has been to acquire goods that could not be easily obtained where they live. The fact that people have inhabited widely contrasting ecological zones—temperate grasslands, tropical forests, desert oases—has encouraged exchange between these zones. For example, societies that, in earlier centuries, inhabited the great bend of the Niger River in West Africa and depended on grain farming and fishing for their livelihood traded local products with forest-dwellers to the south, who produced kola nuts and iron goods, and with Sahara Desert communities to the north, who mined and sold salt. In China, the Grand Canal that emperors of the Tang Dynasty began to build in the seventh century CE linked the moist, rice-producing southern regions with the drier, wheat-producing northern lands.

The exchange of goods has taken different forms. Barter, for example, is an ancient practice involving direct and reciprocal exchange of goods or services of supposed equal value: for example, farmers and pastoralists exchanging grain for animal products. This method worked well for local trade but was too cumbersome for long-distance exchange. Exchange of tokens of various kinds facilitated trade on larger scales.

In the first millennium BCE, merchants who moved goods long distances across Eurasia started using gold and silver as preferred mediums of exchange. The natural scarcity of these metals, together with their physical characteristics and malleability, made metals well suited as early money. The oldest evidence of the use of gold or silver coins comes from the kingdom of Lydia in Anatolia (modern Turkey) in the seventh century BCE. The shells of cowries, a small sea snail, came into use in West Africa as currency nearly 1,000 years ago. Cowrie shells had scarcity value there because merchants imported them thousands of miles from the Indian Ocean to routes leading south across the Sahara Desert.

Individual ethnic groups, cities, or regions have frequently specialized in providing particular products in the history of exchange. During much of the past 2,000 years, Chinese ceramic factories have supplied pottery to buyers all across Afroeurasia and, after 1500, around the world. In the early modern centuries, southern India was the leading exporter of cotton textiles to other regions. When states and empires have had the power to do it, they sought to control and tax the movement of products from one place to another.

Groups sharing language and culture have sometimes established trade diasporas. These are networks of merchants who have dispersed themselves across wide distances and specialized in developing, managing, and profiting from long-distance trade. The word *diaspora* means “scattering.” For example, the Phoenicians, whose home cities were clustered at the eastern end of the Mediterranean (what is now Syria, Lebanon, and Israel today), built a trade diaspora in the early first millennium BCE that extended as far west as Spain and Morocco. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, diasporas of French, English, and Native American hunters and traders in upper North America dealt in beaver and other furs, supplying a huge market in Europe.

Networks of economic exchange may be considered as made up of three levels nested in one another—local, regional, and long distance. Everyday products with relatively low value and high bulk, such as grain, dried fish, and timber, provided the basis of local exchanges between towns and the agricultural regions around them. Regional networks featured the exchange of more costly products, for example, textiles, pottery, or metal ware between one town and another in a region. Finally, long-distance trade knitted together cities widely distant from one another to exchange high-value commodities like spices, gold, silk, carpets,

or fine ceramics. In the sixteenth century, most regions of the world became interconnected, laying the basis for the global economy today.

The development of economic exchange networks and advances in technology have always been inseparable. The ability of societies to produce increasing quantities of food or manufactured goods, and to trade these things, has depended on advances in technology and technical skill. People have used and exchanged iron tools and weapons, for example, because artisans in Turkey, East Africa, and perhaps other places invented furnaces hot enough to smelt iron ore. Keeping track of quantities of goods became easier after writing systems were invented more than 5,000 years ago. In just the past few decades, computers have revolutionized the transmission and storage of economic and commercial information.

In recent centuries, successive technological innovations have made possible the transport of goods at faster speeds and in greater volume and at the same time reduced the number of workers required to handle flows of trade. The crew of a Spanish galleon in the sixteenth century, for example, might number 180 sailors. By contrast, crews of 20 or fewer people operate modern supertankers laden with 2 million barrels of crude oil.

Systems of production and exchange have also been dependent on the amount of energy that humans have been able to tap. The energy that people could harness with human and animal muscle power, wind, flowing water, or the heat of burning wood was limited and inefficient. In the eighteenth century, however, inventors and entrepreneurs, working mainly in England at first, found ways to both exploit coal as a fuel in much greater quantities and to drive machinery with pressurized steam.

This was the start of the industrial revolution, which allowed humans to burst through the energy ceiling that had previously kept production of food and manufactured goods under strict limits. Coal, petroleum, natural gas, electricity, and nuclear fission together multiplied many times the energy available to human society. Consequently, production, trade, and consumption have soared since the nineteenth century. Even though the world economy continues to have ups and down—that is, phases of growth and contraction—one can scarcely imagine what the upper limits of worldwide exchange might be in the future.

* * * * *

Throughout most of the past 200,000 years, humans have lived in small groups that mostly fed and clothed themselves. They traded with neighbors or strangers only for things they could not produce themselves. Today, by contrast, self-sufficient societies are almost unknown. Even the hundreds of millions of families in the world that continue to grow food for themselves depend on market exchanges for many of their needs. In the United States, only a tiny minority of families produces its own food.

Most Americans are dependent on the market for nearly all their material desires and needs. Most of the goods and information consumed originate from producers that are never seen or known. As working teenagers or fully employed adults, most Americans contribute something to the global economy. However, they usually do it in narrowly specialized ways: serving hamburgers, for example, or selling life insurance. In addition, fluctuations in production, finance, and trade in distant parts of the world may seriously affect the income, employment chances, and career plans that Americans have.

How did Americans become so dependent on the global economy, and how might that dependence affect the direction of their lives? Answers to these questions require world-scale perspectives—not only the “globalizing” developments of the past few decades—but also the long-term trends that transformed trade from a secondary human economic activity to one that hardly anyone can do without.

Key Theme 4: Haves and Have-Nots

In the Paleolithic era, which embraces most of the history of the human species, few differences of wealth, power, or social status separated individuals from one another. Foraging and hunting communities lived mobile lives, moving from camp to camp and carrying all their possessions with them. Individuals or families did not accumulate large amounts of goods because they could not haul them around and because they found food and other resources in their local neighborhoods. Much more important to these communities were their intangible possessions: networks of family and friends, knowledge of the environment, and stories and rituals to explain life, death, and the workings of supernatural forces. All these elements of culture were easy to carry around, and the idea of personal wealth had little meaning.

When communities that practiced farming and lived in one place most of the year began to appear about 10,000 years ago, ideas about wealth, possession, and personal power began to change. Unlike foragers, early farmers harvested seasonal crops and held food in granaries. As families began to accumulate wealth and to live in dense settlements, they had to confront the question of who had the right to consume stored and protected goods. The idea of personal ownership became more important and complicated.

In principle, most people in small farming communities might have thought that everyone should share equally whatever resources were available. However, in modern studies of many different types of human communities, anthropologists have shown that as communities get larger and more complex, wealth tends to get distributed more and more unequally. In the first few thousand years of the agrarian era, farming technologies and methods improved, allowing villages to grow larger. As that happened, certain families inevitably harvested more grain crops than their neighbors, raised more pigs or sheep, and built more spacious granaries. Perhaps some families worked especially hard, had better luck with harvests, gained control of richer land, or had more children to help with farming. Consequently the distribution of wealth among the families became more lopsided.

Additionally, as communities grew, some of them expanding into big towns and cities, they had to accept leaders to coordinate the activities of the whole group. As evident in Key Theme 2, the success and stability of communities required that leaders be given special power over other people. Leaders, whether chiefs, priests, or monarchs, also had to control at least part of the community's wealth in order to manage large public projects: for example, irrigation works, religious temples, or defensive walls. In this way, leaders and their families ended up controlling more wealth than most other people did. Furthermore, once leaders gained control of a substantial part of a society's wealth, they had to ensure their power by recruiting personal bodyguards, gangs of "enforcers," and even armies. It is not surprising, therefore, that until recent centuries the wealthy have almost always been the most powerful, and vice versa. Monarchs, aristocrats, generals, high bureaucrats, and religious leaders have almost always lived much more comfortably than those over whom they have ruled.

In the agrarian age, ruling elites amassed and consumed a great deal of wealth from farming, mining, city industries, and trade. They also collected taxes and

tributes on those productive activities to pay for their government bureaus, armies, communication systems, lavish royal courts, and luxurious lifestyles. In other words, ruling classes tended to “pump” their populations for wealth, spend it or squirrel it away, then go back to their populations to collect more.

As urban societies took up manufacturing and trade on a larger scale, however, the role of wealth began to change. Resourceful individuals found that wealth could be used to create more wealth by investing in productive enterprises. They might improve an irrigation system to grow crops for private sale in the marketplace, build a ship to undertake profitable long-distance trade, or open an inn to provide food and shelter to paying travelers.

Many features of market economies appeared in ancient times. Manufacturers, artisans, and merchants—sometimes of humble family origins—found that investing even a little wealth in some enterprise might not only make them rich but also buy social privileges or political influence. In the agrarian era, however, the wealthiest people were rarely private entrepreneurs. Rather, people at the top rungs of society acquired most of their wealth from control of productive land, often great farming estates worked by peasants and slaves. Those families usually passed their wealth and power to their own heirs. For ruling elites, their status was measured by noble ancestry, traditional privileges, and favorable laws. And as long as they could command plenty of laborers to farm their lands and work their mines, they were not usually interested in investing their wealth in new labor-saving technologies. The cost of labor was not a problem!

These attitudes began to change after about 400 years ago. As international commerce greatly expanded, especially after all the world’s inhabited continents were linked, investment of wealth in machine-based manufacturing, new mining techniques, better farming methods, and improved transport and communications systems made good economic sense. The industrial revolution of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries—based initially on the harnessing of energy from coal burning and steam engines—represented both an enormous expansion of human productive power and the generating of unheard-of amounts of wealth in the hands of relatively few people. In the early industrializing countries such as Britain, Belgium, the United States, Germany, and Japan, working people saw their living standards rise. Even so, the wealthiest members of society, which now included many more capitalist investors and entrepreneurs, became wealthier still.

One of the great ironies of the twentieth century was that colossal increases in economic productivity in the world did not produce betterment for all. Even though strong middle classes of relatively well-off people emerged in many countries, especially the most industrialized ones, the gap between an affluent minority at one end of the economic spectrum and an impoverished majority at the other end became wider. In 2011, for example, 42 percent of total global income went to the wealthiest 10 percent of the world's population, and 1 percent went to the poorest 10 percent.

Also, a *regional gap* has grown wider as well. Since ancient times, all agrarian societies had rich and poor social classes. But by the early twentieth century, differences in living standards correlated with social position not only *within* a society but also *between* societies in different parts of the world. For example, the wealthiest people in the major industrialized countries have tended to be much richer than the wealthiest people in developing countries. And wage-earning men and women in the United States or Western Europe have had higher living standards than working people in many countries of Africa or Latin America.

In the mid-twentieth century, the idea that all persons should be guaranteed certain basic economic and social rights, such as a place to live, a job with a living wage, necessary health care, education, protection in childhood and in old age, gained considerable support in international agreements. Yet, the institutionalization of these standards has lagged behind their initial expression.

Ever since the first dense agrarian societies arose, people have sought ways to explain and justify social gaps in both power and wealth. On the one hand, world religions have all taught that compassion, unselfishness, and moral responsibility were important virtues. Consequently, those at the top of the social pyramid lived with pressure from pious priests and holy teachers to improve the conditions of the poor and to govern with moderation and benevolence. On the other hand, religious leaders also allied themselves with ruling elites in the task of maintaining stable social order, opposing, for example, popular movements for social equality, which might “rock the boat.” Until quite recent times, therefore, all the major belief systems taught that some degree of social inequality was part of the natural order of things. The fact is that religions have both supported inequality and opposed it.

Is inequality an inevitable dimension of modern society? Or will a time come when there is enough wealth to ensure that all people live decent lives? Certainly, inequalities based simply on birth—that is, on the place in the social hierarchy that one’s family occupied—have faded in the past two centuries. It is also easier today than in premodern times for an individual from a poor background to become wealthy. The middle classes in the world today enjoy more material abundance than did most aristocrats in the past. At the same time, however, more people live close to starvation than ever before.

In the nineteenth century some European intellectuals theorized that nothing could be done about this. Poor people remain poor because they are lazy, incompetent, or stupid. Most modern explanations of inequality, however, are less harsh, recognizing numerous economic, social, and political factors that contribute to poverty. Indeed, many twentieth- and twenty-first century international agreements and national laws and charters have recognized a responsibility on the part of governments and economic powers to recognize basic levels of economic, social, and physical well-being as rights belonging to all people. Is it likely that rich nations maintain their wealth mainly by exploiting poorer nations? Or is it simply that the benefits of industrialization have not yet spread to many parts of the world? Will most countries eventually develop economically to the point that their inhabitants begin to enjoy the affluence that middle classes do in the richest countries? The yawning gap between the haves and have-nots and what is to be done about it is one of the great questions of this time.

* * * * *

No matter the country, social and economic inequalities among individuals and groups are part of daily experience. At the same time, many people deplore extreme or unjust inequalities, consider them contrary to the right of every person to live with a basic level of human dignity and well-being, and strive to lessen or eliminate them. Over the long run, the study of human history shows a clear connection between social inequality and the increasing size, density, and complexity of human societies.

History also shows that in the past few hundred years humans have made progress in reducing some forms of inequality, notably slavery, political power based on birth, and denial of social rights to women. From ancient times, extreme

inequalities have triggered social protests, revolts, and revolutions. Students should consider the connections, both now and in the past, between inequality, the consequences of social instability, and the rise of movements to fight injustice and poverty. Students may ask whether the growing gap between have and have-nots is a threat to democratic societies.

Key Theme 5: Expressing Identity

Who am I? What group do I belong to? Who are my friends? Who are my enemies? What is my identity? Knowing one's identity is like knowing where one's home base is. All humans need to know to which groups they belong and have a sense of what those group memberships entail.

The ability to think in complex ways about one's identity depends fundamentally on language. Being conscious of one's identity allows people to shape it in different ways and to change others' perceptions of them. Evidence from the Paleolithic era shows that people deliberately molded their personal identities by adopting distinctive bodily ornamentation—for example, wearing colorful beads or painting themselves with ochre pigment. Marks or decorations on the body, including tattoos, scars, piercings, and jewelry, make powerful statements about who people are. Is a person a man or a woman? An aristocrat or a peasant? A factory worker or an executive? In probably every society in the world, hairstyles, clothing, facial makeup, and gestures act as markers of identity. Even today, people can immediately tell a lot about each other by looking at dress, hair, makeup, and posture. In the 1988 movie *Working Girl*, for example, female characters communicate their different positions in the corporate hierarchy by their hairstyles (“big hair” for office staff, soft curls for executives) and the jewelry they wear (chunky versus fine).

Awareness of identity is important because it helps people make their way through the world. Knowing who one is in relation to others helps people to know who might have beliefs or attitudes in common with them, what is expected in social situations, and how others may react to their presence.

It may be helpful to think about what it would be like to suddenly lose one's identity. Imagine forgetting one's name, losing all documents proving one's identity, or enduring electronic “identity theft.” What would a person do? How

easy would it be to survive? In some societies in the past, men or women without a clear social identity were made outcasts. One of the worst punishments anyone could suffer was banishment from one's village or kinship group. This is a theme in Chinua Achebe's famous novel *Things Fall Apart*.

Throughout history people have found many ways to think about or express their identities. In small communities, identity has depended basically on knowing a person's relationship to his or her extended family—to kin. Kinship could be extremely complicated. Modern anthropologists who study small-scale societies often have to draw up complex maps to trace kinship links between different groups. These mental "identity maps" often determined whom one could or could not marry, one's occupation, or those who should be willing to trade favors with an individual.

After about 10,000 years ago, when societies in some parts of the world became much larger and when crowded cities arose, people joined in all sorts of new relationships. In large towns, people might develop a sense of identification not only with kin but also with neighbors who were unrelated but shared the same streets and markets every day. In pastoral societies, where groups moved long distances with flocks or herds each season to find grazing land, identifying with others on the basis of sharing a fixed territory did not work well. Claiming blood kinship ties far beyond the local scale was a more effective way of knowing which group of herders might be friendly and which might be thieves or raiders.

Anthropologists sometimes use the term *tribe* to describe the largest group in a region, especially in herding ways of life, that claims descent from a common ancestor. *Claims* is a key word here because groups that needed, for some reason, to cooperate with one another quite commonly invented kinship relations to establish a foundation of shared identity. ("We believe we are all descended from Ibn Khatib who lived long ago.") Pastoral peoples of the North American plains, the Sahara Desert, or Inner Eurasia (including the Mongols) were generally organized in tribes claiming shared descent from a distant ancestor.

In large societies—where people lived together in the thousands and traveled more frequently for trade, diplomacy, learning, or military service—identity that focused on kinship worked mainly on the local level. New markers of identity were needed when people found themselves dealing more frequently with complete

strangers. Members of different occupations therefore often identified themselves as having similar skills or knowledge by wearing distinctive clothing or by marrying their children into families pursuing the same occupation. From early agrarian times, soldiers, officials, and aristocrats have worn distinctive costumes or uniforms as markers of their social status or political authority. In some societies, for example, only aristocrats or high officers were allowed to carry weapons or ride horses. In the United States and many other countries, judges wear black robes as symbols of their identity as legal experts and as upholders of the rule of law.

As people traveled more, they became aware of belonging to larger communities, most of whose members they would never even meet. For example, people outwardly advertised their religious identity in various ways partly to know to signal to strangers shared spiritual beliefs and moral values. Members of one religious group might shave their heads, another wear their hair short, and a third grow it long or cover it with caps. There are many examples of men and women today identifying their religious affiliation with particular dress, headgear, ornamentation, or public behavior and ritual. In warfare, the clothing and ornaments soldiers wore identified which side they were on—an important marker to be sure! The War of the Roses in fifteenth century England (1483–85) is an example. The two sides in this struggle adopted roses as their symbols of identity and loyalty: one side a white rose, the other a red one.

Language has been one of the most powerful markers of identity because the speakers of a particular language share complex meanings through speech and writing that outsiders cannot understand. Visitors in a foreign city who share a common language often feel an instant rapport.

Throughout history, merchant groups have often preferred to deal with members of their own linguistic community because it tended to strengthen the trust so necessary in business. In modern times, migrants moving from one country to another frequently gravitate to particular regions or cities because they know they will find people who speak their native language and probably share many cultural beliefs and practices.

For thousands of years, people have become proficient at expressing multiple identities, not just one. Individuals who identified themselves one way with their families would likely have to “put on” a somewhat different identity when they

worked as a bodyguard for the local chief or carried goods to a neighboring village for trade. In the modern world, identities tend to be fluid and adjustable, not fixed. People have coexisting identities as children and parents, members of ethnic or religious groups, citizens of countries, affiliates of political parties, or fans of particular football teams. The way identity is expressed often depends on particular social contexts or situations. For example, an American teenager whose immigrant parents speak little English is likely to express one social identity at home and a somewhat different one at school.

Since the rise of the ideology of nationalism and the formation of nation-states, people have belonged to national groups, in a few cases numbering in the hundreds of millions. One scholar calls modern nation-states “imagined communities.” This means that the members of the nation do not, by and large, personally know one another. The identity they share exists in their imagination rather than in real relationships. In modern nation-states, individuals identify themselves as citizens, and they have the right to that state’s passport. Members of a particular state feel a common sense of identity because they are subject to the same set of laws, liable to service in the same army, obligated to pay the same taxes, or study the same curriculum in school. People also often express a deep emotional attachment to their national identity—their imagined communities—by displaying flags, singing songs, observing patriotic holidays, and using currency imprinted with the faces of past heroes or current monarchs on it. Furthermore, governments usually do everything they can to encourage citizens to identify with the state, especially with the governmental system as it exists. The way of thinking that is called *nationalism* is the modern form of identity that links citizens powerfully to their own governments.

Constructing accounts of history is one of the most powerful ways of strengthening national identity. Reading and thinking about the history of the nation-state to which one belongs is a way of identifying with citizens who lived in the past and with their ideals and achievements. History books may also teach children to identify with past revolutions or struggles for social justice. In France, for example, the French Revolution of 1789 continues to be a potent symbol of national identity.

Individuals who wrote great national histories, such as Charles Beard in the United States, helped create in millions of readers a powerful sense of national

belonging. Governments understand that the way people think about the past affects their attitudes about present conditions and where they place their loyalties and affections. Political leaders know that in a crisis citizens who have a strong sense of national identity will more likely make sacrifices or even fight and die for a national cause.

History also serves other identities besides the national one. For example, historical writing in recent decades about women and gender has thrown into relief the role of women’s movements and the shared sense of identity that communities of women have possessed. Twentieth-century historians devoted to Marxist ideology have written books about working class life that helped create a sense of solidarity among industrial workers. Racial, ethnic, and indigenous groups from African Americans to Aboriginal Australians to French Canadians have felt empowered by histories describing the trials and achievements of their own imagined communities. In the contemporary period, the special status of Indigenous Peoples as distinct from a purely ethnic or racial classification has been recognized by international agreements such as the U.N. Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples and many national laws.

* * * * *

Knowing one’s identity greatly influences behavior and how people behave toward others. A sense of shared identity expressed in many forms and situations has been a powerful shaper of human action throughout history. It can motivate people as powerfully as the desire for wealth or power, and it can lead to both calamity and heroism. History, as a discipline, is very much about identity. Studying the past means learning about the identities of many sorts of communities and how those identities may have appeared, changed, or vanished. Understanding the historical identities of the communities in which people feel they belong is a powerful way of defining one’s sense of distinctiveness in the world. In studying world history, teachers and students may ask whether they can feel a sense of identity with the whole of humankind, the “imagined community” to which all belong.

Key Theme 6: Science, Technology, and the Environment

The study of science and technology has to do with the changing ways in which humans have used knowledge to exploit their physical and natural surroundings for human benefit. As people have discovered more and more ways of extracting energy and making use of plants, animals, and minerals for their own purposes, they have begun to alter the biosphere—the zone of Earth that can support life—at an increasing pace. Though technological and scientific creativity has allowed the human species to multiply, it has also transformed the living conditions for all species on earth. Where these accelerating changes will lead is not yet known. They include, for example, an explosion of genetic knowledge that promises effective treatments for numerous diseases. But they also include global warming, which, if it continues, will have devastating effects on humankind’s future.

Over time, humans have learned to exploit a huge variety of different physical and natural environments with increasing efficiency. Today, though humans are only one of millions of species, they may control up to 40 percent of all the energy that enters the biosphere from sunlight. The environment includes both biological and physical surroundings. The word *technology* may be basically defined as the various methods, procedures, and tools that humans have used to get food and energy and to change the environment in useful ways—for example, to grow crops, build houses, or communicate through the Internet.

The word *science* is trickier to define. Normally, it refers to the forms of knowledge developed in recent centuries that enable humans to transform their environments faster than ever before. All human societies, however, have created theories about their environments, often embedded in religious traditions. For example, in the Middle Ages of Europe, most educated Christians accepted the description of the universe that the ancient Greek scholar Ptolemy worked out. He put Earth at the center of the universe, and the heavenly bodies were attached to transparent shells that surrounded Earth. Though not accepted by modern science, Ptolemy’s description offered a plausible explanation for the movements of the sun, the planets, and the stars. In a sense, all human societies attempt to explain the cosmos, the earth, and the mystery of life.

Sometime around 100,000 years ago, *Homo sapiens* acquired language and, with it, the capacity for what the historian David Christian has named *collective learning*. This meant that members of the human species can share complex knowledge with one another, accumulate and store knowledge, and pass knowledge to the next generation. No other species can do these things, except in very rudimentary ways. For example, equipped with language, the distant ancestors of humankind acquired the ability to share skill and understanding in using a new kind of tool, say, a sharper stone axe. Individuals could (1) give a name to that particular type of axe that thousands of other people in their neighborhood could recognize; (2) explain how to use the axe without having to give a demonstration; (3) discuss with others how the axe might benefit the welfare of the community; and (4) pass on to their children and grandchildren complex information about the axe and its uses. Technological knowledge could be transmitted from one community to another, sometimes over great distances. For example, knowledge of how to make flint tools by flaking them off a piece of rock spread all the way across Afroeurasia in the Paleolithic age. And flint tools alone allowed humans to change their local environments in many ways.

In the Paleolithic era, all humans lived by foraging, hunting, or fishing. Since their numbers worldwide were tiny compared to today, they had much less impact on the environment than humans did in later eras. This does not mean, however, that hunters and foragers had no impact at all. For example, in many parts of the world, foragers set fire to tracts of vegetation, sometimes large ones, to clear undergrowth, encourage new growth, and attract game (which came to eat the new growth). Early humans also had a big impact on many species of large animals, or megafauna, especially in the Americas, Australia, and Siberia. In those regions, animals encountered humans only between about 60,000 and 10,000 years ago and therefore had no evolved instincts for running away when people first appeared. Consequently, hunters wielding spears or bows rapidly depleted the number of large species such as mammoths, giant kangaroos, and sloths. Humans should probably be held responsible for the total extinction of many megafaunal species.

About 10,000 years ago, when agricultural societies started to appear, the pace of scientific and technological change sped up sharply. So did human effects on the environment. Early farming was based on new forms of knowledge and

technology, including tools and techniques for planting, irrigating, and harvesting, as well as for managing domestic animals. To increase production of the most useful plants and animals, humans began to get rid of plants and animals they did not want or need. They destroyed weeds and killed predators. They also transformed landscapes by clearing trees, digging irrigation ditches, terracing hills, and draining swamps.

The appearance of agriculture marks one of the most fundamental developments in history because it allowed people to extract much more energy and resources from a piece of land. As a result, population began to rise rapidly in places where farming was established. Knowledge of how to manage the environment accumulated faster than ever before. Technological advances included new ways of coping with cold climates, more complex systems for managing water in arid climates, and knowledge of how to weave textiles, make pottery, cast bronze weapons and tools, and construct large buildings such as temples and palaces. People also found ways to use more energy by harnessing animals to pull plows and using streams and rivers to drive water wheels.

Knowledge systems also became much more complex. In many societies, specialists studied the movements of the stars and planets in order to devise accurate calendars. Rulers then used that knowledge to coordinate public rituals, market day rotations, and tax-collection schedules. As wealth accumulated in societies, leaders also had to come up with new techniques to survey land and keep accounts, which stimulated development of writing systems and mathematics.

New technologies of communication and transport were particularly important because they encouraged people to exchange ideas and knowledge over large areas, which further stimulated collective learning. People in different parts of Afroeurasia began about 6,000 years ago to use animals for transport. Shipbuilding and sailing technologies multiplied the possibilities for contacts across wide seas, most spectacularly in the Pacific Ocean, where mariners sailed huge distances to settle the islands of Oceania. The ancient Chinese invented the magnetic compass for navigation; by the thirteenth century, this simple device was in use from the East China Sea to the Mediterranean. Inventions such as paper permitted people to communicate in words or pictures over longer distances and to store greater quantities of information.

In the past 10,000 years, advances in science and technology have had increasing effects on the physical and natural environment. These advances allowed humans to populate the earth in much larger numbers, raise agricultural production, build great cities, and experiment with many new forms of social and political organization. However, the spread of farming and metalworking also led to forest cutting on a large scale, and with it erosion and loss of productive hunting and crop-growing land. In some places, humans caused environmental changes that led to social catastrophe. In Mesopotamia in the late third millennium BCE, excessive buildup of salt deposits (salinization) on irrigated land undermined the productivity of the soil, leading to a gradual long-term decline in population in much of the region. In Mesoamerica toward the end of the first millennium CE, the Maya civilization collapsed, at least in part as a result of overexploitation of the land. In towns and cities around the world, the burning of wood and other fuels, as well as tanning and metalwork industries created extremely polluted environments, which seriously reduced life expectancies.

As communications and transportation technologies developed, exchange networks knitted large areas of the world together until, by the sixteenth century, all the major land areas of the world (excepting Australia until the late eighteenth century) became interconnected in a single global web of trade and cultural interaction. The fashioning of this global network gave a huge impetus to the development of even more new technologies and forms of knowledge. Information from all parts of the world contributed to a single global system of ideas, skills, and techniques.

For a time, Europe found itself at the center of this system because its fleets dominated so many international trade routes. As a result, Europe and, more broadly, the Atlantic region had an early advantage in benefiting from access to the existing global inventory of new ideas and technologies. This may be one reason why so many of the core ideas of modern science emerged in Europe between the sixteenth and eighteenth centuries, the era of the scientific revolution. In the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, this concentration of scientific knowledge laid the foundation for the industrial revolution. It first got underway in Britain. That country's economic connections to the wider world were crucial to industrialization's success.

At the heart of the new industrialization was the fossil fuel revolution. Coal, oil, and natural gas are called *fossil fuels* because they are made from fossilized plants and bacteria that contain much of the energy acquired from sunlight when they were alive. In burning fossil fuels, sunlight energy that has been stored in natural underground “batteries” for several hundred million years is being used. New machines such as the steam engine and the railway locomotive allowed humans to harness huge amounts of energy stored in fossil fuels, especially coal at first. Miners used steam engines to pump water from underground shafts and tunnels, allowing extraction of coal on a much larger scale than ever before. And steam locomotives carried coal relatively inexpensively from mines to factories and homes. In a sense, the fossil fuel revolution came just in the nick of time because by the eighteenth century the growth of world population, the continuing spread of farming, and the accelerating pace of deforestation were causing increasing shortages of energy.

Rapid technological change has produced dangers as well as benefits. Industrialization and the accompanying rapid growth of world population have speeded up rather than slowed deforestation and overexploitation of land. Burning vast quantities of fossil fuels worldwide has begun to transform the atmosphere in ways that will lead to catastrophic climatic change in the absence of strong countermeasures. New forms of social inequality have emerged because those nations and peoples that first acquired advanced machines and weapons gained military, economic, and political advantages over societies that lagged behind technologically. Indeed, the concentration of technological and scientific skill in Western Europe, North America, and Japan beginning in the mid-nineteenth century allowed mainly the peoples of those regions to dominate the rest of the world politically and economically for about a century and a half.

The human species has been astonishingly inventive. The benefits of scientific and technological advances have been immense: in global communication, farm productivity, medical treatment, useful genetic modification, availability of material goods, and, for hundreds of millions, higher standards of living than humankind could have dreamed of just 200 years ago. But human inventiveness has also brought gaping social and economic imbalances in the world and an array of new dangers: from extinction of animal species to nuclear terrorism. Unless these serious threats and inequalities are addressed and the worst problems are

solved, the human species could conceivably be set back hundreds or thousands of years, just as excessive exploitation of the land ruined great societies in ancient Mesopotamia and Mesoamerica.

* * * * *

As living organisms, humans need to draw energy and resources from their environment. How they have done this from Paleolithic times to the present is one of history's dramatic stories. Science and technology have transformed the daily lives of all peoples. Making sense of the world and understanding how and why people live the way they do require at least some grasp of the immense technological and scientific changes that have occurred in the world, especially in the past two centuries, though this period represents barely a page in the long chronicle of human history. The world's population could never have reached its current level of nearly 7.4 billion without the mastery of nature that human knowledge and skill have afforded. Simply feeding billions of people has depended upon the continuous accumulation of new ideas and techniques for irrigating land, mechanizing farming, genetically modifying seeds, moving goods from place to place, and organizing business and finance. However, history shows that these systems might be more fragile than believed. Therefore, the history of humankind's changing relationship to the natural and physical world cannot be ignored.

Key Theme 7: Spiritual Life and Moral Codes

How have ideas of morality and spirituality shaped history? How has human spirituality changed in the course of history? The word *spirituality* refers to human awareness of a transcendental state of being, one that is beyond the material world of everyday life. It may mean belief in a supreme creator, in an afterlife, or in the existence of mysterious spirits and magical forces. People's sense of spirituality shapes how they think of the world and their place in it. It also shapes their sense of morality, that is, the way in which they recognize differences between right and wrong. Spirituality has been a powerful force in human history.

Do animals have a sense of spirituality or morality? All animals have to learn that some behaviors work well, and others do not. But being aware of morality, like being aware of identity, appears to be uniquely human. Only humans have language, which allows them to think about the rightness or wrongness of their

behavior. The same is probably true of spirituality. Symbolic language allows people to express and share information, not just about what is in front of them, but also about things that cannot be seen with human eyes. Language lets humans think and talk about God, angels, saints, demons, fairies, heaven, and hell. Only humans, it seems, can conceive of a spiritual realm.

From what is known, all human communities have had ideas of a spiritual realm and of rules for right and wrong behavior. However, different communities have thought about those things in an astonishing variety of ways. People have often fought, killed, or died to put forth or defend their own ideas of spirituality and morality. A belief or practice that one community considers normal may seem totally unacceptable to another. For example, some religious groups regard consumption of pork as normal, while others deplore or prohibit it.

What can be known of the spiritual life of humans in Paleolithic times? Archaeologists have found many objects that look as if they might have had spiritual meaning to those who created them. Fifteen thousand years ago in southern Europe, people took the trouble to crawl far back into the dark reaches of a cave to carve clay statuettes of bison that hardly anyone was ever likely to see. It is not known why they did that but certainly not merely to amuse themselves or to make “art for art’s sake.” What about cave paintings that show hunters stalking animals? Were these works possibly designed to cast a spell over animal prey? One cave painting includes the picture of a man who looks, to modern eyes, like a priest or wizard—in other words, a person with some spiritual function. The problem is that so little is understood about the wider social or cultural contexts in which works like these were produced and used in the distant past.

There are some theories. Anthropologists have studied the spiritual beliefs of small, relatively isolated communities that exist today. In many of these communities, there may be no clear borderline between the human and spiritual worlds. One feature that seems to appear in all small-scale communities is *animism*. This is the belief that the world is full of spirits and that one must coexist and communicate with them to survive. The community may regard natural objects and forces, such as wind, trees, the sun, and stars as members of a huge and varied family. However, people may not always think of spirits as more powerful or more moral than humans. Spirits may be like family members. Some are good and helpful, but others are bad, fickle, dangerous, or stupid.

How did people contact the spirit world? They might hear spirits in a thunderstorm or make contact through dreams or rituals. Frequently, communities looked for help from individuals believed to have special gifts for communicating with the spirits. In Siberia and several other parts of the world, such specialists have been known generally as *shamans*. These are women or men who have the power to go into a trance. In that state, they may “fly” to the spirit realm to talk, fight, or plead with spirits. Upon returning to the human world, shamans tell other people what happened and how individuals or the community should behave in response—for example, that they should perform certain rituals to stop an epidemic.

After about 10,000 years ago, when larger-scale societies began to appear, people’s sense of spirituality also changed. As communities became larger and cities arose, spiritual beings also became more potent and awe-inspiring. Priests and rulers began to take on the power that local shamans previously exercised. Rulers of early city-states and kingdoms often claimed spiritual power and identified themselves with particular gods. In Sumer, the region of southern Mesopotamia (Iraq today), each city had its own major deity, which the community represented in images of stone or wood. In the city of Uruk, for example, the goddess of love, known as Inanna, inhabited the “white temple.” This building stood atop a ziggurat, or stepped structure that dominated the whole town. In Sumer, every urban temple had its religious leaders, or priests, who had the job of pleasing the gods in endless rituals, festivals, and sacrifices. As the top social class, the priests claimed the right to command the population and economy, ruling the city. Religious teachings supported the right of the rulers to accumulate wealth and wield power. Priests told the population that if they wished to receive the blessing of the gods they should be obedient.

From the third millennium BCE, when bigger states, indeed empires, began to appear, rulers almost always associated themselves with powerful deities. In ancient Egypt or the later Roman Empire, for example, rulers claimed to be not only deputies of gods but actual deities themselves. In the ancient Mediterranean and other regions, people thought of their numerous gods and goddesses as part of a pantheon, or “household” of deities that controlled the universe as one big and sometimes quarreling family. Stories about the gods were at the heart of oral and literary traditions, and children learned about duties and obligations, right and wrong behavior, from the examples that gods and goddesses set.

In Afroeurasia in the middle centuries of the first millennium BCE, belief systems emerged that eventually became world religions. These systems focused on a single supreme god or cosmic, creative power. They also appealed to people of differing languages and cultural traditions, not just the members of a single city or local area. Most of these systems, though not all, were “universalist” in that they preached their message to whoever would listen, not just to particular groups. Universalist religions include, for example, Hinduism, Zoroastrianism, Buddhism, Sikhism, Christianity, Daoism, Manicheanism, and Islam. Judaism, which took shape as a distinctive belief system in the first millennium BCE, shared its monotheism, or belief in one God, with Christianity and Islam. Jews, however, did not take up a universalist mission; instead they transmitted their faith mainly within the community believed to descend from the early Hebrews. Confucianism also emerged in the mid first millennium BCE, but as a belief system it has emphasized moral and ethical behavior much more than spiritual teachings.

All the world religions embrace varying beliefs, practices, and sects. None is homogeneous or uniform. For example, in Islam, Sunnism and Shi’ism constitute two major branches with somewhat differing beliefs. In fact, the Shi’a tradition has several branches of its own. In the Christian tradition, Roman Catholics, Greek Orthodox Catholics, Protestants, and other groups all share basic monotheism but with numerous differences in doctrine, ritual, and practice.

Most major religious traditions also incorporate two important dimensions. One of them involves people joining together for public worship, scriptural study, and mutual moral and social support. The other, which in some traditions is characterized as mysticism, is concerned with the individual’s search for knowledge of God, union with the divine, transcendent experience, healing, and salvation. For millions of people, religious experience may involve both dimensions.

Today, many people argue that modern science presents a powerful challenge to religion because it offers explanations of nature, the cosmos, and human origins that require no reference to God or any other manifestation of spiritual power. In addition, the material evidence presented by science to support a description of the natural and physical universe has continued to grow, especially during the past few centuries. For some people, science and religion start from such contradictory premises that they cannot be reconciled. This perceived contradiction may even be a source of profound bewilderment or

dismay. Other people, however, find no trouble accepting the propositions of modern science while at the same time expressing faith in a transcendent creative power.

Principles and standards of ethical behavior are as important to peace, order, and social cooperation in the world as they have ever been. Science, however, has very little to say about ethics. In addition, persistent poverty, environmental degradation, epidemic disease, and crime have defied the best efforts of humanity's scientific imagination. Amid the distresses and dangers of the contemporary era, people have sought not only communal ties to one another but also moral and spiritual certainties. Spiritual quests and ethical questions continue to be a vital part of human cultural life.

* * * * *

For most of history, spiritual ideas have been at the core of how humans understand and explain the workings of the natural, physical, and social world. No wonder that people have stood up, and sometimes died, for their religious principles, or that societies have built their sense of unity and identity around their spiritual traditions. How people explain the world and find meaning in it shapes their hopes, fears, and behavior toward one another. Young people who struggle today with spiritual questions and uncertainties should understand how and why these yearnings have always been among the most powerful shapers of the human past.

Human beings learned long ago that peace, order, and cooperation in social groups—whether they be families, foraging bands, business partnerships, or nation-states—depend in the long run on guiding principles, standards, and rules of moral behavior. Systems of morality and ethics vary around the world, but all of them are founded on ideals of social harmony and trust. Moreover, successful collective learning among human communities requires forthrightness, honesty, and trust between both individuals and groups.

Belief systems embody the shared moral and ethical expectations that allow humans to get along in peace and to learn systematically from one another. These expectations have influenced the development of political institutions and the rules surrounding the exercise of power. The history of the use and abuse of power—governmental, military, economic, and so on—intersects in key dimensions with

Problems, Questions, and Themes in the History and Geography Classroom

the history of the development and evolution of religious traditions, moral codes, and ethical standards.

APPENDIX C

History–Social Science Content Standards

KINDERGARTEN THROUGH GRADE FIVE

Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills

The intellectual skills noted below are to be learned through, and applied to, the content standards for kindergarten through grade five. They are to be assessed *only in conjunction with* the content standards in kindergarten through grade five.

In addition to the standards for kindergarten through grade five, students demonstrate the following intellectual, reasoning, reflection, and research skills:

Chronological and Spatial Thinking

1. Students place key events and people of the historical era they are studying in a chronological sequence and within a spatial context; they interpret time lines.
2. Students correctly apply terms related to time, including *past, present, future, decade, century, and generation*.

3. Students explain how the present is connected to the past, identifying both similarities and differences between the two, and how some things change over time and some things stay the same.
4. Students use map and globe skills to determine the absolute locations of places and interpret information available through a map's or globe's legend, scale, and symbolic representations.
5. Students judge the significance of the relative location of a place (e.g., proximity to a harbor, on trade routes) and analyze how relative advantages or disadvantages can change over time.

Research, Evidence, and Point of View

1. Students differentiate between primary and secondary sources.
2. Students pose relevant questions about events they encounter in historical documents, eyewitness accounts, oral histories, letters, diaries, artifacts, photographs, maps, artworks, and architecture.
3. Students distinguish fact from fiction by comparing documentary sources on historical figures and events with fictionalized characters and events.

Historical Interpretation

1. Students summarize the key events of the era they are studying and explain the historical contexts of those events.
2. Students identify the human and physical characteristics of the places they are studying and explain how those features form the unique character of those places.
3. Students identify and interpret the multiple causes and effects of historical events.
4. Students conduct cost-benefit analyses of historical and current events.

KINDERGARTEN**Learning and Working Now and Long Ago**

Students in kindergarten are introduced to basic spatial, temporal, and causal relationships, emphasizing the geographic and historical connections between the world today and the world long ago. The stories of ordinary and extraordinary people help describe the range and continuity of human experience and introduce the concepts of courage, self-control, justice, heroism, leadership, deliberation, and individual responsibility. Historical empathy for how people lived and worked long ago reinforces the concept of civic behavior: how we interact respectfully with each other, following rules, and respecting the rights of others.

K.1 Students understand that being a good citizen involves acting in certain ways.

1. Follow rules, such as sharing and taking turns, and know the consequences of breaking them.
2. Learn examples of honesty, courage, determination, individual responsibility, and patriotism in American and world history from stories and folklore.
3. Know beliefs and related behaviors of characters in stories from times past and understand the consequences of the characters' actions.

K.2 Students recognize national and state symbols and icons such as the national and state flags, the bald eagle, and the Statue of Liberty.

K.3 Students match simple descriptions of work that people do and the names of related jobs at the school, in the local community, and from historical accounts.

K.4 Students compare and contrast the locations of people, places, and environments and describe their characteristics.

1. Determine the relative locations of objects using the terms near/far, left/right, and behind/in front.

2. Distinguish between land and water on maps and globes and locate general areas referenced in historical legends and stories.
3. Identify traffic symbols and map symbols (e.g., those for land, water, roads, cities).
4. Construct maps and models of neighborhoods, incorporating such structures as police and fire stations, airports, banks, hospitals, supermarkets, harbors, schools, homes, places of worship, and transportation lines.
5. Demonstrate familiarity with the school’s layout, environs, and the jobs people do there.

K.5 Students put events in temporal order using a calendar, placing days, weeks, and months in proper order.

K.6 Students understand that history relates to events, people, and places of other times.

1. Identify the purposes of, and the people and events honored in, commemorative holidays, including the human struggles that were the basis for the events (e.g., Thanksgiving, Independence Day, Washington’s and Lincoln’s Birthdays, Martin Luther King Jr. Day, Memorial Day, Labor Day, Columbus Day, Veterans Day).
2. Know the triumphs in American legends and historical accounts through the stories of such people as Pocahontas, George Washington, Booker T. Washington, Daniel Boone, and Benjamin Franklin.
3. Understand how people lived in earlier times and how their lives would be different today (e.g., getting water from a well, growing food, making clothing, having fun, forming organizations, living by rules and laws).

GRADE ONE**A Child’s Place in Time and Space**

Students in grade one continue a more detailed treatment of the broad concepts of rights and responsibilities in the contemporary world. The classroom serves as a microcosm of society in which decisions are made with respect for individual responsibility, for other people, and for the rules by which we all must live: fair play, good sportsmanship, and respect for the rights and opinions of others. Students examine the geographic and economic aspects of life in their own neighborhoods and compare them to those of people long ago. Students explore the varied backgrounds of American citizens and learn about the symbols, icons, and songs that reflect our common heritage.

1.1 Students describe the rights and individual responsibilities of citizenship.

1. Understand the rule-making process in a direct democracy (everyone votes on the rules) and in a representative democracy (an elected group of people makes the rules), giving examples of both systems in their classroom, school, and community.
2. Understand the elements of fair play and good sportsmanship, respect for the rights and opinions of others, and respect for rules by which we live, including the meaning of the “Golden Rule.”

1.2 Students compare and contrast the absolute and relative locations of places and people and describe the physical and/ or human characteristics of places.

1. Locate on maps and globes their local community, California, the United States, the seven continents, and the four oceans.
2. Compare the information that can be derived from a three-dimensional model to the information that can be derived from a picture of the same location.
3. Construct a simple map, using cardinal directions and map symbols.

4. Describe how location, weather, and physical environment affect the way people live, including the effects on their food, clothing, shelter, transportation, and recreation.

1.3 Students know and understand the symbols, icons, and traditions of the United States that provide continuity and a sense of community across time.

1. Recite the Pledge of Allegiance and sing songs that express American ideals (e.g., “America”).
2. Understand the significance of our national holidays and the heroism and achievements of the people associated with them.
3. Identify American symbols, landmarks, and essential documents, such as the flag, bald eagle, Statue of Liberty, U.S. Constitution, and Declaration of Independence, and know the people and events associated with them.

1.4 Students compare and contrast everyday life in different times and places around the world and recognize that some aspects of people, places, and things change over time while others stay the same.

1. Examine the structure of schools and communities in the past.
2. Study transportation methods of earlier days.
3. Recognize similarities and differences of earlier generations in such areas as work (inside and outside the home), dress, manners, stories, games, and festivals, drawing from biographies, oral histories, and folklore.

1.5 Students describe the human characteristics of familiar places and the varied backgrounds of American citizens and residents in those places.

1. Recognize the ways in which they are all part of the same community, sharing principles, goals, and traditions despite their varied ancestry; the forms of diversity in their school and community; and the benefits and challenges of a diverse population.

2. Understand the ways in which American Indians and immigrants have helped define Californian and American culture.
3. Compare the beliefs, customs, ceremonies, traditions, and social practices of the varied cultures, drawing from folklore.

1.6 Students understand basic economic concepts and the role of individual choice in a free-market economy.

1. Understand the concept of exchange and the use of money to purchase goods and services.
2. Identify the specialized work that people do to manufacture, transport, and market goods and services and the contributions of those who work in the home.

GRADE TWO

People Who Make a Difference

Students in grade two explore the lives of actual people who make a difference in their everyday lives and learn the stories of extraordinary people from history whose achievements have touched them, directly or indirectly. The study of contemporary people who supply goods and services aids in understanding the complex interdependence in our free-market system.

2.1 Students differentiate between things that happened long ago and things that happened yesterday.

1. Trace the history of a family through the use of primary and secondary sources, including artifacts, photographs, interviews, and documents.
2. Compare and contrast their daily lives with those of their parents, grandparents, and/or guardians.
3. Place important events in their lives in the order in which they occurred (e.g., on a time line or storyboard).

2.2 Students demonstrate map skills by describing the absolute and relative locations of people, places, and environments.

1. Locate on a simple letter-number grid system the specific locations and geographic features in their neighborhood or community (e.g., map of the classroom, the school).
2. Label from memory a simple map of the North American continent, including the countries, oceans, Great Lakes, major rivers, and mountain ranges. Identify the essential map elements: title, legend, directional indicator, scale, and date.
3. Locate on a map where their ancestors live(d), telling when the family moved to the local community and how and why they made the trip.
4. Compare and contrast basic land use in urban, suburban, and rural environments in California.

2.3 Students explain governmental institutions and practices in the United States and other countries.

1. Explain how the United States and other countries make laws, carry out laws, determine whether laws have been violated, and punish wrongdoers.
2. Describe the ways in which groups and nations interact with one another to try to resolve problems in such areas as trade, cultural contacts, treaties, diplomacy, and military force.

2.4 Students understand basic economic concepts and their individual roles in the economy and demonstrate basic economic reasoning skills.

1. Describe food production and consumption long ago and today, including the roles of farmers, processors, distributors, weather, and land and water resources.
2. Understand the role and interdependence of buyers (consumers) and sellers (producers) of goods and services.
3. Understand how limits on resources affect production and consumption (what to produce and what to consume).

2.5 Students understand the importance of individual action and character and explain how heroes from long ago and the recent past have made a difference in others' lives (e.g., from biographies of Abraham Lincoln, Louis Pasteur, Sitting Bull, George Washington Carver, Marie Curie, Albert Einstein, Golda Meir, Jackie Robinson, Sally Ride).

GRADE THREE

Continuity and Change

Students in grade three learn more about our connections to the past and the ways in which particularly local, but also regional and national, government and traditions have developed and left their marks on current society, providing common memories. Emphasis is on the physical and cultural landscape of California, including the study of American Indians, the subsequent arrival of immigrants, and the impact they have had in forming the character of our contemporary society.

3.1 Students describe the physical and human geography and use maps, tables, graphs, photographs, and charts to organize information about people, places, and environments in a spatial context.

1. Identify geographical features in their local region (e.g., deserts, mountains, valleys, hills, coastal areas, oceans, lakes).
2. Trace the ways in which people have used the resources of the local region and modified the physical environment (e.g., a dam constructed upstream changed a river or coastline).

3.2 Students describe the American Indian nations in their local region long ago and in the recent past.

1. Describe national identities, religious beliefs, customs, and various folklore traditions.
2. Discuss the ways in which physical geography, including climate, influenced how the local Indian nations adapted to their natural environment (e.g., how they obtained food, clothing, tools).
3. Describe the economy and systems of government, particularly those with tribal constitutions, and their relationship to federal and state governments.
4. Discuss the interaction of new settlers with the already established Indians of the region.

3.3 Students draw from historical and community resources to organize the sequence of local historical events and describe how each period of settlement left its mark on the land.

1. Research the explorers who visited here, the newcomers who settled here, and the people who continue to come to the region, including their cultural and religious traditions and contributions.
2. Describe the economies established by settlers and their influence on the present-day economy, with emphasis on the importance of private property and entrepreneurship.
3. Trace why their community was established, how individuals and families contributed to its founding and development, and how the community has changed over time, drawing on maps, photographs, oral histories, letters, newspapers, and other primary sources.

3.4 Students understand the role of rules and laws in our daily lives and the basic structure of the U.S. government.

1. Determine the reasons for rules, laws, and the U.S. Constitution; the role of citizenship in the promotion of rules and laws; and the consequences for people who violate rules and laws.
2. Discuss the importance of public virtue and the role of citizens, including how to participate in a classroom, in the community, and in civic life.
3. Know the histories of important local and national landmarks, symbols, and essential documents that create a sense of community among citizens and exemplify cherished ideals (e.g., the U.S. flag, the bald eagle, the Statue of Liberty, the U.S. Constitution, the Declaration of Independence, the U.S. Capitol).
4. Understand the three branches of government, with an emphasis on local government.
5. Describe the ways in which California, the other states, and sovereign American Indian tribes contribute to the making of our nation and participate in the federal system of government.

6. Describe the lives of American heroes who took risks to secure our freedoms (e.g., Anne Hutchinson, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, Frederick Douglass, Harriet Tubman, Martin Luther King, Jr.).

3.5 Students demonstrate basic economic reasoning skills and an understanding of the economy of the local region.

1. Describe the ways in which local producers have used and are using natural resources, human resources, and capital resources to produce goods and services in the past and the present.
2. Understand that some goods are made locally, some elsewhere in the United States, and some abroad.
3. Understand that individual economic choices involve trade-offs and the evaluation of benefits and costs.
4. Discuss the relationship of students’ “work” in school and their personal human capital.

GRADE FOUR

California: A Changing State

Students learn the story of their home state, unique in American history in terms of its vast and varied geography, its many waves of immigration beginning with pre-Columbian societies, its continuous diversity, economic energy, and rapid growth. In addition to the specific treatment of milestones in California history, students examine the state in the context of the rest of the nation, with an emphasis on the U.S. Constitution and the relationship between state and federal government.

4.1 Students demonstrate an understanding of the physical and human geographic features that define places and regions in California.

1. Explain and use the coordinate grid system of latitude and longitude to determine the absolute locations of places in California and on Earth.
2. Distinguish between the North and South Poles; the equator and the prime meridian; the tropics; and the hemispheres, using coordinates to plot locations.
3. Identify the state capital and describe the various regions of California, including how their characteristics and physical environments (e.g., water, landforms, vegetation, climate) affect human activity.
4. Identify the locations of the Pacific Ocean, rivers, valleys, and mountain passes and explain their effects on the growth of towns.
5. Use maps, charts, and pictures to describe how communities in California vary in land use, vegetation, wildlife, climate, population density, architecture, services, and transportation.

4.2 Students describe the social, political, cultural, and economic life and interactions among people of California from the pre-Columbian societies to the Spanish mission and Mexican rancho periods.

1. Discuss the major nations of California Indians, including their geographic distribution, economic activities, legends, and religious beliefs; and describe how they depended on, adapted to, and modified the physical environment by cultivation of land and use of sea resources.

2. Identify the early land and sea routes to, and European settlements in, California with a focus on the exploration of the North Pacific (e.g., by Captain James Cook, Vitus Bering, Juan Cabrillo), noting especially the importance of mountains, deserts, ocean currents, and wind patterns.
3. Describe the Spanish exploration and colonization of California, including the relationships among soldiers, missionaries, and Indians (e.g., Juan Crespi, Junipero Serra, Gaspar de Portola).
4. Describe the mapping of, geographic basis of, and economic factors in the placement and function of the Spanish missions; and understand how the mission system expanded the influence of Spain and Catholicism throughout New Spain and Latin America.
5. Describe the daily lives of the people, native and nonnative, who occupied the presidios, missions, ranchos, and pueblos.
6. Discuss the role of the Franciscans in changing the economy of California from a hunter-gatherer economy to an agricultural economy.
7. Describe the effects of the Mexican War for Independence on Alta California, including its effects on the territorial boundaries of North America.
8. Discuss the period of Mexican rule in California and its attributes, including land grants, secularization of the missions, and the rise of the rancho economy.

4.3 Students explain the economic, social, and political life in California from the establishment of the Bear Flag Republic through the Mexican-American War, the Gold Rush, and the granting of statehood.

1. Identify the locations of Mexican settlements in California and those of other settlements, including Fort Ross and Sutter's Fort.
2. Compare how and why people traveled to California and the routes they traveled (e.g., James Beckwourth, John Bidwell, John C. Fremont, Pio Pico).

3. Analyze the effects of the Gold Rush on settlements, daily life, politics, and the physical environment (e.g., using biographies of John Sutter, Mariano Guadalupe Vallejo, Louise Clapp).
4. Study the lives of women who helped build early California (e.g., Biddy Mason).
5. Discuss how California became a state and how its new government differed from those during the Spanish and Mexican periods.

4.4 Students explain how California became an agricultural and industrial power, tracing the transformation of the California economy and its political and cultural development since the 1850s.

1. Understand the story and lasting influence of the Pony Express, Overland Mail Service, Western Union, and the building of the transcontinental railroad, including the contributions of Chinese workers to its construction.
2. Explain how the Gold Rush transformed the economy of California, including the types of products produced and consumed, changes in towns (e.g., Sacramento, San Francisco), and economic conflicts between diverse groups of people.
3. Discuss immigration and migration to California between 1850 and 1900, including the diverse composition of those who came; the countries of origin and their relative locations; and conflicts and accords among the diverse groups (e.g., the 1882 Chinese Exclusion Act).
4. Describe rapid American immigration, internal migration, settlement, and the growth of towns and cities (e.g., Los Angeles).
5. Discuss the effects of the Great Depression, the Dust Bowl, and World War II on California.
6. Describe the development and locations of new industries since the nineteenth century, such as the aerospace industry, electronics industry, large-scale commercial agriculture and irrigation projects, the oil and automobile industries, communications and defense industries, and important trade links with the Pacific Basin.

7. Trace the evolution of California’s water system into a network of dams, aqueducts, and reservoirs.
 8. Describe the history and development of California’s public education system, including universities and community colleges.
 9. Analyze the impact of twentieth-century Californians on the nation’s artistic and cultural development, including the rise of the entertainment industry (e.g., Louis B. Meyer, Walt Disney, John Steinbeck, Ansel Adams, Dorothea Lange, John Wayne).
- 4.5 Students understand the structures, functions, and powers of the local, state, and federal governments as described in the U.S. Constitution.**
1. Discuss what the U.S. Constitution is and why it is important (i.e., a written document that defines the structure and purpose of the U.S. government and describes the shared powers of federal, state, and local governments).
 2. Understand the purpose of the California Constitution, its key principles, and its relationship to the U.S. Constitution.
 3. Describe the similarities (e.g., written documents, rule of law, consent of the governed, three separate branches) and differences (e.g., scope of jurisdiction, limits on government powers, use of the military) among federal, state, and local governments.
 4. Explain the structures and functions of state governments, including the roles and responsibilities of their elected officials.
 5. Describe the components of California’s governance structure (e.g., cities and towns, Indian rancherias and reservations, counties, school districts).

GRADE FIVE

**United States History and Geography:
Making a New Nation**

Students in grade five study the development of the nation up to 1850, with an emphasis on the people who were already here, when and from where others arrived, and why they came. Students learn about the colonial government founded on Judeo-Christian principles, the ideals of the Enlightenment, and the English traditions of self-government. They recognize that ours is a nation that has a constitution that derives its power from the people, that has gone through a revolution, that once sanctioned slavery, that experienced conflict over land with the original inhabitants, and that experienced a westward movement that took its people across the continent. Studying the cause, course, and consequences of the early explorations through the War for Independence and western expansion is central to students' fundamental understanding of how the principles of the American republic form the basis of a pluralistic society in which individual rights are secured.

5.1 Students describe the major pre-Columbian settlements, including the cliff dwellers and pueblo people of the desert Southwest, the American Indians of the Pacific Northwest, the nomadic nations of the Great Plains, and the woodland peoples east of the Mississippi River.

1. Describe how geography and climate influenced the way various nations lived and adjusted to the natural environment, including locations of villages, the distinct structures that they built, and how they obtained food, clothing, tools, and utensils.
2. Describe their varied customs and folklore traditions.
3. Explain their varied economies and systems of government.

5.2 Students trace the routes of early explorers and describe the early explorations of the Americas.

1. Describe the entrepreneurial characteristics of early explorers (e.g., Christopher Columbus, Francisco Vásquez de Coronado) and the technological developments that made sea exploration by latitude and longitude possible (e.g., compass, sextant, astrolabe, seaworthy ships, chronometers, gunpowder).
2. Explain the aims, obstacles, and accomplishments of the explorers, sponsors, and leaders of key European expeditions and the reasons Europeans chose to explore and colonize the world (e.g., the Spanish Reconquista, the Protestant Reformation, the Counter Reformation).
3. Trace the routes of the major land explorers of the United States, the distances traveled by explorers, and the Atlantic trade routes that linked Africa, the West Indies, the British colonies, and Europe.
4. Locate on maps of North and South America land claimed by Spain, France, England, Portugal, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Russia.

5.3 Students describe the cooperation and conflict that existed among the American Indians and between the Indian nations and the new settlers.

1. Describe the competition among the English, French, Spanish, Dutch, and Indian nations for control of North America.
2. Describe the cooperation that existed between the colonists and Indians during the 1600s and 1700s (e.g., in agriculture, the fur trade, military alliances, treaties, cultural interchanges).
3. Examine the conflicts before the Revolutionary War (e.g., the Pequot and King Philip’s Wars in New England, the Powhatan Wars in Virginia, the French and Indian War).
4. Discuss the role of broken treaties and massacres and the factors that led to the Indians defeat, including the resistance of Indian nations to encroachments and assimilation (e.g., the story of the Trail of Tears).

5. Describe the internecine Indian conflicts, including the competing claims for control of lands (e.g., actions of the Iroquois, Huron, Lakota [Sioux]).
6. Explain the influence and achievements of significant leaders of the time (e.g., John Marshall, Andrew Jackson, Chief Tecumseh, Chief Logan, Chief John Ross, Sequoyah).

5.4 Students understand the political, religious, social, and economic institutions that evolved in the colonial era.

1. Understand the influence of location and physical setting on the founding of the original 13 colonies, and identify on a map the locations of the colonies and of the American Indian nations already inhabiting these areas.
2. Identify the major individuals and groups responsible for the founding of the various colonies and the reasons for their founding (e.g., John Smith, Virginia; Roger Williams, Rhode Island; William Penn, Pennsylvania; Lord Baltimore, Maryland; William Bradford, Plymouth; John Winthrop, Massachusetts).
3. Describe the religious aspects of the earliest colonies (e.g., Puritanism in Massachusetts, Anglicanism in Virginia, Catholicism in Maryland, Quakerism in Pennsylvania).
4. Identify the significance and leaders of the First Great Awakening, which marked a shift in religious ideas, practices, and allegiances in the colonial period, the growth of religious toleration, and free exercise of religion.
5. Understand how the British colonial period created the basis for the development of political self-government and a free-market economic system and the differences between the British, Spanish, and French colonial systems.
6. Describe the introduction of slavery into America, the responses of slave families to their condition, the ongoing struggle between proponents and opponents of slavery, and the gradual institutionalization of slavery in the South.

7. Explain the early democratic ideas and practices that emerged during the colonial period, including the significance of representative assemblies and town meetings.

5.5 Students explain the causes of the American Revolution.

1. Understand how political, religious, and economic ideas and interests brought about the Revolution (e.g., resistance to imperial policy, the Stamp Act, the Townshend Acts, taxes on tea, Coercive Acts).
2. Know the significance of the first and second Continental Congresses and of the Committees of Correspondence.
3. Understand the people and events associated with the drafting and signing of the Declaration of Independence and the document's significance, including the key political concepts it embodies, the origins of those concepts, and its role in severing ties with Great Britain.
4. Describe the views, lives, and impact of key individuals during this period (e.g., King George III, Patrick Henry, Thomas Jefferson, George Washington, Benjamin Franklin, John Adams).

5.6 Students understand the course and consequences of the American Revolution.

1. Identify and map the major military battles, campaigns, and turning points of the Revolutionary War, the roles of the American and British leaders, and the Indian leaders' alliances on both sides.
2. Describe the contributions of France and other nations and of individuals to the outcome of the Revolution (e.g., Benjamin Franklin's negotiations with the French, the French navy, the Treaty of Paris, The Netherlands, Russia, the Marquis Marie Joseph de Lafayette, Tadeusz Kościuszko, Baron Friedrich Wilhelm von Steuben).
3. Identify the different roles women played during the Revolution (e.g., Abigail Adams, Martha Washington, Molly Pitcher, Phillis Wheatley, Mercy Otis Warren).

4. Understand the personal impact and economic hardship of the war on families, problems of financing the war, wartime inflation, and laws against hoarding goods and materials and profiteering.
5. Explain how state constitutions that were established after 1776 embodied the ideals of the American Revolution and helped serve as models for the U.S. Constitution.
6. Demonstrate knowledge of the significance of land policies developed under the Continental Congress (e.g., sale of western lands, the Northwest Ordinance of 1787) and those policies' impact on American Indians' land.
7. Understand how the ideals set forth in the Declaration of Independence changed the way people viewed slavery.

5.7 Students describe the people and events associated with the development of the U.S. Constitution and analyze the Constitution's significance as the foundation of the American republic.

1. List the shortcomings of the Articles of Confederation as set forth by their critics.
2. Explain the significance of the new Constitution of 1787, including the struggles over its ratification and the reasons for the addition of the Bill of Rights.
3. Understand the fundamental principles of American constitutional democracy, including how the government derives its power from the people and the primacy of individual liberty.
4. Understand how the Constitution is designed to secure our liberty by both empowering and limiting central government and compare the powers granted to citizens, Congress, the president, and the Supreme Court with those reserved to the states.
5. Discuss the meaning of the American creed that calls on citizens to safeguard the liberty of individual Americans within a unified nation, to respect the rule of law, and to preserve the Constitution.

6. Know the songs that express American ideals (e.g., “America the Beautiful,” “The Star Spangled Banner”).

5.8 Students trace the colonization, immigration, and settlement patterns of the American people from 1789 to the mid-1800s, with emphasis on the role of economic incentives, effects of the physical and political geography, and transportation systems.

1. Discuss the waves of immigrants from Europe between 1789 and 1850 and their modes of transportation into the Ohio and Mississippi Valleys and through the Cumberland Gap (e.g., overland wagons, canals, flatboats, steamboats).
2. Name the states and territories that existed in 1850 and identify their locations and major geographical features (e.g., mountain ranges, principal rivers, dominant plant regions).
3. Demonstrate knowledge of the explorations of the trans-Mississippi West following the Louisiana Purchase (e.g., Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, Zebulon Pike, John Fremont).
4. Discuss the experiences of settlers on the overland trails to the West (e.g., location of the routes; purpose of the journeys; the influence of the terrain, rivers, vegetation, and climate; life in the territories at the end of these trails).
5. Describe the continued migration of Mexican settlers into Mexican territories of the West and Southwest.
6. Relate how and when California, Texas, Oregon, and other western lands became part of the United States, including the significance of the Texas War for Independence and the Mexican-American War.

5.9 Students know the location of the current 50 states and the names of their capitals.

GRADES SIX THROUGH EIGHT

Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills

The intellectual skills noted below are to be learned through, and applied to, the content standards for grades six through eight. They are to be assessed *only in conjunction with* the content standards in grades six through eight.

In addition to the standards for grades six through eight, students demonstrate the following intellectual reasoning, reflection, and research skills:

Chronological and Spatial Thinking

1. Students explain how major events are related to one another in time.
2. Students construct various time lines of key events, people, and periods of the historical era they are studying.
3. Students use a variety of maps and documents to identify physical and cultural features of neighborhoods, cities, states, and countries and to explain the historical migration of people, expansion and disintegration of empires, and the growth of economic systems.

Research, Evidence, and Point of View

1. Students frame questions that can be answered by historical study and research.
2. Students distinguish fact from opinion in historical narratives and stories.
3. Students distinguish relevant from irrelevant information, essential from incidental information, and verifiable from unverifiable information in historical narratives and stories.
4. Students assess the credibility of primary and secondary sources and draw sound conclusions from them.
5. Students detect the different historical points of view on historical events and determine the context in which the historical statements were made (the questions asked, sources used, author’s perspectives).

Historical Interpretation

1. Students explain the central issues and problems from the past, placing people and events in a matrix of time and place.
2. Students understand and distinguish cause, effect, sequence, and correlation in historical events, including the long-and short-term causal relations.
3. Students explain the sources of historical continuity and how the combination of ideas and events explains the emergence of new patterns.
4. Students recognize the role of chance, oversight, and error in history.
5. Students recognize that interpretations of history are subject to change as new information is uncovered.
6. Students interpret basic indicators of economic performance and conduct cost-benefit analyses of economic and political issues.

GRADE SIX

World History and Geography: Ancient Civilizations

Students in grade six expand their understanding of history by studying the people and events that ushered in the dawn of the major Western and non-Western ancient civilizations. Geography is of special significance in the development of the human story. Continued emphasis is placed on the everyday lives, problems, and accomplishments of people, their role in developing social, economic, and political structures, as well as in establishing and spreading ideas that helped transform the world forever. Students develop higher levels of critical thinking by considering why civilizations developed where and when they did, why they became dominant, and why they declined. Students analyze the interactions among the various cultures, emphasizing their enduring contributions and the link, despite time, between the contemporary and ancient worlds.

6.1 Students describe what is known through archaeological studies of the early physical and cultural development of humankind from the Paleolithic era to the agricultural revolution.

1. Describe the hunter-gatherer societies, including the development of tools and the use of fire.
2. Identify the locations of human communities that populated the major regions of the world and describe how humans adapted to a variety of environments.
3. Discuss the climatic changes and human modifications of the physical environment that gave rise to the domestication of plants and animals and new sources of clothing and shelter.

6.2 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the early civilizations of Mesopotamia, Egypt, and Kush.

1. Locate and describe the major river systems and discuss the physical settings that supported permanent settlement and early civilizations.
2. Trace the development of agricultural techniques that permitted the production of economic surplus and the emergence of cities as centers of culture and power.

3. Understand the relationship between religion and the social and political order in Mesopotamia and Egypt.
4. Know the significance of Hammurabi’s Code.
5. Discuss the main features of Egyptian art and architecture.
6. Describe the role of Egyptian trade in the eastern Mediterranean and Nile valley.
7. Understand the significance of Queen Hatshepsut and Ramses the Great.
8. Identify the location of the Kush civilization and describe its political, commercial, and cultural relations with Egypt.
9. Trace the evolution of language and its written forms.

6.3 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the Ancient Hebrews.

1. Describe the origins and significance of Judaism as the first monotheistic religion based on the concept of one God who sets down moral laws for humanity.
2. Identify the sources of the ethical teachings and central beliefs of Judaism (the Hebrew Bible, the Commentaries): belief in God, observance of law, practice of the concepts of righteousness and justice, and importance of study; and describe how the ideas of the Hebrew traditions are reflected in the moral and ethical traditions of Western civilization.
3. Explain the significance of Abraham, Moses, Naomi, Ruth, David, and Yohanan ben Zaccai in the development of the Jewish religion.
4. Discuss the locations of the settlements and movements of Hebrew peoples, including the Exodus and their movement to and from Egypt, and outline the significance of the Exodus to the Jewish and other people.

5. Discuss how Judaism survived and developed despite the continuing dispersion of much of the Jewish population from Jerusalem and the rest of Israel after the destruction of the second Temple in A.D. 70.

6.4 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the early civilizations of Ancient Greece.

1. Discuss the connections between geography and the development of city-states in the region of the Aegean Sea, including patterns of trade and commerce among Greek city-states and within the wider Mediterranean region.
2. Trace the transition from tyranny and oligarchy to early democratic forms of government and back to dictatorship in ancient Greece, including the significance of the invention of the idea of citizenship (e.g., from Pericles’ Funeral Oration).
3. State the key differences between Athenian, or direct, democracy and representative democracy.
4. Explain the significance of Greek mythology to the everyday life of people in the region and how Greek literature continues to permeate our literature and language today, drawing from Greek mythology and epics, such as Homer’s *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, and from *Aesop’s Fables*.
5. Outline the founding, expansion, and political organization of the Persian Empire.
6. Compare and contrast life in Athens and Sparta, with emphasis on their roles in the Persian and Peloponnesian Wars.
7. Trace the rise of Alexander the Great and the spread of Greek culture eastward and into Egypt.
8. Describe the enduring contributions of important Greek figures in the arts and sciences (e.g., Hypatia, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, Euclid, Thucydides).

6.5 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the early civilizations of India.

1. Locate and describe the major river system and discuss the physical setting that supported the rise of this civilization.
2. Discuss the significance of the Aryan invasions.
3. Explain the major beliefs and practices of Brahmanism in India and how they evolved into early Hinduism.
4. Outline the social structure of the caste system.
5. Know the life and moral teachings of Buddha and how Buddhism spread in India, Ceylon, and Central Asia.
6. Describe the growth of the Maurya empire and the political and moral achievements of the emperor Asoka.
7. Discuss important aesthetic and intellectual traditions (e.g., Sanskrit literature, including the *Bhagavad Gita*; medicine; metallurgy; and mathematics, including Hindu-Arabic numerals and the zero).

6.6 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the early civilizations of China.

1. Locate and describe the origins of Chinese civilization in the Huang-He Valley during the Shang Dynasty.
2. Explain the geographic features of China that made governance and the spread of ideas and goods difficult and served to isolate the country from the rest of the world.
3. Know about the life of Confucius and the fundamental teachings of Confucianism and Taoism.
4. Identify the political and cultural problems prevalent in the time of Confucius and how he sought to solve them.
5. List the policies and achievements of the emperor Shi Huangdi in unifying northern China under the Qin Dynasty.

6. Detail the political contributions of the Han Dynasty to the development of the imperial bureaucratic state and the expansion of the empire.
7. Cite the significance of the trans-Eurasian “silk roads” in the period of the Han Dynasty and Roman Empire and their locations.
8. Describe the diffusion of Buddhism northward to China during the Han Dynasty.

6.7 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures during the development of Rome.

1. Identify the location and describe the rise of the Roman Republic, including the importance of such mythical and historical figures as Aeneas, Romulus and Remus, Cincinnatus, Julius Caesar, and Cicero.
2. Describe the government of the Roman Republic and its significance (e.g., written constitution and tripartite government, checks and balances, civic duty).
3. Identify the location of and the political and geographic reasons for the growth of Roman territories and expansion of the empire, including how the empire fostered economic growth through the use of currency and trade routes.
4. Discuss the influence of Julius Caesar and Augustus in Rome’s transition from republic to empire.
5. Trace the migration of Jews around the Mediterranean region and the effects of their conflict with the Romans, including the Romans’ restrictions on their right to live in Jerusalem.
6. Note the origins of Christianity in the Jewish Messianic prophecies, the life and teachings of Jesus of Nazareth as described in the New Testament, and the contribution of St. Paul the Apostle to the definition and spread of Christian beliefs (e.g., belief in the Trinity, resurrection, salvation).

History–Social Science Content Standards

7. Describe the circumstances that led to the spread of Christianity in Europe and other Roman territories.
8. Discuss the legacies of Roman art and architecture, technology and science, literature, language, and law.

GRADE SEVEN

**World History and Geography:
Medieval and Early Modern Times**

Students in grade seven study the social, cultural, and technological changes that occurred in Europe, Africa, and Asia in the years A.D. 500–1789. After reviewing the ancient world and the ways in which archaeologists and historians uncover the past, students study the history and geography of great civilizations that were developing concurrently throughout the world during medieval and early modern times. They examine the growing economic interaction among civilizations as well as the exchange of ideas, beliefs, technologies, and commodities. They learn about the resulting growth of Enlightenment philosophy and the new examination of the concepts of reason and authority, the natural rights of human beings and the divine right of kings, experimentalism in science, and the dogma of belief. Finally, students assess the political forces let loose by the Enlightenment, particularly the rise of democratic ideas, and they learn about the continuing influence of these ideas in the world today.

7.1 Students analyze the causes and effects of the vast expansion and ultimate disintegration of the Roman Empire.

1. Study the early strengths and lasting contributions of Rome (e.g., significance of Roman citizenship; rights under Roman law; Roman art, architecture, engineering, and philosophy; preservation and transmission of Christianity) and its ultimate internal weaknesses (e.g., rise of autonomous military powers within the empire, undermining of citizenship by the growth of corruption and slavery, lack of education, and distribution of news).
2. Discuss the geographic borders of the empire at its height and the factors that threatened its territorial cohesion.
3. Describe the establishment by Constantine of the new capital in Constantinople and the development of the Byzantine Empire, with an emphasis on the consequences of the development of two distinct European civilizations, Eastern Orthodox and Roman Catholic, and their two distinct views on church-state relations.

7.2 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the civilizations of Islam in the Middle Ages.

1. Identify the physical features and describe the climate of the Arabian peninsula, its relationship to surrounding bodies of land and water, and nomadic and sedentary ways of life.
2. Trace the origins of Islam and the life and teachings of Muhammad, including Islamic teachings on the connection with Judaism and Christianity.
3. Explain the significance of the Qur'an and the Sunnah as the primary sources of Islamic beliefs, practice, and law, and their influence in Muslims' daily life.
4. Discuss the expansion of Muslim rule through military conquests and treaties, emphasizing the cultural blending within Muslim civilization and the spread and acceptance of Islam and the Arabic language.
5. Describe the growth of cities and the establishment of trade routes among Asia, Africa, and Europe, the products and inventions that traveled along these routes (e.g., spices, textiles, paper, steel, new crops), and the role of merchants in Arab society.
6. Understand the intellectual exchanges among Muslim scholars of Eurasia and Africa and the contributions Muslim scholars made to later civilizations in the areas of science, geography, mathematics, philosophy, medicine, art, and literature.

7.3 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the civilizations of China in the Middle Ages.

1. Describe the reunification of China under the Tang Dynasty and reasons for the spread of Buddhism in Tang China, Korea, and Japan.
2. Describe agricultural, technological, and commercial developments during the Tang and Sung periods.
3. Analyze the influences of Confucianism and changes in Confucian thought during the Sung and Mongol periods.

4. Understand the importance of both overland trade and maritime expeditions between China and other civilizations in the Mongol Ascendancy and Ming Dynasty.
5. Trace the historic influence of such discoveries as tea, the manufacture of paper, woodblock printing, the compass, and gunpowder.
6. Describe the development of the imperial state and the scholar-official class.

7.4 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the sub-Saharan civilizations of Ghana and Mali in Medieval Africa.

1. Study the Niger River and the relationship of vegetation zones of forest, savannah, and desert to trade in gold, salt, food, and slaves; and the growth of the Ghana and Mali empires.
2. Analyze the importance of family, labor specialization, and regional commerce in the development of states and cities in West Africa.
3. Describe the role of the trans-Saharan caravan trade in the changing religious and cultural characteristics of West Africa and the influence of Islamic beliefs, ethics, and law.
4. Trace the growth of the Arabic language in government, trade, and Islamic scholarship in West Africa.
5. Describe the importance of written and oral traditions in the transmission of African history and culture.

7.5 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the civilizations of Medieval Japan.

1. Describe the significance of Japan's proximity to China and Korea and the intellectual, linguistic, religious, and philosophical influence of those countries on Japan.
2. Discuss the reign of Prince Shotoku of Japan and the characteristics of Japanese society and family life during his reign.

3. Describe the values, social customs, and traditions prescribed by the lord-vassal system consisting of shogun, daimyo, and *samurai* and the lasting influence of the warrior code in the twentieth century.
4. Trace the development of distinctive forms of Japanese Buddhism.
5. Study the ninth and tenth centuries' golden age of literature, art, and drama and its lasting effects on culture today, including Murasaki Shikibu's *Tale of Genji*.
6. Analyze the rise of a military society in the late twelfth century and the role of the samurai in that society.

7.6 Students analyze the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the civilizations of Medieval Europe.

1. Study the geography of the Europe and the Eurasian land mass, including its location, topography, waterways, vegetation, and climate and their relationship to ways of life in Medieval Europe.
2. Describe the spread of Christianity north of the Alps and the roles played by the early church and by monasteries in its diffusion after the fall of the western half of the Roman Empire.
3. Understand the development of feudalism, its role in the medieval European economy, the way in which it was influenced by physical geography (the role of the manor and the growth of towns), and how feudal relationships provided the foundation of political order.
4. Demonstrate an understanding of the conflict and cooperation between the Papacy and European monarchs (e.g., Charlemagne, Gregory VII, Emperor Henry IV).
5. Know the significance of developments in medieval English legal and constitutional practices and their importance in the rise of modern democratic thought and representative institutions (e.g., Magna Carta, parliament, development of habeas corpus, an independent judiciary in England).

6. Discuss the causes and course of the religious Crusades and their effects on the Christian, Muslim, and Jewish populations in Europe, with emphasis on the increasing contact by Europeans with cultures of the Eastern Mediterranean world.
7. Map the spread of the bubonic plague from Central Asia to China, the Middle East, and Europe and describe its impact on global population.
8. Understand the importance of the Catholic church as a political, intellectual, and aesthetic institution (e.g., founding of universities, political and spiritual roles of the clergy, creation of monastic and mendicant religious orders, preservation of the Latin language and religious texts, St. Thomas Aquinas’s synthesis of classical philosophy with Christian theology, and the concept of “natural law”).
9. Know the history of the decline of Muslim rule in the Iberian Peninsula that culminated in the Reconquista and the rise of Spanish and Portuguese kingdoms.

7.7 Students compare and contrast the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the Meso-American and Andean civilizations.

1. Study the locations, landforms, and climates of Mexico, Central America, and South America and their effects on Mayan, Aztec, and Incan economies, trade, and development of urban societies.
2. Study the roles of people in each society, including class structures, family life, warfare, religious beliefs and practices, and slavery.
3. Explain how and where each empire arose and how the Aztec and Incan empires were defeated by the Spanish.
4. Describe the artistic and oral traditions and architecture in the three civilizations.
5. 7.7 Students compare and contrast the geographic, political, economic, religious, and social structures of the Meso-American and Andean civilizations.

6. Study the locations, landforms, and climates of Mexico, Central America, and South America and their effects on Mayan, Aztec, and Incan economies, trade, and development of urban societies.
7. Study the roles of people in each society, including class structures, family life, warfare, religious beliefs and practices, and slavery.
8. Explain how and where each empire arose and how the Aztec and Incan empires were defeated by the Spanish.
9. Describe the artistic and oral traditions and architecture in the three civilizations.
10. Describe the Meso-American achievements in astronomy and mathematics, including the development of the calendar and the Meso-American knowledge of seasonal changes to the civilizations' agricultural systems.

7.8 Students analyze the origins, accomplishments, and geographic diffusion of the Renaissance.

1. Describe the way in which the revival of classical learning and the arts fostered a new interest in humanism (i.e., a balance between intellect and religious faith).
2. Explain the importance of Florence in the early stages of the Renaissance and the growth of independent trading cities (e.g., Venice), with emphasis on the cities' importance in the spread of Renaissance ideas.
3. Understand the effects of the reopening of the ancient “Silk Road” between Europe and China, including Marco Polo's travels and the location of his routes.
4. Describe the growth and effects of new ways of disseminating information (e.g., the ability to manufacture paper, translation of the Bible into the vernacular, printing).

5. Detail advances made in literature, the arts, science, mathematics, cartography, engineering, and the understanding of human anatomy and astronomy (e.g., by Dante Alighieri, Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo di Buonarroti Simoni, Johann Gutenberg, William Shakespeare).

7.9 Students analyze the historical developments of the Reformation.

1. List the causes for the internal turmoil in and weakening of the Catholic church (e.g., tax policies, selling of indulgences).
2. Describe the theological, political, and economic ideas of the major figures during the Reformation (e.g., Desiderius Erasmus, Martin Luther, John Calvin, William Tyndale).
3. Explain Protestants' new practices of church self-government and the influence of those practices on the development of democratic practices and ideas of federalism.
4. Identify and locate the European regions that remained Catholic and those that became Protestant and explain how the division affected the distribution of religions in the New World.
5. Analyze how the Counter-Reformation revitalized the Catholic church and the forces that fostered the movement (e.g., St. Ignatius of Loyola and the Jesuits, the Council of Trent).
6. Understand the institution and impact of missionaries on Christianity and the diffusion of Christianity from Europe to other parts of the world in the medieval and early modern periods; locate missions on a world map.
7. Describe the Golden Age of cooperation between Jews and Muslims in medieval Spain that promoted creativity in art, literature, and science, including how that cooperation was terminated by the religious persecution of individuals and groups (e.g., the Spanish Inquisition and the expulsion of Jews and Muslims from Spain in 1492).

7.10 Students analyze the historical developments of the Scientific Revolution and its lasting effect on religious, political, and cultural institutions.

1. Discuss the roots of the Scientific Revolution (e.g., Greek rationalism; Jewish, Christian, and Muslim science; Renaissance humanism; new knowledge from global exploration).
2. Understand the significance of the new scientific theories (e.g., those of Copernicus, Galileo, Kepler, Newton) and the significance of new inventions (e.g., the telescope, microscope, thermometer, barometer).
3. Understand the scientific method advanced by Bacon and Descartes, the influence of new scientific rationalism on the growth of democratic ideas, and the coexistence of science with traditional religious beliefs.

7.11 Students analyze political and economic change in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries (the Age of Exploration, the Enlightenment, and the Age of Reason).

1. Know the great voyages of discovery, the locations of the routes, and the influence of cartography in the development of a new European worldview.
2. Discuss the exchanges of plants, animals, technology, culture, and ideas among Europe, Africa, Asia, and the Americas in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries and the major economic and social effects on each continent.
3. Examine the origins of modern capitalism; the influence of mercantilism and cottage industry; the elements and importance of a market economy in seventeenth-century Europe; the changing international trading and marketing patterns, including their locations on a world map; and the influence of explorers and map makers.
4. Explain how the main ideas of the Enlightenment can be traced back to such movements as the Renaissance, the Reformation, and the Scientific Revolution and to the Greeks, Romans, and Christianity.

5. Describe how democratic thought and institutions were influenced by Enlightenment thinkers (e.g., John Locke, Charles-Louis Montesquieu, American founders).
6. Discuss how the principles in the Magna Carta were embodied in such documents as the English Bill of Rights and the American Declaration of Independence.

GRADE EIGHT

**United States History and Geography:
Growth and Conflict**

Students in grade eight study the ideas, issues, and events from the framing of the Constitution up to World War I, with an emphasis on America’s role in the war. After reviewing the development of America’s democratic institutions founded on the Judeo-Christian heritage and English parliamentary traditions, particularly the shaping of the Constitution, students trace the development of American politics, society, culture, and economy and relate them to the emergence of major regional differences. They learn about the challenges facing the new nation, with an emphasis on the causes, course, and consequences of the Civil War. They make connections between the rise of industrialization and contemporary social and economic conditions.

8.1 Students understand the major events preceding the founding of the nation and relate their significance to the development of American constitutional democracy.

1. Describe the relationship between the moral and political ideas of the Great Awakening and the development of revolutionary fervor.
2. Analyze the philosophy of government expressed in the Declaration of Independence, with an emphasis on government as a means of securing individual rights (e.g., key phrases such as “all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights”).
3. Analyze how the American Revolution affected other nations, especially France.
4. Describe the nation’s blend of civic republicanism, classical liberal principles, and English parliamentary traditions.

8.2 Students analyze the political principles underlying the U.S. Constitution and compare the enumerated and implied powers of the federal government.

1. Discuss the significance of the Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights, and the Mayflower Compact.

2. Analyze the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution and the success of each in implementing the ideals of the Declaration of Independence.
3. Evaluate the major debates that occurred during the development of the Constitution and their ultimate resolutions in such areas as shared power among institutions, divided state-federal power, slavery, the rights of individuals and states (later addressed by the addition of the Bill of Rights), and the status of American Indian nations under the commerce clause.
4. Describe the political philosophy underpinning the Constitution as specified in the *Federalist Papers* (authored by James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay) and the role of such leaders as Madison, George Washington, Roger Sherman, Gouverneur Morris, and James Wilson in the writing and ratification of the Constitution.
5. Understand the significance of Jefferson’s Statute for Religious Freedom as a forerunner of the First Amendment and the origins, purpose, and differing views of the founding fathers on the issue of the separation of church and state.
6. Enumerate the powers of government set forth in the Constitution and the fundamental liberties ensured by the Bill of Rights.
7. Describe the principles of federalism, dual sovereignty, separation of powers, checks and balances, the nature and purpose of majority rule, and the ways in which the American idea of constitutionalism preserves individual rights.

8.3 Students understand the foundation of the American political system and the ways in which citizens participate in it.

1. Analyze the principles and concepts codified in state constitutions between 1777 and 1781 that created the context out of which American political institutions and ideas developed.

2. Explain how the ordinances of 1785 and 1787 privatized national resources and transferred federally owned lands into private holdings, townships, and states.
3. Enumerate the advantages of a common market among the states as foreseen in and protected by the Constitution’s clauses on interstate commerce, common coinage, and full-faith and credit.
4. Understand how the conflicts between Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton resulted in the emergence of two political parties (e.g., view of foreign policy, Alien and Sedition Acts, economic policy, National Bank, funding and assumption of the revolutionary debt).
5. Know the significance of domestic resistance movements and ways in which the central government responded to such movements (e.g., Shays’ Rebellion, the Whiskey Rebellion).
6. Describe the basic law-making process and how the Constitution provides numerous opportunities for citizens to participate in the political process and to monitor and influence government (e.g., function of elections, political parties, interest groups).
7. Understand the functions and responsibilities of a free press.

8.4 Students analyze the aspirations and ideals of the people of the new nation.

1. Describe the country’s physical landscapes, political divisions, and territorial expansion during the terms of the first four presidents.
2. Explain the policy significance of famous speeches (e.g., Washington’s Farewell Address, Jefferson’s 1801 Inaugural Address, John Q. Adams’s Fourth of July 1821 Address).
3. Analyze the rise of capitalism and the economic problems and conflicts that accompanied it (e.g., Jackson’s opposition to the National Bank; early decisions of the U.S. Supreme Court that reinforced the sanctity of contracts and a capitalist economic system of law).

4. Discuss daily life, including traditions in art, music, and literature, of early national America (e.g., through writings by Washington Irving, James Fenimore Cooper).

8.5 Students analyze U.S. foreign policy in the early Republic.

1. Understand the political and economic causes and consequences of the War of 1812 and know the major battles, leaders, and events that led to a final peace.
2. Know the changing boundaries of the United States and describe the relationships the country had with its neighbors (current Mexico and Canada) and Europe, including the influence of the Monroe Doctrine, and how those relationships influenced westward expansion and the Mexican-American War.
3. Outline the major treaties with American Indian nations during the administrations of the first four presidents and the varying outcomes of those treaties.

8.6 Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced, with emphasis on the Northeast.

1. Discuss the influence of industrialization and technological developments on the region, including human modification of the landscape and how physical geography shaped human actions (e.g., growth of cities, deforestation, farming, mineral extraction).
2. Outline the physical obstacles to and the economic and political factors involved in building a network of roads, canals, and railroads (e.g., Henry Clay’s American System).
3. List the reasons for the wave of immigration from Northern Europe to the United States and describe the growth in the number, size, and spatial arrangements of cities (e.g., Irish immigrants and the Great Irish Famine).

4. Study the lives of black Americans who gained freedom in the North and founded schools and churches to advance their rights and communities.
5. Trace the development of the American education system from its earliest roots, including the roles of religious and private schools and Horace Mann’s campaign for free public education and its assimilating role in American culture.
6. Examine the women’s suffrage movement (e.g., biographies, writings, and speeches of Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Margaret Fuller, Lucretia Mott, Susan B. Anthony).
7. Identify common themes in American art as well as transcendentalism and individualism (e.g., writings about and by Ralph Waldo Emerson, Henry David Thoreau, Herman Melville, Louisa May Alcott, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow).

8.7 Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people in the South from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced.

1. Describe the development of the agrarian economy in the South, identify the locations of the cotton-producing states, and discuss the significance of cotton and the cotton gin.
2. Trace the origins and development of slavery; its effects on black Americans and on the region’s political, social, religious, economic, and cultural development; and identify the strategies that were tried to both overturn and preserve it (e.g., through the writings and historical documents on Nat Turner, Denmark Vesey).
3. Examine the characteristics of white Southern society and how the physical environment influenced events and conditions prior to the Civil War.
4. Compare the lives of and opportunities for free blacks in the North with those of free blacks in the South.

8.8 Students analyze the divergent paths of the American people in the West from 1800 to the mid-1800s and the challenges they faced.

1. Discuss the election of Andrew Jackson as president in 1828, the importance of Jacksonian democracy, and his actions as president (e.g., the spoils system, veto of the National Bank, policy of Indian removal, opposition to the Supreme Court).
2. Describe the purpose, challenges, and economic incentives associated with westward expansion, including the concept of Manifest Destiny (e.g., the Lewis and Clark expedition, accounts of the removal of Indians, the Cherokees' "Trail of Tears," settlement of the Great Plains) and the territorial acquisitions that spanned numerous decades.
3. Describe the role of pioneer women and the new status that western women achieved (e.g., Laura Ingalls Wilder, Annie Bidwell; slave women gaining freedom in the West; Wyoming granting suffrage to women in 1869).
4. Examine the importance of the great rivers and the struggle over water rights.
5. Discuss Mexican settlements and their locations, cultural traditions, attitudes toward slavery, land-grant system, and economies.
6. Describe the Texas War for Independence and the Mexican–American War, including territorial settlements, the aftermath of the wars, and the effects the wars had on the lives of Americans, including Mexican Americans today.

8.9 Students analyze the early and steady attempts to abolish slavery and to realize the ideals of the Declaration of Independence.

1. Describe the leaders of the movement (e.g., John Quincy Adams and his proposed constitutional amendment, John Brown and the armed resistance, Harriet Tubman and the Underground Railroad, Benjamin Franklin, Theodore Weld, William Lloyd Garrison, Frederick Douglass).
2. Discuss the abolition of slavery in early state constitutions.

3. Describe the significance of the Northwest Ordinance in education and in the banning of slavery in new states north of the Ohio River.
4. Discuss the importance of the slavery issue as raised by the annexation of Texas and California’s admission to the union as a free state under the Compromise of 1850.
5. Analyze the significance of the States’ Rights Doctrine, the Missouri Compromise (1820), the Wilmot Proviso (1846), and the Compromise of 1850, Henry Clay’s role in the Missouri Compromise and the Compromise of 1850, the Kansas-Nebraska Act (1854), the *Dred Scott v. Sandford* decision (1857), and the Lincoln-Douglas debates (1858).
6. Describe the lives of free blacks and the laws that limited their freedom and economic opportunities.

8.10 Students analyze the multiple causes, key events, and complex consequences of the Civil War.

1. Compare the conflicting interpretations of state and federal authority as emphasized in the speeches and writings of statesmen such as Daniel Webster and John C. Calhoun.
2. Trace the boundaries constituting the North and the South, the geographical differences between the two regions, and the differences between agrarians and industrialists.
3. Identify the constitutional issues posed by the doctrine of nullification and secession and the earliest origins of that doctrine.
4. Discuss Abraham Lincoln’s presidency and his significant writings and speeches and their relationship to the Declaration of Independence, such as his “House Divided” speech (1858), Gettysburg Address (1863), Emancipation Proclamation (1863), and inaugural addresses (1861 and 1865).
5. Study the views and lives of leaders (e.g., Ulysses S. Grant, Jefferson Davis, Robert E. Lee) and soldiers on both sides of the war, including those of black soldiers and regiments.

6. Describe critical developments and events in the war, including the major battles, geographical advantages and obstacles, technological advances, and General Lee’s surrender at Appomattox.
7. Explain how the war affected combatants, civilians, the physical environment, and future warfare.

8.11 Students analyze the character and lasting consequences of Reconstruction.

1. List the original aims of Reconstruction and describe its effects on the political and social structures of different regions.
2. Identify the push-pull factors in the movement of former slaves to the cities in the North and to the West and their differing experiences in those regions (e.g., the experiences of Buffalo Soldiers).
3. Understand the effects of the Freedmen’s Bureau and the restrictions placed on the rights and opportunities of freedmen, including racial segregation and “Jim Crow” laws.
4. Trace the rise of the Ku Klux Klan and describe the Klan’s effects.
5. Understand the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution and analyze their connection to Reconstruction.

8.12 Students analyze the transformation of the American economy and the changing social and political conditions in the United States in response to the Industrial Revolution.

1. Trace patterns of agricultural and industrial development as they relate to climate, use of natural resources, markets, and trade and locate such development on a map.
2. Identify the reasons for the development of federal Indian policy and the wars with American Indians and their relationship to agricultural development and industrialization.
3. Explain how states and the federal government encouraged business expansion through tariffs, banking, land grants, and subsidies.

4. Discuss entrepreneurs, industrialists, and bankers in politics, commerce, and industry (e.g., Andrew Carnegie, John D. Rockefeller, Leland Stanford).
5. Examine the location and effects of urbanization, renewed immigration, and industrialization (e.g., the effects on social fabric of cities, wealth and economic opportunity, the conservation movement).
6. Discuss child labor, working conditions, and laissez-faire policies toward big business and examine the labor movement, including its leaders (e.g., Samuel Gompers), its demand for collective bargaining, and its strikes and protests over labor conditions.
7. Identify the new sources of large-scale immigration and the contributions of immigrants to the building of cities and the economy; explain the ways in which new social and economic patterns encouraged assimilation of newcomers into the mainstream amidst growing cultural diversity; and discuss the new wave of nativism.
8. Identify the characteristics and impact of Grangerism and Populism.
9. Name the significant inventors and their inventions and identify how they improved the quality of life (e.g., Thomas Edison, Alexander Graham Bell, Orville and Wilbur Wright).

GRADES NINE THROUGH TWELVE

Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills

The intellectual skills noted below are to be learned through, and applied to, the content standards for grades nine through twelve. They are to be assessed *only in conjunction with* the content standards in grades nine through twelve.

In addition to the standards for grades nine through twelve, students demonstrate the following intellectual, reasoning, reflection, and research skills.

Chronological and Spatial Thinking

1. Students compare the present with the past, evaluating the consequences of past events and decisions and determining the lessons that were learned.
2. Students analyze how change happens at different rates at different times; understand that some aspects can change while others remain the same; and understand that change is complicated and affects not only technology and politics but also values and beliefs.
3. Students use a variety of maps and documents to interpret human movement, including major patterns of domestic and international migration, changing environmental preferences and settlement patterns, the frictions that develop between population groups, and the diffusion of ideas, technological innovations, and goods.
4. Students relate current events to the physical and human characteristics of places and regions.

Historical Research, Evidence, and Point of View

1. Students distinguish valid arguments from fallacious arguments in historical interpretations.
2. Students identify bias and prejudice in historical interpretations.
3. Students evaluate major debates among historians concerning alternative interpretations of the past, including an analysis of authors' use of evidence and the distinctions between sound generalizations and misleading oversimplifications.

4. Students construct and test hypotheses; collect, evaluate, and employ information from multiple primary and secondary sources; and apply it in oral and written presentations.

Historical Interpretation

1. Students show the connections, causal and otherwise, between particular historical events and larger social, economic, and political trends and developments.
2. Students recognize the complexity of historical causes and effects, including the limitations on determining cause and effect.
3. Students interpret past events and issues within the context in which an event unfolded rather than solely in terms of present-day norms and values.
4. Students understand the meaning, implication, and impact of historical events and recognize that events could have taken other directions.
5. Students analyze human modifications of landscapes and examine the resulting environmental policy issues.
6. Students conduct cost-benefit analyses and apply basic economic indicators to analyze the aggregate economic behavior of the U.S. economy.

GRADE TEN

**World History, Culture, and Geography:
The Modern World**

Students in grade ten study major turning points that shaped the modern world, from the late eighteenth century through the present, including the cause and course of the two world wars. They trace the rise of democratic ideas and develop an understanding of the historical roots of current world issues, especially as they pertain to international relations. They extrapolate from the American experience that democratic ideals are often achieved at a high price, remain vulnerable, and are not practiced everywhere in the world. Students develop an understanding of current world issues and relate them to their historical, geographic, political, economic, and cultural contexts. Students consider multiple accounts of events in order to understand international relations from a variety of perspectives.

10.1 Students relate the moral and ethical principles in ancient Greek and Roman philosophy, in Judaism, and in Christianity to the development of Western political thought.

1. Analyze the similarities and differences in Judeo-Christian and Greco-Roman views of law, reason and faith, and duties of the individual.
2. Trace the development of the Western political ideas of the rule of law and illegitimacy of tyranny, using selections from Plato's *Republic* and Aristotle's *Politics*.
3. Consider the influence of the U.S. Constitution on political systems in the contemporary world.

10.2 Students compare and contrast the Glorious Revolution of England, the American Revolution, and the French Revolution and their enduring effects worldwide on the political expectations for self-government and individual liberty.

1. Compare the major ideas of philosophers and their effects on the democratic revolutions in England, the United States, France, and Latin America (e.g., John Locke, Charles-Louis Montesquieu, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Simón Bolívar, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison).

2. List the principles of the Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights (1689), the American Declaration of Independence (1776), the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen (1789), and the U.S. Bill of Rights (1791).
3. Understand the unique character of the American Revolution, its spread to other parts of the world, and its continuing significance to other nations.
4. Explain how the ideology of the French Revolution led France to develop from constitutional monarchy to democratic despotism to the Napoleonic empire.
5. Discuss how nationalism spread across Europe with Napoleon but was repressed for a generation under the Congress of Vienna and Concert of Europe until the Revolutions of 1848.

10.3 Students analyze the effects of the Industrial Revolution in England, France, Germany, Japan, and the United States.

1. Analyze why England was the first country to industrialize.
2. Examine how scientific and technological changes and new forms of energy brought about massive social, economic, and cultural change (e.g., the inventions and discoveries of James Watt, Eli Whitney, Henry Bessemer, Louis Pasteur, Thomas Edison).
3. Describe the growth of population, rural to urban migration, and growth of cities associated with the Industrial Revolution.
4. Trace the evolution of work and labor, including the demise of the slave trade and the effects of immigration, mining and manufacturing, division of labor, and the union movement.
5. Understand the connections among natural resources, entrepreneurship, labor, and capital in an industrial economy.
6. Analyze the emergence of capitalism as a dominant economic pattern and the responses to it, including Utopianism, Social Democracy, Socialism, and Communism.

7. Describe the emergence of Romanticism in art and literature (e.g., the poetry of William Blake and William Wordsworth), social criticism (e.g., the novels of Charles Dickens), and the move away from Classicism in Europe.

10.4 Students analyze patterns of global change in the era of New Imperialism in at least two of the following regions or countries: Africa, Southeast Asia, China, India, Latin America, and the Philippines.

1. Describe the rise of industrial economies and their link to imperialism and colonial-ism (e.g., the role played by national security and strategic advantage; moral issues raised by the search for national hegemony, Social Darwinism, and the missionary impulse; material issues such as land, resources, and technology).
2. Discuss the locations of the colonial rule of such nations as England, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Russia, Spain, Portugal, and the United States.
3. Explain imperialism from the perspective of the colonizers and the colonized and the varied immediate and long-term responses by the people under colonial rule.
4. Describe the independence struggles of the colonized regions of the world, including the roles of leaders, such as Sun Yat-sen in China, and the roles of ideology and religion.

10.5 Students analyze the causes and course of the First World War.

1. Analyze the arguments for entering into war presented by leaders from all sides of the Great War and the role of political and economic rivalries, ethnic and ideological conflicts, domestic discontent and disorder, and propaganda and nationalism in mobilizing the civilian population in support of “total war.”
2. Examine the principal theaters of battle, major turning points, and the importance of geographic factors in military decisions and outcomes (e.g., topography, waterways, distance, climate).

3. Explain how the Russian Revolution and the entry of the United States affected the course and outcome of the war.
4. Understand the nature of the war and its human costs (military and civilian) on all sides of the conflict, including how colonial peoples contributed to the war effort.
5. Discuss human rights violations and genocide, including the Ottoman government’s actions against Armenian citizens.

10.6 Students analyze the effects of the First World War.

1. Analyze the aims and negotiating roles of world leaders, the terms and influence of the Treaty of Versailles and Woodrow Wilson’s Fourteen Points, and the causes and effects of the United States’s rejection of the League of Nations on world politics.
2. Describe the effects of the war and resulting peace treaties on population movement, the international economy, and shifts in the geographic and political borders of Europe and the Middle East.
3. Understand the widespread disillusionment with prewar institutions, authorities, and values that resulted in a void that was later filled by totalitarians.
4. Discuss the influence of World War I on literature, art, and intellectual life in the West (e.g., Pablo Picasso, the “lost generation” of Gertrude Stein, Ernest Hemingway).

10.7 Students analyze the rise of totalitarian governments after World War I.

1. Understand the causes and consequences of the Russian Revolution, including Lenin’s use of totalitarian means to seize and maintain control (e.g., the Gulag).
2. Trace Stalin’s rise to power in the Soviet Union and the connection between economic policies, political policies, the absence of a free press, and systematic violations of human rights (e.g., the Terror Famine in Ukraine).

3. Analyze the rise, aggression, and human costs of totalitarian regimes (Fascist and Communist) in Germany, Italy, and the Soviet Union, noting especially their common and dissimilar traits.

10.8 Students analyze the causes and consequences of World War II.

1. Compare the German, Italian, and Japanese drives for empire in the 1930s, including the 1937 Rape of Nanking, other atrocities in China, and the Stalin-Hitler Pact of 1939.
2. Understand the role of appeasement, nonintervention (isolationism), and the domestic distractions in Europe and the United States prior to the outbreak of World War II.
3. Identify and locate the Allied and Axis powers on a map and discuss the major turning points of the war, the principal theaters of conflict, key strategic decisions, and the resulting war conferences and political resolutions, with emphasis on the importance of geographic factors.
4. Describe the political, diplomatic, and military leaders during the war (e.g., Winston Churchill, Franklin Delano Roosevelt, Emperor Hirohito, Adolf Hitler, Benito Mussolini, Joseph Stalin, Douglas MacArthur, Dwight Eisenhower).
5. Analyze the Nazi policy of pursuing racial purity, especially against the European Jews; its transformation into the Final Solution; and the Holocaust that resulted in the murder of six million Jewish civilians.
6. Discuss the human costs of the war, with particular attention to the civilian and military losses in Russia, Germany, Britain, the United States, China, and Japan.

10.9 Students analyze the international developments in the post-World War II world.

1. Compare the economic and military power shifts caused by the war, including the Yalta Pact, the development of nuclear weapons, Soviet control over Eastern European nations, and the economic recoveries of Germany and Japan.

2. Analyze the causes of the Cold War, with the free world on one side and Soviet client states on the other, including competition for influence in such places as Egypt, the Congo, Vietnam, and Chile.
3. Understand the importance of the Truman Doctrine and the Marshall Plan, which established the pattern for America’s postwar policy of supplying economic and military aid to prevent the spread of Communism and the resulting economic and political competition in arenas such as Southeast Asia (i.e., the Korean War, Vietnam War), Cuba, and Africa.
4. Analyze the Chinese Civil War, the rise of Mao Tse-tung, and the subsequent political and economic upheavals in China (e.g., the Great Leap Forward, the Cultural Revolution, and the Tiananmen Square uprising).
5. Describe the uprisings in Poland (1952), Hungary (1956), and Czechoslovakia (1968) and those countries’ resurgence in the 1970s and 1980s as people in Soviet satellites sought freedom from Soviet control.
6. Understand how the forces of nationalism developed in the Middle East, how the Holocaust affected world opinion regarding the need for a Jewish state, and the significance and effects of the location and establishment of Israel on world affairs.
7. Analyze the reasons for the collapse of the Soviet Union, including the weakness of the command economy, burdens of military commitments, and growing resistance to Soviet rule by dissidents in satellite states and the non-Russian Soviet republics.
8. Discuss the establishment and work of the United Nations and the purposes and functions of the Warsaw Pact, SEATO, NATO, and the Organization of American States.

10.10 Students analyze instances of nation-building in the contemporary world in at least two of the following regions or countries: the Middle East, Africa, Mexico and other parts of Latin America, and China.

1. Understand the challenges in the regions, including their geopolitical, cultural, military, and economic significance and the international relationships in which they are involved.
2. Describe the recent history of the regions, including political divisions and systems, key leaders, religious issues, natural features, resources, and population patterns.
3. Discuss the important trends in the regions today and whether they appear to serve the cause of individual freedom and democracy.

10.11 Students analyze the integration of countries into the world economy and the information, technological, and communications revolutions (e.g., television, satellites, computers).

GRADE ELEVEN

**United States History and Geography:
Continuity and Change in the Twentieth Century**

Students in grade eleven study the major turning points in American history in the twentieth century. Following a review of the nation’s beginnings and the impact of the Enlightenment on U.S. democratic ideals, students build upon the tenth grade study of global industrialization to understand the emergence and impact of new technology and a corporate economy, including the social and cultural effects. They trace the change in the ethnic composition of American society; the movement toward equal rights for racial minorities and women; and the role of the United States as a major world power. An emphasis is placed on the expanding role of the federal government and federal courts as well as the continuing tension between the individual and the state. Students consider the major social problems of our time and trace their causes in historical events. They learn that the United States has served as a model for other nations and that the rights and freedoms we enjoy are not accidents, but the results of a defined set of political principles that are not always basic to citizens of other countries. Students understand that our rights under the U.S. Constitution are a precious inheritance that depends on an educated citizenry for their preservation and protection.

11.1 Students analyze the significant events in the founding of the nation and its attempts to realize the philosophy of government described in the Declaration of Independence.

1. Describe the Enlightenment and the rise of democratic ideas as the context in which the nation was founded.
2. Analyze the ideological origins of the American Revolution, the Founding Fathers’ philosophy of divinely bestowed unalienable natural rights, the debates on the drafting and ratification of the Constitution, and the addition of the Bill of Rights.
3. Understand the history of the Constitution after 1787 with emphasis on federal versus state authority and growing democratization.

4. Examine the effects of the Civil War and Reconstruction and of the industrial revolution, including demographic shifts and the emergence in the late nineteenth century of the United States as a world power.

11.2 Students analyze the relationship among the rise of industrialization, large-scale rural-to-urban migration, and massive immigration from Southern and Eastern Europe.

1. Know the effects of industrialization on living and working conditions, including the portrayal of working conditions and food safety in Upton Sinclair's *The Jungle*.
2. Describe the changing landscape, including the growth of cities linked by industry and trade, and the development of cities divided according to race, ethnicity, and class.
3. Trace the effect of the Americanization movement.
4. Analyze the effect of urban political machines and responses to them by immigrants and middle-class reformers.
5. Discuss corporate mergers that produced trusts and cartels and the economic and political policies of industrial leaders.
6. Trace the economic development of the United States and its emergence as a major industrial power, including its gains from trade and the advantages of its physical geography.
7. Analyze the similarities and differences between the ideologies of Social Darwinism and Social Gospel (e.g., using biographies of William Graham Sumner, Billy Sunday, Dwight L. Moody).
8. Examine the effect of political programs and activities of Populists.
9. Understand the effect of political programs and activities of the Progressives (e.g., federal regulation of railroad transport, Children's Bureau, the Sixteenth Amendment, Theodore Roosevelt, Hiram Johnson).

11.3 Students analyze the role religion played in the founding of America, its lasting moral, social, and political impacts, and issues regarding religious liberty.

1. Describe the contributions of various religious groups to American civic principles and social reform movements (e.g., civil and human rights, individual responsibility and the work ethic, antimonarchy and self-rule, worker protection, family-centered communities).
2. Analyze the great religious revivals and the leaders involved in them, including the First Great Awakening, the Second Great Awakening, the Civil War revivals, the Social Gospel Movement, the rise of Christian liberal theology in the nineteenth century, the impact of the Second Vatican Council, and the rise of Christian fundamentalism in current times.
3. Cite incidences of religious intolerance in the United States (e.g., persecution of Mormons, anti-Catholic sentiment, anti-Semitism).
4. Discuss the expanding religious pluralism in the United States and California that resulted from large-scale immigration in the twentieth century.
5. Describe the principles of religious liberty found in the Establishment and Free Exercise clauses of the First Amendment, including the debate on the issue of separation of church and state.

11.4 Students trace the rise of the United States to its role as a world power in the twentieth century.

1. List the purpose and the effects of the Open Door policy.
2. Describe the Spanish-American War and U.S. expansion in the South Pacific.
3. Discuss America's role in the Panama Revolution and the building of the Panama Canal.

4. Explain Theodore Roosevelt’s Big Stick diplomacy, William Taft’s Dollar Diplomacy, and Woodrow Wilson’s Moral Diplomacy, drawing on relevant speeches.
5. Analyze the political, economic, and social ramifications of World War I on the home front.
6. Trace the declining role of Great Britain and the expanding role of the United States in world affairs after World War II.

11.5 Students analyze the major political, social, economic, technological, and cultural developments of the 1920s.

1. Discuss the policies of Presidents Warren Harding, Calvin Coolidge, and Herbert Hoover.
2. Analyze the international and domestic events, interests, and philosophies that prompted attacks on civil liberties, including the Palmer Raids, Marcus Garvey’s “back-to-Africa” movement, the Ku Klux Klan, and immigration quotas and the responses of organizations such as the American Civil Liberties Union, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, and the Anti-Defamation League to those attacks.
3. Examine the passage of the Eighteenth Amendment to the Constitution and the Volstead Act (Prohibition).
4. Analyze the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment and the changing role of women in society.
5. Describe the Harlem Renaissance and new trends in literature, music, and art, with special attention to the work of writers (e.g., Zora Neale Hurston, Langston Hughes).
6. Trace the growth and effects of radio and movies and their role in the worldwide diffusion of popular culture.
7. Discuss the rise of mass production techniques, the growth of cities, the impact of new technologies (e.g., the automobile, electricity), and the resulting prosperity and effect on the American landscape.

11.6 Students analyze the different explanations for the Great Depression and how the New Deal fundamentally changed the role of the federal government.

1. Describe the monetary issues of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries that gave rise to the establishment of the Federal Reserve and the weaknesses in key sectors of the economy in the late 1920s.
2. Understand the explanations of the principal causes of the Great Depression and the steps taken by the Federal Reserve, Congress, and Presidents Herbert Hoover and Franklin Delano Roosevelt to combat the economic crisis.
3. Discuss the human toll of the Depression, natural disasters, and unwise agricultural practices and their effects on the depopulation of rural regions and on political movements of the left and right, with particular attention to the Dust Bowl refugees and their social and economic impacts in California.
4. Analyze the effects of and the controversies arising from New Deal economic policies and the expanded role of the federal government in society and the economy since the 1930s (e.g., Works Progress Administration, Social Security, National Labor Relations Board, farm programs, regional development policies, and energy development projects such as the Tennessee Valley Authority, California Central Valley Project, and Bonneville Dam).
5. Trace the advances and retreats of organized labor, from the creation of the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations to current issues of a postindustrial, multinational economy, including the United Farm Workers in California.

11.7 Students analyze America’s participation in World War II.

1. Examine the origins of American involvement in the war, with an emphasis on the events that precipitated the attack on Pearl Harbor.
2. Explain U.S. and Allied wartime strategy, including the major battles of Midway, Normandy, Iwo Jima, Okinawa, and the Battle of the Bulge.

3. Identify the roles and sacrifices of individual American soldiers, as well as the unique contributions of the special fighting forces (e.g., the Tuskegee Airmen, the 442nd Regimental Combat team, the Navajo Code Talkers).
4. Analyze Roosevelt’s foreign policy during World War II (e.g., Four Freedoms speech).
5. Discuss the constitutional issues and impact of events on the U.S. home front, including the internment of Japanese Americans (e.g., *Fred Korematsu v. United States of America*) and the restrictions on German and Italian resident aliens; the response of the administration to Hitler’s atrocities against Jews and other groups; the roles of women in military production; and the roles and growing political demands of African Americans.
6. Describe major developments in aviation, weaponry, communication, and medicine and the war’s impact on the location of American industry and use of resources.
7. Discuss the decision to drop atomic bombs and the consequences of the decision (Hiroshima and Nagasaki).
8. Analyze the effect of massive aid given to Western Europe under the Marshall Plan to rebuild itself after the war and the importance of a rebuilt Europe to the U.S. economy.

11.8 Students analyze the economic boom and social transformation of post-World War II America.

1. Trace the growth of service sector, white collar, and professional sector jobs in business and government.
2. Describe the significance of Mexican immigration and its relationship to the agricultural economy, especially in California.
3. Examine Truman’s labor policy and congressional reaction to it.

4. Analyze new federal government spending on defense, welfare, interest on the national debt, and federal and state spending on education, including the California Master Plan.
5. Describe the increased powers of the presidency in response to the Great Depression, World War II, and the Cold War.
6. Discuss the diverse environmental regions of North America, their relationship to local economies, and the origins and prospects of environmental problems in those regions.
7. Describe the effects on society and the economy of technological developments since 1945, including the computer revolution, changes in communication, advances in medicine, and improvements in agricultural technology.
8. Discuss forms of popular culture, with emphasis on their origins and geographic diffusion (e.g., jazz and other forms of popular music, professional sports, architectural and artistic styles).

11.9 Students analyze U.S. foreign policy since World War II.

1. Discuss the establishment of the United Nations and International Declaration of Human Rights, International Monetary Fund, World Bank, and General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and their importance in shaping modern Europe and maintaining peace and international order.
2. Understand the role of military alliances, including NATO and SEATO, in deterring communist aggression and maintaining security during the Cold War.
3. Trace the origins and geopolitical consequences (foreign and domestic) of the Cold War and containment policy, including the following:
 - The era of McCarthyism, instances of domestic Communism (e.g., Alger Hiss) and blacklisting
 - The Truman Doctrine
 - The Berlin Blockade

- The Korean War
 - The Bay of Pigs invasion and the Cuban Missile Crisis
 - Atomic testing in the American West, the “mutual assured destruction” doctrine, and disarmament policies
 - The Vietnam War
 - Latin American policy
4. List the effects of foreign policy on domestic policies and vice versa (e.g., protests during the war in Vietnam, the “nuclear freeze” movement).
 5. Analyze the role of the Reagan administration and other factors in the victory of the West in the Cold War.
 6. Describe U.S. Middle East policy and its strategic, political, and economic interests, including those related to the Gulf War.
 7. Examine relations between the United States and Mexico in the twentieth century, including key economic, political, immigration, and environmental issues.

11.10 Students analyze the development of federal civil rights and voting rights.

1. Explain how demands of African Americans helped produce a stimulus for civil rights, including President Roosevelt’s ban on racial discrimination in defense industries in 1941, and how African Americans’ service in World War II produced a stimulus for President Truman’s decision to end segregation in the armed forces in 1948.
2. Examine and analyze the key events, policies, and court cases in the evolution of civil rights, including *Dred Scott v. Sandford*, *Plessy v. Ferguson*, *Brown v. Board of Education*, *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke*, and California Proposition 209.
3. Describe the collaboration on legal strategy between African American and white civil rights lawyers to end racial segregation in higher education.

4. Examine the roles of civil rights advocates (e.g., A. Philip Randolph, Martin Luther King, Jr., Malcolm X, Thurgood Marshall, James Farmer, Rosa Parks), including the significance of Martin Luther King, Jr.’s “Letter from Birmingham Jail” and “I Have a Dream” speech.
5. Discuss the diffusion of the civil rights movement of African Americans from the churches of the rural South and the urban North, including the resistance to racial desegregation in Little Rock and Birmingham, and how the advances influenced the agendas, strategies, and effectiveness of the quests of American Indians, Asian Americans, and Hispanic Americans for civil rights and equal opportunities.
6. Analyze the passage and effects of civil rights and voting rights legislation (e.g., 1964 Civil Rights Act, Voting Rights Act of 1965) and the Twenty-Fourth Amendment, with an emphasis on equality of access to education and to the political process.
7. Analyze the women’s rights movement from the era of Elizabeth Stanton and Susan Anthony and the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment to the movement launched in the 1960s, including differing perspectives on the roles of women.

11.11 Students analyze the major social problems and domestic policy issues in contemporary American society.

1. Discuss the reasons for the nation’s changing immigration policy, with emphasis on how the Immigration Act of 1965 and successor acts have transformed American society.
2. Discuss the significant domestic policy speeches of Truman, Eisenhower, Kennedy, Johnson, Nixon, Carter, Reagan, Bush, and Clinton (e.g., with regard to education, civil rights, economic policy, environmental policy).
3. Describe the changing roles of women in society as reflected in the entry of more women into the labor force and the changing family structure.
4. Explain the constitutional crisis originating from the Watergate scandal.

5. Trace the impact of, need for, and controversies associated with environmental conservation, expansion of the national park system, and the development of environmental protection laws, with particular attention to the interaction between environmental protection advocates and property rights advocates.
6. Analyze the persistence of poverty and how different analyses of this issue influence welfare reform, health insurance reform, and other social policies.
7. Explain how the federal, state, and local governments have responded to demographic and social changes such as population shifts to the suburbs, racial concentrations in the cities, Frostbelt-to-Sunbelt migration, international migration, decline of family farms, increases in out-of-wedlock births, and drug abuse.

GRADE TWELVE

Principles of American Democracy and Economics

Students in grade twelve pursue a deeper understanding of the institutions of American government. They compare systems of government in the world today and analyze the history and changing interpretations of the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, and the current state of the legislative, executive, and judiciary branches of government. An emphasis is placed on analyzing the relationship among federal, state, and local governments, with particular attention paid to important historical documents such as the *Federalist Papers*. These standards represent the culmination of civic literacy as students prepare to vote, participate in community activities, and assume the responsibilities of citizenship.

In addition to studying government in grade twelve, students will also master fundamental economic concepts, applying the tools (graphs, statistics, equations) from other subject areas to the understanding of operations and institutions of economic systems. Studied in a historic context are the basic economic principles of micro- and macroeconomics, international economics, comparative economic systems, measurement, and methods.

Principles of American Democracy

12.1 Students explain the fundamental principles and moral values of American democracy as expressed in the U.S. Constitution and other essential documents of American democracy.

1. Analyze the influence of ancient Greek, Roman, English, and leading European political thinkers such as John Locke, Charles-Louis Montesquieu, Niccolò Machiavelli, and William Blackstone on the development of American government.
2. Discuss the character of American democracy and its promise and perils as articulated by Alexis de Tocqueville.

3. Explain how the U.S. Constitution reflects a balance between the classical republican concern with promotion of the public good and the classical liberal concern with protecting individual rights; and discuss how the basic premises of liberal constitutionalism and democracy are joined in the Declaration of Independence as “self-evident truths.”
4. Explain how the Founding Fathers’ realistic view of human nature led directly to the establishment of a constitutional system that limited the power of the governors and the governed as articulated in the *Federalist Papers*.
5. Describe the systems of separated and shared powers, the role of organized interests (*Federalist Paper Number 10*), checks and balances (*Federalist Paper Number 51*), the importance of an independent judiciary (*Federalist Paper Number 78*), enumerated powers, rule of law, federalism, and civilian control of the military.
6. Understand that the Bill of Rights limits the powers of the federal government and state governments.

12.2 Students evaluate and take and defend positions on the scope and limits of rights and obligations as democratic citizens, the relationships among them, and how they are secured.

1. Discuss the meaning and importance of each of the rights guaranteed under the Bill of Rights and how each is secured (e.g., freedom of religion, speech, press, assembly, petition, privacy).
2. Explain how economic rights are secured and their importance to the individual and to society (e.g., the right to acquire, use, transfer, and dispose of property; right to choose one’s work; right to join or not join labor unions; copyright and patent).
3. Discuss the individual’s legal obligations to obey the law, serve as a juror, and pay taxes.
4. Understand the obligations of civic-mindedness, including voting, being informed on civic issues, volunteering and performing public service, and serving in the military or alternative service.

5. Describe the reciprocity between rights and obligations; that is, why enjoyment of one’s rights entails respect for the rights of others.
6. Explain how one becomes a citizen of the United States, including the process of naturalization (e.g., literacy, language, and other requirements).

12.3 Students evaluate and take and defend positions on what the fundamental values and principles of civil society are (i.e., the autonomous sphere of voluntary personal, social, and economic relations that are not part of government), their interdependence, and the meaning and importance of those values and principles for a free society.

1. Explain how civil society provides opportunities for individuals to associate for social, cultural, religious, economic, and political purposes.
2. Explain how civil society makes it possible for people, individually or in association with others, to bring their influence to bear on government in ways other than voting and elections.
3. Discuss the historical role of religion and religious diversity.
4. Compare the relationship of government and civil society in constitutional democracies to the relationship of government and civil society in authoritarian and totalitarian regimes.

12.4 Students analyze the unique roles and responsibilities of the three branches of government as established by the U.S. Constitution.

1. Discuss Article I of the Constitution as it relates to the legislative branch, including eligibility for office and lengths of terms of representatives and senators; election to office; the roles of the House and Senate in impeachment proceedings; the role of the vice president; the enumerated legislative powers; and the process by which a bill becomes a law.
2. Explain the process through which the Constitution can be amended.
3. Identify their current representatives in the legislative branch of the national government.

4. Discuss Article II of the Constitution as it relates to the executive branch, including eligibility for office and length of term, election to and removal from office, the oath of office, and the enumerated executive powers.
5. Discuss Article III of the Constitution as it relates to judicial power, including the length of terms of judges and the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.
6. Explain the processes of selection and confirmation of Supreme Court justices.

12.5 Students summarize landmark U.S. Supreme Court interpretations of the Constitution and its amendments.

1. Understand the changing interpretations of the Bill of Rights over time, including interpretations of the basic freedoms (religion, speech, press, petition, and assembly) articulated in the First Amendment and the due process and equal-protection-of-the-law clauses of the Fourteenth Amendment.
2. Analyze judicial activism and judicial restraint and the effects of each policy over the decades (e.g., the Warren and Rehnquist courts).
3. Evaluate the effects of the Court’s interpretations of the Constitution in *Marbury v. Madison*, *McCulloch v. Maryland*, and *United States v. Nixon*, with emphasis on the arguments espoused by each side in these cases.
4. Explain the controversies that have resulted over changing interpretations of civil rights, including those in *Plessy v. Ferguson*, *Brown v. Board of Education*, *Miranda v. Arizona*, *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke*, *Adarand Constructors, Inc. v. Pena*, and *United States v. Virginia* (VMI).

12.6 Students evaluate issues regarding campaigns for national, state, and local elective offices.

1. Analyze the origin, development, and role of political parties, noting those occasional periods in which there was only one major party or were more than two major parties.

2. Discuss the history of the nomination process for presidential candidates and the increasing importance of primaries in general elections.
3. Evaluate the roles of polls, campaign advertising, and the controversies over campaign funding.
4. Describe the means that citizens use to participate in the political process (e.g., voting, campaigning, lobbying, filing a legal challenge, demonstrating, petitioning, picketing, running for political office).
5. Discuss the features of direct democracy in numerous states (e.g., the process of referendums, recall elections).
6. Analyze trends in voter turnout; the causes and effects of reapportionment and redistricting, with special attention to spatial districting and the rights of minorities; and the function of the Electoral College.

12.7 Students analyze and compare the powers and procedures of the national, state, tribal, and local governments.

1. Explain how conflicts between levels of government and branches of government are resolved.
2. Identify the major responsibilities and sources of revenue for state and local governments.
3. Discuss reserved powers and concurrent powers of state governments.
4. Discuss the Ninth and Tenth Amendments and interpretations of the extent of the federal government's power.
5. Explain how public policy is formed, including the setting of the public agenda and implementation of it through regulations and executive orders.
6. Compare the processes of lawmaking at each of the three levels of government, including the role of lobbying and the media.
7. Identify the organization and jurisdiction of federal, state, and local (e.g., California) courts and the interrelationships among them.

8. Understand the scope of presidential power and decision making through examination of case studies such as the Cuban Missile Crisis, passage of Great Society legislation, War Powers Act, Gulf War, and Bosnia.

12.8 Students evaluate and take and defend positions on the influence of the media on American political life.

1. Discuss the meaning and importance of a free and responsible press.
2. Describe the roles of broadcast, print, and electronic media, including the Internet, as means of communication in American politics.
3. Explain how public officials use the media to communicate with the citizenry and to shape public opinion.

12.9 Students analyze the origins, characteristics, and development of different political systems across time, with emphasis on the quest for political democracy, its advances, and its obstacles.

1. Explain how the different philosophies and structures of feudalism, mercantilism, socialism, fascism, communism, monarchies, parliamentary systems, and constitutional liberal democracies influence economic policies, social welfare policies, and human rights practices.
2. Compare the various ways in which power is distributed, shared, and limited in systems of shared powers and in parliamentary systems, including the influence and role of parliamentary leaders (e.g., William Gladstone, Margaret Thatcher).
3. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of federal, confederal, and unitary systems of government.
4. Describe for at least two countries the consequences of conditions that gave rise to tyrannies during certain periods (e.g., Italy, Japan, Haiti, Nigeria, Cambodia).
5. Identify the forms of illegitimate power that twentieth-century African, Asian, and Latin American dictators used to gain and hold office and the conditions and interests that supported them.

6. Identify the ideologies, causes, stages, and outcomes of major Mexican, Central American, and South American revolutions in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.
7. Describe the ideologies that give rise to Communism, methods of maintaining control, and the movements to overthrow such governments in Czechoslovakia, Hungary, and Poland, including the roles of individuals (e.g., Alexander Solzhenitsyn, Pope John Paul II, Lech Walesa, Vaclav Havel).
8. Identify the successes of relatively new democracies in Africa, Asia, and Latin America and the ideas, leaders, and general societal conditions that have launched and sustained, or failed to sustain, them.

12.10 Students formulate questions about and defend their analyses of tensions within our constitutional democracy and the importance of maintaining a balance between the following concepts: majority rule and individual rights; liberty and equality; state and national authority in a federal system; civil disobedience and the rule of law; freedom of the press and the right to a fair trial; the relationship of religion and government.

Principles of Economics

12.1 Students understand common economic terms and concepts and economic reasoning.

1. Examine the causal relationship between scarcity and the need for choices.
2. Explain opportunity cost and marginal benefit and marginal cost.
3. Identify the difference between monetary and nonmonetary incentives and how changes in incentives cause changes in behavior.
4. Evaluate the role of private property as an incentive in conserving and improving scarce resources, including renewable and nonrenewable natural resources.
5. Analyze the role of a market economy in establishing and preserving political and personal liberty (e.g., through the works of Adam Smith).

12.2 Students analyze the elements of America’s market economy in a global setting.

1. Understand the relationship of the concept of incentives to the law of supply and the relationship of the concept of incentives and substitutes to the law of demand.
2. Discuss the effects of changes in supply and/or demand on the relative scarcity, price, and quantity of particular products.
3. Explain the roles of property rights, competition, and profit in a market economy.
4. Explain how prices reflect the relative scarcity of goods and services and perform the allocative function in a market economy.
5. Understand the process by which competition among buyers and sellers determines a market price.
6. Describe the effect of price controls on buyers and sellers.
7. Analyze how domestic and international competition in a market economy affects goods and services produced and the quality, quantity, and price of those products.
8. Explain the role of profit as the incentive to entrepreneurs in a market economy.
9. Describe the functions of the financial markets.
10. Discuss the economic principles that guide the location of agricultural production and industry and the spatial distribution of transportation and retail facilities.

12.3 Students analyze the influence of the federal government on the American economy.

1. Understand how the role of government in a market economy often includes providing for national defense, addressing environmental concerns, defining and enforcing property rights, attempting to make markets more competitive, and protecting consumers’ rights.

2. Identify the factors that may cause the costs of government actions to outweigh the benefits.
3. Describe the aims of government fiscal policies (taxation, borrowing, spending) and their influence on production, employment, and price levels.
4. Understand the aims and tools of monetary policy and their influence on economic activity (e.g., the Federal Reserve).

12.4 Students analyze the elements of the U.S. labor market in a global setting.

1. Understand the operations of the labor market, including the circumstances surrounding the establishment of principal American labor unions, procedures that unions use to gain benefits for their members, the effects of unionization, the minimum wage, and unemployment insurance.
2. Describe the current economy and labor market, including the types of goods and services produced, the types of skills workers need, the effects of rapid technological change, and the impact of international competition.
3. Discuss wage differences among jobs and professions, using the laws of demand and supply and the concept of productivity.
4. Explain the effects of international mobility of capital and labor on the U.S. economy.

12.5 Students analyze the aggregate economic behavior of the U.S. economy.

1. Distinguish between nominal and real data.
2. Define, calculate, and explain the significance of an unemployment rate, the number of new jobs created monthly, an inflation or deflation rate, and a rate of economic growth.
3. Distinguish between short-term and long-term interest rates and explain their relative significance.

12.6 Students analyze issues of international trade and explain how the U.S. economy affects, and is affected by, economic forces beyond the United States’s borders.

1. Identify the gains in consumption and production efficiency from trade, with emphasis on the main products and changing geographic patterns of twentieth-century trade among countries in the Western Hemisphere.
2. Compare the reasons for and the effects of trade restrictions during the Great Depression compared with present-day arguments among labor, business, and political leaders over the effects of free trade on the economic and social interests of various groups of Americans.
3. Understand the changing role of international political borders and territorial sovereignty in a global economy.
4. Explain foreign exchange, the manner in which exchange rates are determined, and the effects of the dollar’s gaining (or losing) value relative to other currencies.

This page is intentionally left blank.

APPENDIX D

Teaching the Contemporary World

This appendix offers some alternative perspectives on the contemporary world. It proposes that students reflect on global themes. These themes cover the period since the Cold War's end (1989–1991), but some take a longer view.

Integration, including the processes of globalization, interdependence, and homogenization, and **disintegration**, meaning the endurance of nationalist, tribalist, and separatist alternatives to globalization, remain distinctive themes in the contemporary world.

The contemporary world is shaped by integration and disintegration. Satellites, jet airliners, shipping containers, and the spread of democratic values since the 1980s have “globalized” the world in many key respects. At the same time, this planet remains politically divided into a patchwork of nations and cultures.

Contemporary nations face challenges and threats that transcend their borders. They include environmental degradation and global climate change; cross-border terrorism and crime, including the illegal trafficking of drugs and human beings; and chaotic instability and enduring inequalities in the world economy. In recent years, governments have devised new frameworks and institutions for promoting cooperation on common dilemmas, such as the North American Free Trade Agreement, the European Union,

or the Kyoto Protocol. Yet governments are reluctant to cede governing authority to international bodies. And war and violence, both within societies and between nations, remains an endemic feature of world civilization.

While international organizations, such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the United Nations (U.N.), constitute forums in which nations can address common challenges, the politics of international organizations exhibit disagreement as well as cooperation. Even as societies become bound together by ever-tighter webs of economic, cultural, and social relations, governments work principally to serve their own interests. Students should think about how long-term historical processes (e.g., the industrial revolution and the rise of nationalism) have contributed toward integration and disintegration in the present-day world.

This appendix illustrates the tension between integrative and disintegrative forces in the contemporary world through four themes. The first, “The New Geopolitics,” asks whether the world is becoming more or less peaceful and whether the nature of conflict is changing. The second, “The Impact of Globalization,” highlights processes of economic globalization and asks what benefits they have brought—and at what costs. The third, “Rights, Religion, and Identity,” asks how ideas about universal human rights may relate to other value and identity systems in the contemporary world, including resurgent religiosity. The fourth, “A New Role for the West,” asks whether the Western world, the dominant force in world politics since the late fifteenth century, is in decline today. What is the West’s role now that the colonial era has ended, now that Western prosperity depends on borrowing from East Asia, and now that the international influence of Western powers is being supplanted by rising states, notably Brazil, Russia, India, and China?

This appendix concludes with a list of suggestions for further reading.

The New Geopolitics

Over the past 20 years, the world has oscillated between dreams of perpetual peace and the despair of enduring conflict. A new era began on 11/9 (1989), when the Berlin Wall tumbled, marking the Cold War’s peaceful end—a denouement to a 40-year conflict that few had dared to entertain. That era seemed to end on 9/11 (2001), when 19 terrorists, in an effort to make a political statement, crashed

civilian airliners into the World Trade Center in New York City and the Pentagon building in Washington, D.C., murdering almost 3,000 civilians. Since 9/11, the hopes for a more peaceful world that the end of the Cold War spawned have been displaced by a resurgence of international conflict, especially in the Middle East and Central Asia. Although the major powers have avoided war with each other, the tenor of international relations became more hostile after 9/11, as long-standing international friendships (i.e., between the United States and Europe) deteriorated and old animosities rekindled themselves (i.e., Russia and the West).

When the Cold War ended with the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 and the breakdown of the Soviet Union in 1991, what kind of world did it bequeath? Why did the vision of a New World Order that U.S. President George H. W. Bush articulated in 1990—a vision of a world more stable, pacific, and predictable than the world of the past—fail to come to pass? Did 9/11 change everything? Or was the world in the 1990s less stable than it might have appeared at the time? What were some of the perspectives from non-Western commentators and political analysts at this time?

Although the 1990s brought about the peaceful dissolution of the Soviet Empire and the reunification of Germany, the decade was marred by enduring conflict in Europe and beyond. The breakdown of the former Yugoslavian Republic into a handful of successor states after 1991 was accompanied by a brutal civil war and waves of “ethnic cleansing.” In East Africa, 1994 witnessed a horrific genocide in Rwanda. Hutu militiamen slaughtered up to a million ethnic Tutsis in a conflict that the Western powers seemed either unable or unwilling to prevent.

The years between 11/9 and 9/11 saw few conventional wars, with the prominent exception of the Gulf War in 1990. The 1990s nonetheless saw many incidences of state failure and localized conflict in the developing world. Indonesia waged a bloody war against insurgents in East Timor (a conflict that ended with East Timorese independence in 2002), while Russia waged a long and brutal conflict against Chechen nationalists. Elsewhere, the retreat of Soviet power led to the collapse of former client regimes such as Yemen and Afghanistan. Under its Taliban regime, which finally ousted the old Soviet-sponsored government in 1996, Afghanistan became a haven for the Al Qaeda terrorist network that attacked the United States on September 11, 2001.

But if the world in the 1990s was hardly as peaceful as President Bush’s proclamation of a New World Order implied, the decade was blessedly free of conflict between the major powers. Perhaps most strikingly, Russia and the United States forged a peaceful and cooperative relationship, symbolized by Russian participation in the annual meetings of the Group of Eight industrialized countries from 1997 and bilateral cooperation to decommission and dismantle nuclear weapons.

During the 1990s, some observers, such as the journalist Thomas Friedman, asserted that war was becoming obsolete thanks to the spread of democracy and processes of globalization that bound individual nations together in webs of economic interdependence. Students may reflect on Norman Angell’s *Great Illusion* of 1911, which argued that war between Britain and Germany was impossible because of their close economic ties. The spread of democratic governments in Eastern Europe, Latin America, and East Asia from the mid-1970s—what political scientist Samuel Huntington characterized as a “third wave” of democratization—brought liberal reforms to over 60 formerly authoritarian countries and seemingly confirmed that the international future would be more peaceful than the Cold War’s past.

Every bit as dramatic as the post-communist transition in Eastern Europe, the 1990s brought the end of apartheid in South Africa and the inauguration in 1994 of the freedom fighter and former political prisoner Nelson Mandela as president of that country’s new “rainbow democracy.”

The terrorist attack of 9/11 seemed to mark the shuddering end of the hopeful 1990s. Since Al Qaeda’s attack on New York City and the Pentagon, the world has experienced a resurgence in conflict and a greater awareness of existing conflicts whose origins antedate 9/11. The United States led a coalition of countries in the invasion and occupation of both Iraq and Afghanistan. In the early 2000s, the tenor of Russian interactions with the West deteriorated sharply, as former Cold War adversaries engaged in a bitter war of words. While the U.S. condemned the deterioration of Russia’s democracy, Moscow accused the United States of acting as a global vigilante.

More substantively, the struggle for control over precious natural resources—from oil and rare minerals to fish and Arctic shipping lanes—became an

increasingly prominent theme in world politics, eerily reminiscent of the colonial era's scrambles for territory. China, though it practiced a cautious diplomacy, became more assertive in the new millennium as it searched for raw materials to fuel its booming economy. The struggle that the nuclear powers (led by the United States) waged to prevent the international proliferation of nuclear weapons remained an urgent dilemma, especially after a standoff between nuclear armed neighbors India and Pakistan in 2001–2002 raised fears of an atomic exchange.

Whether 9/11 marked the “return of geopolitics”—that is to say, a return to the patterns of the early twentieth century in which world politics were dominated by a handful of great powers—or whether the hopeful future that 11/9 hailed might still transcend the troubled first decade of a new millennium remains to be seen. Students should ask whether they think the New World Order of the 1990s was simply a fleeting interlude or whether the world really has changed in ways that make conflict between the powers less likely than in the past. They should explore this same period from the perspectives of various world and regional players, both among the major powers and those in the developing world.

The Impact of Globalization

Globalization has become a buzzword of the post–Cold War era, but this is not the first era to have experienced significant economic, social, and cultural integration. During the late nineteenth century, the transatlantic economy was at least as globalized as it is today, with capital and goods flowing freely across the ocean and labor moving between countries without the legal barriers that restrict immigration today. The world since the 1970s has experienced a return to the globalizing patterns of the past. The advent of electronic communications, the dramatic decline in international transportation costs associated with containerized shipping, and the deregulation of markets have led to economic integration among nations and even convergence in social trends, cultural patterns, and consumption habits. In part because of the processes known as globalization, as a new range of nonstate or “transnational” international actors—including multinational corporations, offshore banks, and international nongovernmental organizations (NGOs)—have come to coexist, sometimes uneasily, with the nation-states that remain the dominant elements of international society.

Economists generally credit economic globalization with having increased the world's overall levels of wealth and well-being. Globalization has brought about an international recognition of the existence of Indigenous Peoples in many nation-states and sought to establish some international standards for their relationship with settler governments and their status before international bodies.

Yet globalization has not necessarily reduced economic inequalities among societies. In part, this is because the mobility that capital (i.e., money) and goods enjoy in a globalized economy is not fully shared by labor. Although manufacturers in a high-wage country, like the United States, can now easily relocate production for the American market to a low-wage country, like Mexico, in order to reduce costs, it is much more difficult for Mexican workers to immigrate legally to the United States and vice versa. These differences in the treatment of capital, goods, and labor may explain why globalization in the contemporary era has not reduced income inequalities among nations as effectively as it did in the late nineteenth century, when mass migration diminished transatlantic income inequalities.

Although globalization has increased overall global wealth, it has also bred discontent. Critics in the industrialized world blame globalization for “exporting” jobs, and in the developing world, critics accuse multinational corporations of exploiting low-wage and child laborers, proliferating slums, polluting local ecosystems, and sustaining an Americanizing consumer culture.

Economic globalization has complicated the making of national economic policy. As international integration has intensified, the economic fortunes of nations are increasingly bound together. The portfolios of Western investors rise or fall, depending on the performance of companies listed on stock exchanges in developing markets. The amount of work available to factory workers in Shanghai depends on how much money American consumers can borrow from their credit-card lenders and home equity loans. Although individual countries have quite different relationships to the globalizing international economy—the United States borrows money and imports goods, while China exports goods and loans money—processes of globalization have bound the fortunes of societies together as never before.

To accommodate this new situation, governments in the industrialized world began in the mid-1970s to coordinate their economic policies in order to manage

international economic developments. Today, such international cooperation takes the form of regular annual meetings of heads of state (e.g., the G-8 and G-20 summits of leading industrial powers) and virtually constant consultation among national central banks and finance ministers.

Although globalization has bound societies together in ties of mutual interdependence, it has also involved the spread of multinational corporations whose activities far transcend the jurisdictions of individual nation-states. These corporations include some of the most iconic and successful companies in the world today. Although the history of the multinational corporation reaches back to the Dutch and English East Indian trading companies of the seventeenth century, what makes the modern multinational distinctive is its capacity to spread out the productive process across different countries. Apple's iPod, for example, is designed in northern California and assembled in China, from components that originate in Japan, Taiwan, Korea, Singapore, and many other countries. A leading example of "modular" production, the iPod reflects the cosmopolitan origins of consumer items in the integrated twenty-first century economy.

Globalization does not only affect production, it has also shaped the tastes and expectations of consumers. The ascent of multinational business and new marketing techniques in the second half of the twentieth century have contributed toward the convergence of consumer tastes and preferences, often around instantly recognizable "global" brands. Such transformations have led some critics to argue that globalization displaces local cultures with a single, homogenizing fashion.

Yet globalization, as most social scientists understand the term, involves more than simple economic integration. It implies the convergence of societies around a common version of modernity; it suggests that the world is shrinking and the peoples who inhabit it are becoming more like one another. Globalization empowers big, multinational business, but it has also brought the rise of transnational organizations. These include both activist networks, such as Amnesty International and Greenpeace, and more troublingly, criminal and terrorist organizations that work across national borders.

As globalization has limited the autonomy of nations and has empowered nonstate actors, it may have troubling implications for the modern nation-state. As students will have learned in grade ten, the nation-state grew in the nineteenth and

twentieth centuries in response to larger modernizing changes. Industrialization, class conflict, and the business cycle in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries all contributed to the expansion of state authority, as governments assumed responsibilities for the well-being of their citizens and the stability of national economies.

In the contemporary world, however, the authority of the nation-state appears increasingly feeble in relation to the globalization of economic and other activities, all of which raises challenging questions about the future of governance in an integrating global society. The U.N. resembles an international forum rather than an international government, and its ability to impose standards (such as environmental regulations or consumer protection law) on its own members remains very limited. Students should be able to identify a range of issues, including sustainable development, that could be described as “transnational” in scope. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the U.N. when it comes to dealing with problems (whether economic, criminal, or environmental) that cross international borders?

Rights, Religion, and Identity

The authority of the nation-state in the contemporary world is in question. Historically, the state’s legitimacy has derived, as sociologist Max Weber proposed, from its monopoly on the use of “legitimate violence.” That is to say, the nation-state in the modern era was the only institution with the legal right to use force, whether against adversaries (i.e., in war) or its own citizens. From the middle of the seventeenth century, the authority of the nation-state became an important tenet of international law, and nonintervention in the “internal” affairs of other states developed into standard diplomatic practice. The convention that neither foreign states nor transnational actors (whether the Roman Catholic Church or Amnesty International) should meddle in the “internal affairs” of sovereign countries was codified in the Peace of Westphalia of 1648.

During the Enlightenment, as students will have learned, the proponents of “natural rights” argued that all human beings enjoyed inalienable freedoms—including the freedom to oppose oppressive governments. This claim was enshrined in the American Declaration of Independence (1776) and the French Assembly’s Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen (1789). In the latter half of the nineteenth century, certain rights-based protections for civilians and for

those injured in warfare became codified both in the United States (Lieber Code, 1863) and in Europe (First Geneva Convention, 1864).

Yet the Enlightenment's vision of universal natural rights was not incorporated into international law until 1948, when an upsurge in concern for human rights associated with the Second World War led to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The Declaration affirmed a broad range of freedoms belonging to all individuals regardless of their citizenship, ethnicity, or gender. These rights fell into two broad categories: legal rights, including freedom from persecution and bodily harm; and social and economic rights, including rights to material sustenance and to gainful employment.

Yet the Universal Declaration, for all the nobility of its sentiments, was largely subordinated during its first decades to the convention of state sovereignty. In this respect, the limits of the Universal Declaration mirrored those of the U.N.: while it asserted human rights accruing to all men and women, regardless of their citizenship, the Universal Declaration had no mechanisms to compel recalcitrant governments to respect the rights of their citizens.

From the 1970s, concern for human rights began to rise. In part, the ascent of ideas about human rights had to do with nongovernmental organizations such as Freedom House, Human Rights Watch, and Doctors Without Borders. Such groups publicized human rights abuses perpetrated by both right- and left-wing regimes. Their work was facilitated by innovations in communications technologies, including satellite broadcasting, which made the abuse of human rights more visible to the public in foreign countries than had previously been the case. From this perspective, the growth of concern for human rights in the contemporary era was part of a larger globalizing process.

At the same time, the emergence of human rights as a major foreign policy concern for the United States and other Western countries also had to do with the Cold War. From the 1970s, the U.S. and its allies promoted human rights as a way to attack the legitimacy of the authoritarian Soviet Union—a country that routinely abused its own citizens. The tactic enjoyed considerable success, and human rights activists such as Lech Walesa (Poland), Vaclav Havel (Czechoslovakia), and Andrei Sakharov (Russia) played an important role in eroding the legitimacy of communist rule, helping to bring the Cold War to an end.

Since the Cold War's conclusion, the politics of human rights has become a central though contested issue in international relations. During the 1990s, some East Asian countries challenged the universal applicability of human rights, arguing that the doctrine remains culturally specific and ill-suited to non-Western contexts. The People's Republic of China often rejects Western criticisms of its internal policies on the basis that any oversight of its domestic affairs is an illegitimate intrusion into national sovereignty.

Western countries, for the most part, tend to have more complex relationships with the idea that human rights have become an international concern. Most Western countries now describe the promotion of human rights in foreign countries as a central objective for their own foreign policies, even though most of them face criticism from groups such as Amnesty International for conditions at home (e.g., overcrowded prisons, wrongful convictions, or the death penalty). Some Western societies still struggle with areas of civil rights that remain unresolved, such as marriage rights, nondiscrimination protections, and other issues of equality for their lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender citizens, but they can still provide leadership in applying global pressure against regimes that even in the twenty-first century mandate harsh penalties and sometimes even death against lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender people. Much like “democratization,” the politics of global human rights has become a central preoccupation in the post-Cold War world. This is the case even though understanding of the doctrine's meaning—and of the ways that governments should promote it—varies widely among societies.

If the campaign for human rights is a universalizing movement that asserts the basic similarity of human expectations across time and place, the contemporary era has also witnessed a dramatic movement toward diversity in the form of a worldwide religious revival. Reflecting on the history of modern nationalism, students may perceive some similarities in the ways in which both human rights and religion assert the existence of authorities higher than national governments, whether in the form of “natural law” or holy law. Both religious leaders and human rights activists affirm that the individual is not only a citizen of his or her country: he or she may also be a member of an “identity community” far larger than the nation-state, whether the entire human race or a community of religious believers spanning many different countries.

The global revival of religiosity has been a defining characteristic of the times. It is also a development that would have surprised academic theorists of secularization in the 1960s and 1970s who argued that religion was in irrevocable decline. Reflecting the resurgence of religion in many parts of the world over the past 30 years, politics has become increasingly infused with the language of faith. The revival of religion has, in some respects, created new cleavages in world politics, both within and among societies.

Anti-Western violence perpetrated by the followers of a fundamentalist version of Islam has contributed to the appearance of deep conflict between the Islamic and Western worlds, especially since 9/11. Historical memories of earlier conflicts, such as the Crusades, have inflamed a contemporary “clash of civilizations.” In numerous societies, such as Nigeria, the Sudan, and India, the revival of religion—and of religion as an expression mode of political identity—has bred tension and even outright violence between members of neighboring religious communities.

The proponents of religious orthodoxies have found themselves in conflict with secularists in societies, whether in battles over headscarves in Istanbul and Paris or over prayer in American schools. While the resurgence of religion has been a transnational phenomenon affecting many different countries, students ought to be aware that it has been less pronounced in some areas of the world, notably Western Europe and China, than in others. Students may investigate if the world is becoming more or less religious and what the implications of religion are for international relations and for domestic politics in the United States and other societies. Why has Western Europe (so far) seemed to remain apart from this global trend?

A New Role for the West

Perhaps the most dramatic story of the second millennium (1000–1999 CE) was the rise of Europe—a remote, salty, and windswept corner of Eurasia—to global dominance. The “Rise of the West” was a transformative movement in world history, and it brought tumultuous consequences to the entire world. Students should have studied the reasons for Europe’s rise to dominance in the early modern era, from the growth of the seaborne trading companies of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries to the spread of colonies in the eighteenth and nineteenth. Have Europe and its Western offshoots, including the United

States, now entered a phase of relative historical decline? This is a historical transformation that students should consider carefully, especially insofar as it relates to the “rise” of new powers such as India and the People’s Republic of China and the more ancient history of these “new” world powers as global and regional leaders.

Dominant at the century’s beginning, Europe’s eclipse was a central theme of the twentieth century. Exhausted by the century’s two world wars and unable to hold back powerful nationalist movements in the colonial world, the European colonial empires collapsed in the 30 years after 1945. Simultaneously, the major west European countries created among themselves a novel confederal apparatus—the European Union—to integrate their economies and to provide a modicum of political unity. As an economic initiative, the European Union has been highly successful: per capita incomes in Europe remain very high, and the west European region has enjoyed an unprecedented phase of peace and cooperation. Yet Europe remains dependent on U.S. commitments to NATO (the North Atlantic Treaty Organization) for its military security, and even the leading European powers are now unable or unwilling to exert significant military force beyond the European continent.

Although the United States, in contrast to Western Europe, remains the most powerful state in the international system, it faces similar challenges. Like Europe, the United States is committed to large welfare and social security programs that may prove difficult to fund in the future, as the postwar “baby boomers” retire and the country’s working population shrinks relative to its large number of retirees. In the world economy, the United States appears less dominant than it once was. No longer a net exporter of manufactured goods to the rest of the world (as it was from the 1890s to the 1970s), the U.S. runs trade deficits and borrows from foreign countries to finance its imports. Its position in the global economy has become that of a consumer of last resort, a role that it can sustain for only so long as others remain willing to extend financial credit to cover its deficits.

China has come to play a very different kind of role in the international economy. Since the death of Mao Zedong in 1976 and the reforms initiated by his successor, Deng Xiaoping, China has embraced market-oriented growth. Exports have driven Chinese growth, as American shoppers who find “Made in China” stickers on merchandise ranging from electronics to kitchen gadgets may attest.

Overseas markets have been even more vital to the growth of smaller “Pacific Rim” economies such as Singapore, Taiwan, and South Korea in the 1980s and 1990s.

In contrast to China’s experience, economic growth and market reforms in these countries coincided with political reform. While China’s commitments to economic reform and political authoritarianism may seem contradictory, even paradoxical, to outsiders, especially in the context of domestic protests such as the 1989 demonstrations at Tiananmen Square, double-digit growth rates have arguably helped the Chinese Communist Party to maintain its control on power.

Not only a major industrial power, China has also become a major player in the world’s financial system. With high domestic savings rates and a favorable balance of payments, China found itself since the mid-1990s making far more money from its exports to foreign countries than it was able (or willing) to spend on imports. Thanks to these large surpluses, China developed a mutually beneficial relationship with the United States whereby it loaned money to the United States (mainly by purchasing U.S. Treasury Bills), thereby enabling the U.S. to maintain its trade deficit and, by implication, its substantial purchases of Chinese exports.

So entangled had the U.S. and Chinese economies become by 2009 that the economic historian Niall Ferguson proposed that they had become an integrated unit that he called “Chimerica.” China’s economic transformation from the late 1970s has thus been a central element of larger economic globalization. Already the world’s most populous country, China is projected to overtake the U.S. as the largest economy by the middle of the twenty-first century. China’s resurgence may thus prove to be a central element in the West’s relative decline.

At some point during the twenty-first century, India will overtake China as the world’s most populous country. Although India has not enjoyed the kind of spectacular industrialization that China has experienced since the 1990s, India has enjoyed steady economic growth since its leaders undertook major market reforms. India has carved out a particular niche as a supplier of technology services, from software engineering to telephone call center services.

Most importantly, India—in contrast to China—maintains a functioning democracy. Economists disagree whether India will overtake Chinese growth rates during the twenty-first century, but these two powers have become the dominant economic forces in the Asian mainland. Together with Japan, a country whose

remarkable postwar recovery in the 1950s and 1960s made it a leading economic power, it seems clear that Asia will be the center of global economic activity in the twenty-first century.

Contemporary trends—the diversification of economic power and the globalization of production, Europe’s military decline, and a shift in the world’s demographic center of gravity away from the North Atlantic—are finally reversing what historians have called the “Great Divergence” of the eighteenth century: a shift in which European growth rates leaped ahead of Asian ones. Among the most significant developments of this era, then, has been Asia’s return to the leading position in the world that it occupied before the rise of the West. Exacerbating the West’s relative decline, oil-rich states such as Saudi Arabia, Iran, and Venezuela control the energy supplies on which their prosperity depends. Elsewhere, regional powers such as Brazil have broken out of former patterns of Cold War subservience and economic dependency to become dominant regional and, increasingly, global powers. Even Russia, handsomely endowed with natural gas reserves, has rebounded in influence and wealth in recent years, following a difficult decade after the Cold War’s end. The present global scene now appears less predictable, less hierarchical, and—potentially—less stable than in past centuries.

Suggested Readings

The New Geopolitics

Barber, Benjamin. *Jihad vs. McWorld: Terrorism’s Challenge to Democracy* (New York: Times Books, 1995).

Brzezinski, Zbigniew. *Second Chance: Three Presidents and the Crisis of American Superpower* (New York: Basic Books, 2007).

Chollet, Derek, and James Goldgeier. *America Between the Wars: From 9/11 to 11/9* (New York: Public Affairs, 2008).

Kagan, Robert. *The Return of History and the End of Dreams* (New York: Knopf, 2008).

Kupchan, Charles. *The End of the American Era: U.S. Foreign Policy and the Geopolitics of the Twenty-First Century* (New York: Knopf, 2002).

The Impact of Globalization

Bhagwati, Jagdish. *In Defense of Globalization* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2004).

Held, David, Anthony McGrew, David Goldblatt, and Jonathan Perraton. *Global Transformations: Politics, Economics, and Culture* (Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 1999).

LaFeber, Walter. *Michael Jordan and the New Global Capitalism* (New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1999).

Osterhammel, Jurgen, and Niels Petersson. *Globalization: A Short History* (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 2005).

Stiglitz, Joseph. *Globalization and Its Discontents* (New York: W. W. Norton, 2002).

Yergin, Daniel, and Joseph Stanislaw. *The Commanding Heights: The Battle for the World Economy* (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1998).

Rights, Religion, and Identity

Berger, Peter, ed. *The Desecularization of the World: Resurgent Religion and World Politics* (Washington, DC: Eerdmans Publishing, 1999).

Donnelly, Jack. *Universal Human Rights in Theory and Practice* (Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press, 1989).

Ishay, Micheline. *The History of Human Rights: From Ancient Times to the Globalization Era* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2008).

Keck, Margaret, and Kathryn Sikkink. *Activists Beyond Borders: Advocacy Networks in International Politics* (Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press, 1998).

Loren, Paul. *The Evolution of International Human Rights* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2003).

Norris, Pippa, and Ronald Inglehart. *Sacred and Secular: Religion and Politics Worldwide* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2004).

A New Role for the West

Abernethy, David. *The Dynamics of Global Dominance: European Overseas Empires, 1415-1980* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 2000).

Ferguson, Niall. *Colossus: The Price of America's Empire* (New York: Penguin, 2004).

Kynge, James. *China Shakes the World: A Titan's Rise and Troubled Future* (New York: Mariner, 2007).

APPENDIX E

Educating for Democracy: Civic Education in the History–Social Science Curriculum

A Republic, if you can keep it.

—Benjamin Franklin, in response to the question “Well, Doctor, what have we got: a republic or a monarchy?” at the Constitutional Convention (1787)

The qualifications for self-government in society are not innate. They are the result of habit and long training.

—Thomas Jefferson (1824)

I know of no safe depository of the ultimate powers of society but the people themselves, and if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with a wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take it from them but to inform their discretion.

—Thomas Jefferson (1820)

Why Civic Learning Is Important

Preparing students for informed, skilled, and engaged participation in civic life is a key goal of social studies education and is addressed throughout the California History–Social Science Framework and History–Social Science Standards. A constitutional democracy and its institutions depend on citizens who know how government works, understand and abide by the rule of law, vote, serve as jurors, stay informed about and make evidence-based decisions about public issues, respect the rights of others, participate in public affairs, and seek the betterment of their communities, state, and country.

In twenty-first century California, civic learning is also important for a healthy economy and workplace. To succeed and thrive, the economy and business need stable and law-abiding communities, a populace that understands and embraces fundamental constitutional principles such as free expression, the rule of law, and the legitimate protection of property rights. They need an educated workforce. Business and the professions need leaders and individuals who can think critically, solve problems, make good decisions, respect the rights of coworkers, and work in heterogeneous environments.

Schools that support high-quality civic education programs provide students with opportunities to be engaged, motivated, and committed to their educational progress. In a high-quality civic education program, students have the opportunity to discuss and deliberate current issues, participate in simulations and activities that model governmental process and explore public policymaking, engage in civic-based service-learning, and develop participatory skills through school governance and extracurricular activities that encourage civil discourse, working together, and consensus building. Civic education addresses real-life issues and helps students understand the connections between the past and the present and between the present and the future.

The Components of Civic Education

The components of civic education include knowledge and foundational content, cognitive skills, participatory skills, and dispositions that enable citizens to engage effectively in political and civil society. A high-quality civic education

systematically addresses all four components at all grade levels and builds on skills and knowledge from one grade level to the next.

Knowledge and foundational content provide the basis for understanding constitutional democracy, including its historical and contemporary institutions, representative government, the functions and processes of the three branches of government, constitutional principles and concepts, federalism, the justice system, current issues and their historical, economic, and geographical contexts, public policymaking at various levels of government, and international and global awareness.

Students with a strong foundation in civic education will have learned the significance of landmark Supreme Court cases, how Congress works, the divisions and levels of government, citizenship roles and responsibilities, and national interests and their relationship to international relations and human rights. Students will gain understanding of constitutional and democratic principles and concepts such as liberty, freedom, rule of law, individual rights and the rights of property, human rights, justice, equal protection, due process, representation, privacy, civic responsibilities, and “the common good.”

Civic education would be ineffective without specific attention to the development of cognitive skills that help students engage in effective decision making and problem-solving processes, evaluate sources of information, consider multiple viewpoints, construct and defend a position based on reasoning and factual support, and develop intellectual skills that allow students to understand the interrelatedness of social, political, and economic issues. These cognitive skills are similar to and supplement the Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills that students learn to apply throughout the standards-based history–social science curriculum. With effective civic education, students will recall, recognize, and remember facts and information and understand democratic principles and concepts and be able to apply them to real-life social, political, and economic issues.

High-quality civic education develops critical participatory skills that include listening and speaking, working together, encouraging and analyzing various points of view, engaging in civil discourse, deliberation, debate, team building, consensus building, compromise, and effective communication and presentation. Activities that develop proficient participatory skills include structured discussions

and deliberations, simulations of institutional processes such as mock trials, mock congressional hearings, or models United Nations activities, service-learning projects, debate, project-based civic actions, and project presentations. High-quality civic education fosters respect for legitimate authority, opposition to tyranny, tolerance, respect for diversity and different points of view, adherence to law, respect for and support of the rights of others, responsibility, equity and inclusiveness, being informed and interested in political and community issues, and active participation in civic life.

High-quality civic learning also connects students to real civic life. Students can learn positive involvement through participation in actual governmental processes, such as working at the polls or volunteering in an election campaign, attending and analyzing legislative or administrative public meetings and hearings, visiting courts and attending trials, and communication and interaction with policymakers. Students should be presented with opportunities for school and community involvement through service-learning aligned with the curriculum, action civics projects, class discussion and debate, and participation in school governance.

Civic Learning Integrated into the History–Social Science Curriculum

Civic-learning content and activities are contained throughout the framework course descriptions for kindergarten through grade twelve. In addition, the History–Social Science Content Standards contain a rich array of civic learning content and opportunities to address civic issues. Through expository reading, writing prompts, class projects, discussion of current events, service-learning, and interdistrict student events such as mock trials, civic education can be a part of instruction at every grade level. Thinking and cognitive skills are developed as part of the writing program, expository reading activities, class discussions on application of knowledge, and analysis of historical events and the effects of the past on life in today’s society. These skills should be developed and assessed so as to build on them from one grade level to the next.

Effective Teaching and Assessment Strategies

In the 2002 *Civic Mission of Schools* report, the Carnegie Corporation of New York and the Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE) identified six learning strategies for civic education that are based on research. In 2011, the *Guardian of Democracy: The Civic Mission of Schools* report determined that additional studies strengthened and refined these original “promising approaches” and identified the following six strategies as “proven practices.”

- Classroom instruction in government, history, law, economics, and democracy
- Discussion of current events and controversial issues
- Service-learning linked to the formal curriculum and classroom instruction
- Extracurricular activities
- Student participation in school governance
- Simulations of democratic processes and procedures such as mock trials, mock congressional hearings, debates, and other participatory activities

These strategies reinforce the knowledge base of civics and government, encourage higher-level thinking skills, build participatory skills, and foster dispositions that support civic engagement.

Knowledge in civic education begins with a strong foundation in history and government gained through the standards-based curriculum in history–social science. Civic knowledge is supported through the teaching of expository reading and writing and development of research skills, communication skills, and presentation skills. Expository writing includes problem solving, taking a position and defending it, developing cause-and-effect narratives, exploring multiple perspectives, and applying conceptual knowledge to current events and global perspectives.

Individual and group presentations include structured debate, mock trials, mock hearings, service-learning projects, public policy research and development, and visual displays. Groupings for the projects may be whole-class projects, small

teams, pairs, or triads of students. Mock hearings by a panel of three to six students may include presentations and follow-up questions by a panel of judges on constitutional issues, current events, landmark Supreme Court cases, and political issues.

Demonstration of civic education skills can be assessed through writing, oral presentations, performances, visual representations of research and application of information, project-based learning (including service-learning), debate based on research, classroom dialogue and discussion, and questioning strategies.

How the Common Core State Standards Support Civic Learning

The reading and comprehension, speaking and listening, and writing skills contained in the *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy) support high-quality civic learning and can be addressed with civic-learning strategies. Reading and comprehending complex discipline-specific expository, narrative, and persuasive text, such as in foundational documents, court opinions, presidential speeches, candidate position papers, and opinion/editorial pieces, introduces students to a rich array of civic content concerning democratic ideals and principles, governmental procedures and processes, and political issues and provides students with multiple opportunities to improve skills.

The development of listening and speaking skills is essential for civic discourse. Listening to understand key ideas, different points of view and perspectives, claims, and arguments helps students analyze and broaden their own perspectives, identify logical fallacies, and draw sounder conclusions. The development of speaking skills prepares students to paraphrase information, articulate complex ideas, develop arguments, and take reasoned and evidence-based positions. These skills can be developed by participating in a range of civic-learning strategies including debate, structured discussion, and deliberation concerning public issues.

Writing expository and persuasive texts further develops students' ability to analyze information, consider and evaluate various points of view, develop and evaluate claims and arguments, and construct evidence-based conclusions. These

skills are important for civic engagement and can be developed by utilizing civic writing activities such as letters to the editor, posts on political issue blogs, and the creation of position papers or opinion pieces. At the secondary level, these skills can be developed through research and writing projects on a current or controversial issue or as a central component of a civic-action project.

How Civic Education Connects to 21st Century Skills

California is one of 19 states that have joined the Partnership for 21st Century Skills, a national collaboration to promote education that will prepare students for work and life in the modern world. In addition to a sound grounding in core subjects including civics and government, the partnership calls for students to develop learning and communication skills, particularly those that promote critical thinking, communication, collaboration and creativity, life and career skills, and information, media, and technological skills. The development of these skills can be promoted by high-quality civic learning.

Through civic learning, students develop strong foundations in understanding local, state, national, and international issues. They develop problem-solving skills that address relevant issues. Through discussion, deliberation, simulations, and service-learning and civic-action projects, they hone interpersonal skills that contribute to collaborative work, learn to build consensus and negotiate and compromise, and creatively seek solutions to local, national, and global issues. In conducting research-based projects and making presentations on their findings students can learn about and utilize a wide range of technology and media, including the Internet, social networking applications, presentation software such as PowerPoint, and video production utilities.

How Civic Learning Connects to Other Core Social Science Disciplines

As mentioned in chapter 1, the *College, Career and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards* (C3 Framework) can be an important tool for local or site-level curriculum planning and development and for teachers in refining their practice.

The C3 Framework consists of four dimensions: Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries (Dimension 1); Applying Disciplinary Concepts and Tools from Civics, Economics, Geography, and History (Dimension 2); Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence (Dimension 3); and Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action (Dimension 4). These dimensions are important for preparing students to become informed and engaged citizens.

Citizens are often confronted with compelling questions related to civics such as What is justice? What is equal protection? What is due process? These kinds of questions lead to other questions, such as Does affirmative action promote equal protection?, or, Is police use of deadly force compatible with due process? Each question raises additional questions and prompts answers to them. Dimension 1 maintains that students preparing for informed and engaged citizenship need to be able to anticipate and form questions and develop strategies for answering them.

To form reasoned conclusions based on evidence about many local, state, national, and international issues, a citizen needs a sound grounding in the concepts and tools of civics, economics, geography, and history. Each of these disciplines provide insight into the causes and contexts of the issues. For example, when a proposal to build a housing development on undeveloped land is considered, economic and geographic factors often come into play. When a dispute over voter redistricting is considered at the state level, historical evidence of discrimination and the political dimensions of the dispute may be important. Indeed, it is possible that content from all four disciplines may be important. For example, disputes over international borders, claims to territory, and issues of self-determination require the lenses of all four disciplines. Dimension 2 represents a recognition that students need grounding in core social studies disciplines.

In today's information age, informed citizens must be prepared to evaluate multiple and often contradictory sources to identify evidence for constructing claims, making arguments, or drawing conclusions about public issues, policy, and political candidates. Dimension 3 provides students with the opportunity to develop the skills necessary to both evaluate sources and effectively use evidence.

Effective engagement in civic life often requires collaboration, communication, the ability to critique, and persuasion. Moreover, it also requires citizens to make informed decisions and take informed action to address issues and problems.

Dimension 4 represents recognition of these requirements and seeks to prepare young people to construct effective explanations and arguments based on reasoning and evidence and communicate them to a variety of audiences through writing, speaking, and the use of multimedia. They must also be able assess options and apply a range of deliberative and democratic strategies to make decisions and take action in and out of school.

Suggested Readings

- Branson, Margaret, Roy Erickson, John Hale, Charles N. Quigley, Theresa M. Richard, David Hargrove, and Minta Berry, eds. *Education for Democracy, Scope and Sequence*. Downey, CA: Los Angeles County Office of Education, 2003.
- California Department of Education. *California Partnership for 21st Century Skills*. Sacramento: Author, 2013.
- California Task Force on K–12 Civic Learning. *Revitalizing K-12 Civic Learning in California: A Blueprint for Action*, Sacramento: California Department of Education, 2014.
- Carnegie Corporation, and Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE). 2011. *Guardian of Democracy: the Civic Mission of Schools*. Silver Spring, MD: Leonore Annenberg Institute for Civics of the Annenberg Public Policy Center of the University of Pennsylvania and the Campaign for the Civic Mission of Schools, 2011.
- Environmental Literacy Task Force. *A Blueprint for Environmental Literacy: Educating Every Student In, About, and For the Environment*. Redwood City: Californians Dedicated to Education, 2015.
- Herczog, Michelle M., *Preparing Students for College, Career and Citizenship*. Downey, CA: Los Angeles County Office of Education, 2011.
- National Council for the Social Studies. *College, Career and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards*. Silver Spring, MD: Author, 2013.

This page is intentionally left blank.

APPENDIX F

Religion and History–Social Science Education

The role of religion in the curriculum, the observance of holidays, and the selection of instructional materials in public schools are some of the most challenging and controversial aspects of teaching history–social science. This appendix provides guidelines for educators and the community about how to address these issues in a manner that is constitutionally and academically appropriate.

Even before approaching the sequenced course of study, history–social science teachers need to ask themselves if they are prepared to discuss the role of religion in world and U.S. history. The history–social science classroom needs to be a place for the study of historical developments that includes understanding how religious beliefs and values affected historical figures. The overall goal is to build understanding and respect for the constitutionally protected rights that the U.S. has agreed to uphold so that people live peacefully despite their differences.

As the framework content makes evident, much of history, art, music, literature, and contemporary life are unintelligible without an understanding of the major religious ideas and influences that have shaped the world’s cultures and events. This appendix is designed to overcome uncertainty about best practices in dealing with religious topics and issues.

Support for Educators

In keeping with the focus of the *History–Social Science Framework*, educators must remember that as a member of a public institution charged with the role of nurturing the next generation of citizens, they have the responsibility to model for students the constitutional principles of justice, fairness, and rule of law. The American civic agreement found in the Constitution, particularly in its First Amendment, provides the tool for negotiating consensus on how to live with the deepest social and cultural differences. The words from the First Amendment should be the hallmark of every social studies classroom:

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof;

This process of consensus development around constitutional principles in support of educators who are trying to deal with religious liberty and diversity issues effectively is well underway. The First Amendment Center has published several civic-based consensus documents to guide schools and the communities in the development of religion-related policy and practice. Endorsed by religious, legal, and educational organizations representing widely divergent perspectives, these consensus statements have been distributed to school districts across the nation by the U.S. Department of Education to address many of the issues that have resulted in conflict and litigation.

The fundamental idea in the consensus documents and related court decisions is that public schools may not promote or inhibit religion. Schools must be places where religion and religious convictions, as well as nonbelief, are treated with fairness and respect. Schools demonstrate fairness when they ensure that the curriculum includes study about religion, where appropriate, as an important part of a complete education.

Guidelines for Teaching About Religion

The suggestions for dealing with religion provided below are grounded in the principles of *rights*, *responsibilities*, and *respect*. Americans' civic agreement as a nation is based on the idea that all people are born with the right to freedom of conscience. As a civic agency and one with the primary role in educating the next generation of citizens, the school has the responsibility to protect that right for all

students and parents. This is best achieved by establishing an atmosphere of respect for differences of belief and culture in all aspects of school organization and instructional practice.

The primary manner in which schools establish a climate of respect for religious differences is by clearly distinguishing between teaching *about* religion and indoctrinating students or advocating religion. The following guidelines are recommended approaches to achieve this end:

1. The school’s approach to religion is academic, not devotional.
2. The school may strive for student awareness of religion in historical and contemporary societies, but it may not press for student acceptance of any one religion.
3. The school may include study about religion as part of the history–social science curriculum, but it may not sponsor the practice of religion.
4. The school may expose students to a diversity of religious views in their studies, but it may not impose any particular view.
5. The school may educate about all religions but may not promote or denigrate any religion.
6. The school may inform students about various beliefs, but it should not seek to conform students to any particular belief.

These guidelines, in part derived from a series of Supreme Court interpretations of the First Amendment, are a useful tool for educational decision making. They reflect the requirements in the California Constitution and the *Education Code*. If schools are neither to inculcate nor inhibit religion, both the curriculum and instructional materials and the teachers or presenters guiding their interpretation must be neutral and balanced. Belief or nonbelief and religions should be studied in the history–social science classroom as they naturally occur in the curriculum: as part of the chronology and themes of instruction; to explain a reference in a literature selection; or as background on a religiously influenced work of art or music. A good rule of thumb for teaching topics related to religion is to make sure that they are firmly grounded in the curriculum required by the California frameworks and content standards.

Religious texts, leaders, and events should be examined by using the same academic rigor and history–social science analysis skills applied to other topics. Classroom methodologies must not include religious role-playing activities or simulations of rituals or devotional acts. Students may be asked to compare religious ideas and practices but never to rank them by importance or quality. Instructional language should avoid absolutes such as “all Buddhists believe . . .” and instead use attribution such as “some Mahayana Buddhists in India practice . . .” In all cases, educators need to avoid “we”/“they” language and selective allocation of emphasis that imply evaluative preference for one belief over another.

At the same time that schools and educators may not advocate or denigrate a religion (a violation of the Establishment Clause of the First Amendment), students are free to express their religious or nonreligious ideas and beliefs as part of the Free Exercise Clause of the First Amendment. Students who respond to class assignments with an appropriately related religious perspective or response should be graded according to the same criteria as applied to all other students. Also, students may not be required to attend school functions or perform patriotic ceremonies if those acts would unduly burden their beliefs. In limited cases, students may request and be provided with alternative assignments.

To support teachers in making constitutionally and academically sound decisions and provide a venue for community members to pursue a redress of grievances peacefully and rationally, school boards throughout California have developed policies and procedures related to religion and public education. It is important that new and continuing teachers and administrators are fully briefed on these policies and procedures so that mistakes that sometimes occur from oversight or confusion can be avoided.

Religious liberty issues are sometimes complex and have significant case law attached to their interpretation. The nonpartisan, nonprofit First Amendment Center (<http://www.firstamendmentcenter.org/>) publication, *Finding Common Ground: A First Amendment Guide to Religion and Public Schools*, written by Charles Haynes and Oliver Thomas, includes copies of all of the consensus documents mentioned above as well as essential legal and background information for educators. It is available online at the First Amendment Center Web site as well as in print form. The California County Superintendents Educational Services Association and the First Amendment Center have partnered to provide resources

and in-service opportunities to California educators through the California Three Rs (Rights, Responsibilities, and Respect) Project. The California Three Rs Project publishes a quarterly bulletin on hot topics related to religion and schools that is available online at its Web site (<http://ca3rsproject.org/>).

Legal Parameters of Religion in Public Schools

The First Amendment of the U.S. Constitution, the California Constitution, and the California *Education Code* articulate the principles and the legal framework to guide the process of determining how to address teaching about religion and the religious needs and perspectives of students and parents. One of the most important elements of the process for the community and educators to remember is that when they serve an instructional or leadership role with students, they are representatives of government and, therefore, subject to constitutional restrictions on religious activity that were applied to states through the Fourteenth Amendment. In addition they are subject to the California Constitution and the California *Education Code*. The pertinent laws related to religion and public education include the following:

U.S. Constitution, First Amendment

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof;

California State Constitution

ARTICLE 1: Declaration of Rights

SEC. 4. Free exercise and enjoyment of religion without discrimination or preference are guaranteed. This liberty of conscience does not excuse acts that are licentious or inconsistent with the peace or safety of the State. The Legislature shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion.

ARTICLE 9: Education

SEC. 8. No public money shall ever be appropriated for the support of any sectarian or denominational school, or any school not under the exclusive control of the officers of the public schools; nor shall any sectarian or denominational

doctrine be taught, or instruction thereon be permitted, directly or indirectly, in any of the common schools of this State.

Education Code

PART 1. General Provisions: Chapter 2. Educational Equity

220. No person shall be subjected to discrimination on the basis of disability, gender, gender identity, gender expression, nationality, race or ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, or any other characteristic that is contained in the definition of hate crimes set forth in Section 422.55 of the Penal Code in any program or activity conducted by an educational institution that receives, or benefits from, state financial assistance or enrolls pupils who receive state student financial aid.

233.5. (a) Each teacher shall endeavor to impress upon the minds of the pupils the principles of morality, truth, justice, patriotism, and a true comprehension of the rights, duties, and dignity of American citizenship, and the meaning of equality and human dignity, including the promotion of harmonious relations . . .

PART 28. General Instructional Programs

51500. A teacher shall not give instruction and a school district shall not sponsor any activity that promotes a discriminatory bias on the basis of race or ethnicity, gender, religion, disability, nationality, or sexual orientation, or because of a characteristic listed in Section 220.

51501. The state board and any governing board shall not adopt any textbooks or other instructional materials for use in the public schools that contain any matter reflecting adversely upon persons on the basis of their race or ethnicity, gender, religion, disability, nationality, or sexual orientation, or because of a characteristic listed in Section 220.

51511. Nothing in this code shall be construed to prevent, or exclude from the public schools, references to religion or references to or the use of religious literature, dance, music, theatre, and visual arts or other things having a religious significance when such references or uses do not constitute instruction in religious principles or aid to any religious sect, church, creed, or sectarian purpose and when such references or uses are incidental to or illustrative of matters properly included in the course of study.

51513. No test, questionnaire, survey, or examination containing any questions about the pupil's personal beliefs or practices in sex, family life, morality, and religion, or any questions about the pupil's parents' or guardians' beliefs and practices in sex, family life, morality, and religion, shall be administered to any pupil in kindergarten or grades 1 to 12, inclusive, unless the parent or guardian of the pupil . . . gives written permission for the pupil to take this test, questionnaire, survey, or examination.

Conclusion

Though at first glance it may appear challenging, teaching about religion and its influence on history and culture is fascinating and motivating for students. Doing so with the First Amendment as a foundation is one of the most important things that schools can do to build a generation of Americans who understand enough about the ideas and values of others that they can continue to promulgate a society that protects rights and respectful interactions among its peoples.

This page is intentionally left blank.

APPENDIX G

California Education and the Environment Initiative

Environmental Principles and Concepts – December 12, 2004

Assembly Bill 1548 (Pavley, Chapter 665, Statutes of 2003)

Assembly Bill 1721 (Pavley, Chapter 581, Statutes of 2005)

Environmental Principles and Concepts developed by the California Environmental Protection Agency and adopted by the State Board of Education (*Public Resources Code* Section 71301)

The environmental principles examine the interactions and interdependence of human societies and natural systems. The nature of these interactions is summarized in the Environmental Principles and Concepts (EP&Cs) that are presented below.

Principle I. People Depend on Natural Systems

The continuation and health of individual human lives and of human communities and societies depend on the health of the natural systems that provide essential goods and ecosystem services. As a basis for understanding this principle:

Concept a. Students need to know that the goods produced by natural systems are essential to human life and to the functioning of our economies and cultures.

Concept b. Students need to know that the ecosystem services provided by natural systems are essential to human life and to the functioning of our economies and cultures.

Concept c. Students need to know that the quality, quantity and reliability of the goods and ecosystem services provided by natural systems are directly affected by the health of those systems.

Principle II. People Influence Natural Systems

The long-term functioning and health of terrestrial, freshwater, coastal and marine ecosystems are influenced by their relationships with human societies. As a basis for understanding this principle:

Concept a. Students need to know that direct and indirect changes to natural systems due to the growth of human populations and their consumption rates influence the geographic extent, composition, biological diversity, and viability of natural systems.

Concept b. Students need to know that methods used to extract, harvest, transport, and consume natural resources influence the geographic extent, composition, biological diversity, and viability of natural systems.

Concept c. Students need to know that the expansion and operation of human communities influences the geographic extent, composition, biological diversity, and viability of natural systems.

Concept d. Students need to know that the legal, economic, and political systems that govern the use and management of natural systems directly influence the geographic extent, composition, biological diversity, and viability of natural systems.

Principle III. Natural Systems Change in Ways That People Benefit from and Can Influence

Natural systems proceed through cycles that humans depend upon, benefit from and can alter. As a basis for understanding this principle:

Concept a. Students need to know that natural systems proceed through cycles and processes that are required for their functioning.

Concept b. Students need to know that human practices depend upon and benefit from the cycles and processes that operate within natural systems.

Concept c. Students need to know that human practices can alter the cycles and processes that operate within natural systems.

Principle IV. There Are No Permanent or Impermeable Boundaries That Prevent Matter from Flowing Between Systems

The exchange of matter between natural systems and human societies affects the long-term functioning of both. As a basis for understanding this principle:

Concept a. Students need to know that the effects of human activities on natural systems are directly related to the quantities of resources consumed and to the quantity and characteristics of the resulting byproducts.

Concept b. Students need to know that the byproducts of human activity are not readily prevented from entering natural systems and may be beneficial, neutral, or detrimental in their effect.

Concept c. Students need to know that the capacity of natural systems to adjust to human-caused alterations depends on the nature of the system as well as the scope, scale, and duration of the activity and the nature of its byproducts.

Principle V. Decisions Affecting Resources and Natural Systems Are Complex and Involve Many Factors

Decisions affecting resources and natural systems are based on a wide range of considerations and decision-making processes. As a basis for understanding this principle:

Concept a. Students need to know the spectrum of what is considered in making decisions about resources and natural systems and how those factors influence decisions.

Concept b. Students need to know the process of making decisions about resources and natural systems, and how the assessment of social, economic, political, and environmental factors has changed over time.

Education and the Environment Curriculum Units

The following supplemental instructional materials are available from the Education and the Environment Initiative, at the California Department of Resources Recycling and Recovery (CalRecycle) Environmental Protection Agency

Web site at <http://www.californiaeei.org>. Each unit was approved by the State Board of Education in 2010 to provide coverage of the identified history–social science standard(s). Units are also available for specific science content standards.

KINDERGARTEN

Standards K.4.5. Demonstrate familiarity with the school’s layout, environs, and the jobs people do there.

K.6.3. Understand how people lived in earlier times and how their lives would be different today (e.g., getting water from a well, growing food, making clothing, having fun, forming organizations, living by rules and laws).

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Some Things Change and Some Things Stay the Same*

Students see that the places we live in change over time, by first looking at their school and pictures of a school like theirs 100 years ago. Students compare and contrast the school, its surroundings, and the people of a “typical” California town 100 years ago to their modern community. They become familiar with the idea that history relates to events, people, and places of other times. They also learn that the way history unfolds involves an ongoing interaction between people, their needs, and the resources that they use from their natural and physical environment.

FIRST GRADE

Standard 1.2.4. Describe how location, weather, and physical environment affect the way people live, including the effects on their food, clothing, shelter, transportation, and recreation.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *People and Places*

All lessons in this unit relate locations in California to the physical and human characteristics of those places. Students learn human activities can change natural systems and how these changes can affect how people live. Information about two cities contrasts how people live in those places (looking at architecture, recreation, and jobs, for example). The unit provides an understanding of humans’ dependence on goods and services provided by natural systems.

Standard 1.4.2. Study transportation methods of earlier days.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *On the Move*

This unit focuses on transportation changes over time and how this brought

about changes to communities. Students study photos and compare past and present transportation methods. Each lesson addresses differences in past and present transportation methods to help students learn how the methods of the past and present rely on ecosystem goods and ecosystem services provided by natural systems.

SECOND GRADE

Standard 2.2.4. Compare and contrast basic land use in urban, suburban, and rural environments in California.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *California Land Use—Then and Now*

This unit focuses on land use patterns in California and how these patterns have changed over time. Also presented are basic concepts relating to the different types of land use in urban, suburban, and rural environments in California. Human influence on natural systems is addressed via community development and how the land is used for housing, transportation, agriculture, and recreation.

Standard 2.4.1. Describe food production and consumption long ago and today, including the roles of farmers, processors, distributors, weather, and land and water resources.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *From Field to Table*

Accompanied by a mininewspaper and two grade-level readers, this unit teaches students about food production and consumption, both long ago and today. The roles of farmers, processors, distributors, weather, and land and water resources are introduced. Students also learn to recognize the relationship between human needs, components of the food production system, and the ecosystem goods and ecosystem services made available by natural systems. They study the ways that people have learned to use knowledge of natural systems to improve the quality, quantity, and reliability of food production.

Standards 2.4.2. Understand the role and interdependence of buyers (consumers) and sellers (producers) of goods and services.

2.4.3. Understand how limits on resources affect production and consumption (what to produce and what to consume).

CURRICULUM UNIT: *The Dollars and Sense of Food Production*

Students apply what they know about natural systems, plant growth, and food

production to solve a mystery about missing strawberries. As students work to solve the mystery, they review ways in which food production depends on the availability of natural resources and how such resources are limited. Students provide examples of how decisions about what to produce and what to consume can be affected by the quality, quantity, and reliability of the resources provided by natural systems. Students also develop a clearer understanding of the interdependence of consumers and producers.

THIRD GRADE

Standards 3.1.1. Identify geographical features in their local region (e.g., deserts, mountains, valleys, hills, coastal areas, oceans, lakes).

3.1.2. Trace the ways in which people have used the resources of the local region and modified the physical environment (e.g., a dam constructed upstream changed a river or coastline).

CURRICULUM UNIT: *The Geography of Where We Live*

This unit uses a series of wall maps to help students learn about their local region: the deserts, mountains, valleys, hills, coastal areas, oceans, and lakes. They identify the ecosystems (natural systems) that are found in their local region. The unit also explores the resources (ecosystem goods and ecosystem services) that are provided by the natural systems in their local region and their uses. Students learn about the ways that people use the resources provided by the ecosystems where they live. Finally, they look at the ways humans have changed the natural systems in their local region.

Standard 3.2.2. Discuss the ways in which physical geography, including climate, influenced how the local Indian nations adapted to their natural environment (e.g., how they obtained food, clothing, tools).

CURRICULUM UNIT: *California Indian People—Exploring Tribal Regions*

This unit gives students and teachers tools to explore the interactions between the California Indian nations (peoples) and the components and processes of the natural system(s) in their local region. Using a series of wall maps and a grade-level reader, students identify their local region, the California Indians that lived in and around their local region (and perhaps still do), and characteristics of the natural regions in which they lived. Then, students study the ecosystem goods and ecosystem services available to the local California Indians, the resources they

came to depend upon from the natural system(s), methods they used to acquire such resources, and how they influenced the components and processes of the natural system(s) with which they interacted.

Standards 3.5.1. Describe the ways in which local producers have used and are using natural resources, human resources, and capital resources to produce goods and services in the past and the present.

3.5.2. Understand that some goods are made locally, some elsewhere in the United States, and some abroad.

3.5.3. Understand that individual economic choices involve tradeoffs and the evaluation of benefits and costs.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *California’s Economy—Natural Choices*

This unit discusses the ways (past and present) in which local producers have used and are using natural resources, human resources, and capital resources to produce goods and services. Students study examples of the natural resources (ecosystem goods and ecosystem services) used by local producers. In addition, they learn to compare the costs and benefits of methods used by local producers to extract, harvest, transport, and consume natural resources. Students compare costs and benefits of producing goods—including food and other items—locally, as opposed to transporting them long distances.

FOURTH GRADE

Standards 4.1.3. Identify the state capital and describe the various regions of California, including how their characteristics and physical environments (e.g., water, landforms, vegetation, climate) affect human activity.

4.1.5. Use maps, charts, and pictures to describe how communities in California vary in land use, vegetation, wildlife, climate, population density, architecture, services, and transportation.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Reflections of Where We Live*

Lessons in this unit are tied together by the theme of “reflections”—that different aspects of human activity reflect the physical features of the environment in which they live. Students learn how human activities and structures reflect various aspects of the physical environment (water, landforms, vegetation, and climate), and that characteristics of regions in California are tied to human population density.

Activities involve the study of maps, charts, and pictures to gather information about different geographic regions and related human population density, activities (including transportation), and structures (i.e., buildings). All lessons reinforce the concept that humans have learned to live in many locations and that how they live is shaped (or influenced), in part, by the environment.

Standard 4.2.1. Discuss the major nations of California Indians, including their geographic distribution, economic activities, legends, and religious beliefs; and describe how they depended on, adapted to, and modified the physical environment by cultivation of land and use of sea resources.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *California Indian Peoples and Management of Natural Resources*

This unit emphasizes modern-day California's natural diversity. At the time of European contact, California Indian nations managed this landscape to produce a myriad of resources. Intense land management sustained communities that varied from seasonally moving extended families to permanent settlements of several thousand. The physical and social practices of California Indians emphasized productivity, sustainability, and renewal. Today, California Indians continue many of these traditions. In this unit, students compare the ecosystem goods and ecosystem services available to California Indian people of the past, their worldviews, how they used and managed resources, and examine how they established trade networks to access goods from far-off regions. Students learn how some of these practices continue to the present day.

Standard 4.2.6. Discuss the role of the Franciscans in changing the economy of California from a hunter-gatherer economy to an agricultural economy.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Cultivating California*

This unit provides an environmental framework for discussing the role of the Franciscan missionaries in changing the economy of California. Students consider how people use land and resources as they discern the far-reaching influences of the state's economic transition from hunter-gatherer societies to agriculture. Students begin the unit by reading a story about Anaheim's transformation from farmland to amusement parks. They then turn their attention to the economic interplay between the California Indians and the Franciscan missionaries in pre-California.

Standard 4.3.3. Analyze the effects of the Gold Rush on settlements, daily life, politics, and the physical environment (e.g., using biographies of John Sutter, Mariano Guadalupe Vallejo, Louise Clapp).

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Witnessing the Gold Rush*

This unit provides a new perspective to what is often a favorite subject for teachers and students alike: the California Gold Rush. Students learn how the search for gold and the influx of settlers influenced the natural environment (rivers, forests, mountains, valleys), and placed great demands upon the state’s natural and social resources. It also addresses how individuals, government, business, and industry responded to many of the continuing, and often unanticipated, effects of the Gold Rush on California’s social, economic, political, and legal systems.

FIFTH GRADE

Standard 5.4.1. Understand the influence of location and physical setting on the founding of the original 13 colonies, and identify on a map the locations of the colonies and of the American Indian nations already inhabiting these areas.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Human Settlement and the Natural Regions of the Eastern Seaboard*

Students explore the human settlement and natural features of the eastern seaboard, including the physical locations of the American Indian nations and the 13 colonies from the 1600s to 1763. Students act as “naturalists,” recording examples of flora and fauna native to the eastern seaboard through excerpts from primary sources. Knowledge of the plants, animals, and the ocean services in the “New World” helps students understand what made the region attractive to Europeans and American Indians alike, and what made permanent settlement possible. The development of early economic systems in the Americas, particularly the staple crop economies, are discussed, and the increased likelihood of European encroachment into lands occupied by American Indian nations is introduced.

Standard 5.8.4. Discuss the experiences of settlers on the overland trails to the West (e.g., location of the routes; purpose of the journeys; the influence of the terrain, rivers, vegetation, and climate; life in the territories at the end of these trails).

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Nature and Newcomers*

Through the perspective of the overland trail settlers in early American history, this unit teaches students to uncover connections between the natural environment (natural systems and resources) and the built environment (the ways that human beings attempt to influence the natural world). Students learn about the experiences of settlers on the trails and the factors that influence human beings when making decisions about natural resources, natural cycles, and natural processes. While investigating the physical landscape, vegetation, and climate of the major western overland trails, as well as the effects of natural cycles and processes upon the settlers, students understand the settlers' motivations for moving west.

SIXTH GRADE

Standard 6.1.1. Describe the hunter-gatherer societies, including the development of tools and the use of fire.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Paleolithic People: Tools, Tasks, and Fire*

In this unit, students explore the essential characteristics of scavenger/hunter-gatherer societies, including the development of tools and the use of fire. Students read a story that sets the stage for exploration of ways in which humans, dating back to their earliest ancestors, have used and influenced the environment. The unit brings to light the prehistory of humans and introduces the interaction between human culture and the natural environment. This unique perspective provides students with a broader understanding of where humans have come from and where they may be headed.

Standard 6.1.2. Identify the locations of human communities that populated the major regions of the world and describe how humans adapted to a variety of environments.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Paleolithic People: Adapting to Change*

By identifying the locations of prehistoric human communities and providing examples of factors that influenced their settlements, students learn to compare the lifestyles of different Paleolithic cultures and the ecosystem goods and services upon which they depended. The unit highlights climate change as one of the factors influencing human migration within and out of Africa. In addition, students consider how their own behaviors and activities depend on the ecosystem goods and services available to them today.

Standard 6.2.1. Locate and describe the major river systems and discuss the physical settings that supported permanent settlement and early civilizations.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Rivers Systems and Ancient Peoples*

This unit teaches students that the physical geography of certain areas positioned them to become the locations of the world's first cities. Further lessons detail the rise of agriculture and civilization. Students learn to connect cycles, flow, and the role of rivers in ecosystems to the rise of the world's oldest cities in ancient Mesopotamia and Egypt.

Standard 6.2.2. Trace the development of agricultural techniques that permitted the production of economic surplus and the emergence of cities as centers of culture and power.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Agricultural Advances in Ancient Civilizations*

This unit takes students on a journey from the earliest subsistence farms through the rise of ancient civilizations. By focusing on the effects of agricultural advancements, students learn about the importance of nature and natural cycles to the development of political, economic, religious, and social structures of the early civilizations of Mesopotamia, Egypt, and Kush. Students draw parallels between ancient and modern times by looking at the critical role of water. Although the unit focuses on ancient people, the problem-solving and critical thinking skills practiced throughout the unit are transferable skills that help students understand human reliance on natural resources in the present day.

Standards 6.2.6. Describe the role of Egyptian trade in the eastern Mediterranean and Nile valley.

6.2.8. Identify the location of the Kush civilization and describe its political, commercial, and cultural relations with Egypt.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Egypt and Kush: A Tale of Two Kingdoms*

Students learn about the complicated and interwoven histories of two ancient superpowers: Egypt and Kush. The unit begins with a present-day conflict that highlights the positive aspects and perils of resource competition and consumption. Students learn about the unique geography of the Nile Valley region and its myriad of natural resources that supported extensive cultures and a vast network of trade. Students also explore the ways in which civilizations throughout time have sought to control the natural environment and how those efforts have influenced their natural world.

Standards 6.5.1. Locate and describe the major river system and discuss the physical setting that supported the rise of this civilization.

6.6.1. Locate and describe the origins of Chinese civilization in the Huang-He Valley during the Shang Dynasty.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *The Rivers and the Ancient Empires of China and India*

Students apply what they know about river systems—their processes, characteristics, and their importance to human settlement—to an exploration of the civilizations that arose in ancient India and China. By studying the physical and natural environment, students learn about geographic and climatic factors that contributed to the rise of great dynasties in both areas, and they discover the dependence of the people on the ecosystem goods and services provided by the rivers. The lessons reinforce how physical characteristics of the regions fostered the beginning of settled life and the growth of sophisticated cultures and civilizations.

SEVENTH GRADE

Standard 7.2.5. Describe the growth of cities and the establishment of trade routes among Asia, Africa, and Europe, the products and inventions that traveled along these routes (e.g., spices, textiles, paper, steel, new crops), and the role of merchants in Arab society.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Arabic Trade Networks: Growth and Expansions in the Middle Ages*

Beginning with a look at the unique geographical features of the Arabian Peninsula, students explore the relationships between components of the natural system and the social systems of Arabia—specifically those related to trade and commerce. Students see that the growth and expansion of Arabic trade led to the growth and expansion of human populations and Medieval cities and towns along the trade routes. They learn about the diffusion of popular goods over this vast trade network and the devastating effect of the plague on Afroeurasia’s natural and social systems.

Standard 7.3.5. Trace the historic influence of such discoveries as tea, the manufacture of paper, woodblock printing, the compass, and gunpowder.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Genius Across the Centuries*

This unit explores the influence of selected Chinese inventions and discoveries on the natural and human systems of medieval China and traces the influence of

those discoveries on the modern world. Students study about early Chinese experimentation with things found in the world around them, which produced useful goods and services. Students also discover how continued investigation led to innovations that influenced both society and natural systems. They learn how Chinese inventions have been disseminated into the modern world, influencing production methods and consumption patterns.

Standard 7.6.3. Understand the development of feudalism, its role in the medieval European economy, the way in which it was influenced by physical geography (the role of the manor and the growth of towns), and how feudal relationships provided the foundation of political order.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Managing Nature’s Bounty: Feudalism in Medieval Europe*

The direct connection between feudal relationships and the environment is examined by demonstrating how feudalism served as a mechanism for controlling access to and the use of ecosystem goods and services in medieval Europe. Using a modern example, the formation of the California Department of Fish and Game, students learn about the complexities of managing natural resources in California today, before turning their attention to the foundations of resource management that arose in feudal Europe.

Students explore life on feudal manors and at feudal markets, analyzing the connections between the ecosystem goods and service available and the placement of towns. In the final lesson, students explore feudal law for access to and the use of natural resources and what it meant to be an “outlaw” in medieval times.

Standard 7.7.1. Study the locations, landforms, and climates of Mexico, Central America, and South America and their effects on Mayan, Aztec, and Incan economies, trade, and development of urban societies.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Sun Gods and Jaguar Kings*

This unit teaches students that the diverse geography and natural resources of Central and South America set the stage for the rise of the first urban societies in this part of the world—those of the Maya, Aztec, and Inca civilizations. Students learn how the distribution of resources affected the location, land-use patterns, and settlement of locations within these landscapes. The development of social and political systems to control the production and flow of resources is discussed. These human systems and their interaction with the landscape set the stage for not

only the growth of great civilizations, but for their eventual decline. Students recognize ways in which early Meso-American societies depended on goods and ecosystem services provided by natural systems.

Standard 7.7.3. Explain how and where each empire arose and how the Aztec and Incan empires were defeated by the Spanish.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Broken Jade and Tarnished Gold*

Building on students' understanding of the diverse and resource-rich regions of Central and South America, this unit explores the rise and fall of the Aztec and Inca empires. The lessons highlight how cultural values created the empires the Spanish witnessed, as well as the ways that Spanish values and history shaped their decisions in the Americas. Students begin the unit by learning how empires manage both human and natural resources in order to concentrate wealth and power. The perspectives of each of the three empires on resource use is examined, and the role of disease on the Spanish conquest explored. Through this unit, students learn more than the facts related to the conquest; they understand how multiple factors, particularly decisions regarding the use of natural resources, shaped this critical era.

EIGHTH GRADE

Standard 8.4.1. Describe the country's physical landscapes, political divisions, and territorial expansion during the terms of the first four presidents.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Land, Politics, and Expansion in the Early Republic*

This unit teaches students about the physical landscape of the United States, political divisions, and territorial expansion during the terms of the first four U.S. presidents. Students also learn about factors associated with the use of natural resources, especially land, which led to expansion. Students deepen their understanding of what the promise those resources held meant to American Indians and citizens of the new republic during that time. Students also learn about the development of federal land policy and how the political concerns that existed during this time influenced the development of land ordinances. The influence of expansion on the country's physical landscapes and natural systems is also examined.

Standard 8.6.3. List the reasons for the wave of immigration from Northern Europe to the United States and describe the growth in the number, size, and spatial arrangements of cities (e.g., Irish immigrants and the Great Irish Famine).

CURRICULUM UNIT: *America Grows*

Focusing on immigration from Northern Europe to the United States during the first half of the nineteenth century, this unit explores human dependence upon ecosystem goods and ecosystem services provided by natural systems. Students gain an understanding of the interrelatedness of natural and human social systems—how changes in one set of systems trigger changes in the other. Specifically, students learn how natural systems influence human social systems and how their interactions forced large numbers of Irish and Germans to emigrate to America. The lessons also explore whether the nation’s new citizens chose to settle in areas that replicated the natural systems, or the human social systems, that the immigrants had left behind in Europe.

Standard 8.8.4. Examine the importance of the great rivers and the struggle over water rights.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Struggles Over Water*

This unit teaches students about the role that the great rivers and other freshwater resources played in the United States in the early 1800s (for example, the location of towns, farming, and ranching). The lessons describe the role of scientific and technological knowledge in the establishment of water rights and provide examples of the economic, political, legal, and cultural factors that influenced decisions about water. Students also learn how the great river systems and water rights influenced the development of the West. Students see that water use and management in the West, and other parts of the United States, continues to influence the economy, politics, and legal system today.

Standard 8.12.1. Trace patterns of agricultural and industrial development as they relate to climate, use of natural resources, markets, and trade and locate such development on a map.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Agricultural and Industrial Development in the United States (1877-1914)*

This unit examines the influence of urbanization and renewed industrialization at the turn of the century on natural systems and in defining the course of the United States into the twentieth century. Students begin the unit by “visiting” the 1893 World’s Fair in Chicago, “touring” the California building, and the new technologies on display. Students look carefully at the patterns of agricultural and industrial development in the East and West as they related to climate, natural

resources, and availability of markets. They come to understand that technological advances influenced the growth of human populations and the establishment of commercial centers. Students also learn about political, economic, cultural, and environmental factors that affected technological advances in agriculture and industry during this time.

Standard 8.12.5. Examine the location and effects of urbanization, renewed immigration, and industrialization (e.g., the effects on social fabric of cities, wealth and economic opportunity, the conservation movement).

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Industrialization, Urbanization, and the Conservation Movement*

Students look closely at global economic imperative of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century and its influence on the natural world through the development of the San Francisco Bay Area during this time. This examination unveils the connections between technological advances in the construction and planning of urban centers, the growth of population of those centers, and the eventual rise of a “conservation” movement. Key players in the American conservation movement—those who helped propel both public and political awareness of America’s need to preserve its natural systems—are highlighted, including John Muir.

TENTH GRADE

Standards 10.3.1. Analyze why England was the first country to industrialize.

10.3.5. Understand the connections among natural resources, entrepreneurship, labor, and capital in an industrial economy.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Britain Solves a Problem and Creates an Industrial Revolution*

In this unit, students analyze ways that natural resources, entrepreneurship, labor, and capital combined to produce key events and processes in the Industrial Revolution. Students examine England’s transition from a subsistence agricultural economy through preindustrial cottage industries and to finally industrial system. They explore the inventions that marked the development of the steam power, coal and iron, and cotton textile industries. Students discover how advancing mechanization improved the methods used to extract, harvest, transport, and produce material goods from natural resources.

Standard 10.3.3. Describe the growth of population, rural to urban migration, and growth of cities associated with the Industrial Revolution.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Growth of Population, Cities, and Demands*

This unit teaches students about the relationship between the Industrial Revolution and the growth of urban centers around the world. They study the concept of urban growth: depopulation of rural areas and migration to urban areas; the shift from an agrarian-based society to a manufacturing-based society; and they explore a change in demands for natural resources. Students examine problems that arose with the growth of the first “industrial” cities—particularly changes to natural systems—and analyze business and government solutions to these problems. They discover that the American standard of living is rooted in the Industrial Revolution, when consumerism emerged in the middle class and manufacturing replaced cottage industries and agrarian society.

Standard 10.4.1. Describe the rise of industrial economies and their link to imperialism and colonialism (e.g., the role played by national security and strategic advantage; moral issues raised by the search for national hegemony, Social Darwinism, and the missionary impulse; material issues such as land, resources, and technology).

CURRICULUM UNIT: *New Imperialism: The Search for Natural Resources*

In this unit, students investigate the decision-making processes used by industrializing nations in the mid-1800s, seeking raw materials and new markets for their growing economies. They compare disparate European beliefs about the use of natural resources and examine the government regulation that resulted from the management practices of the colonizers. Students consider how nature, once changed, presented new challenges to colonial administrators, forcing them to reshape their imperial projects more generally. Throughout the unit, students are engaged in thinking critically about human reliance on natural resources and the increasing global interdependence of the era of New Imperialism.

Standard 10.4.3. Explain imperialism from the perspective of the colonizers and the colonized and the varied immediate and long-term responses by the people under colonial rule.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *New Imperialism: The Control of India’s and South Africa’s Resources*

This unit focuses on colonial experiences in India and South Africa during British hegemony. Students learn how British and local people’s decisions about natural resources changed as a result of the industrialization taking place in the Western

world. They analyze a case study about the use of Mount Shasta’s resources by local residents and outside interests. Students then examine colonial India, where they learn how British and local people’s decisions regarding natural resources changed over the period of colonization and directly influenced local responses to imperialism. They examine the complexities of colonial rule in South Africa, where the British competed with other Europeans for control of the region’s gold and diamond mines. Finally, they identify key stakeholders in South Africa’s development and learn the relationship between the control over natural resources and the emerging system of racial segregation.

ELEVENTH GRADE

Standard 11.5.7. Discuss the rise of mass production techniques, the growth of cities, the impact of new technologies (e.g., the automobile, electricity), and the resulting prosperity and effect on the American landscape.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Mass Production, Marketing, and Consumption in the Roaring Twenties*

Students explore the “Roaring Twenties” to understand the dynamics of economic change and its social, political, and environmental consequences. They examine the environmental consequences of decisions made—and not made—by industry, government, and individuals to learn about “unintended consequences” related to disposal of the waste and byproducts generated by the automobiles and other technological advancements that followed World War I. The last lesson challenges students to apply their knowledge by evaluating the pros and cons associated with plastic grocery bags and ways to prevent or remedy detrimental environmental outcomes.

Standard 11.8.6. Discuss the diverse environmental regions of North America, their relationship to local economies, and the origins and prospects of environmental problems in those regions.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Postwar Industries and the Emerging Environmental Movement*

The unit examines the economic boom that followed World War II, especially in agriculture and energy industries, and it explores how technological changes after World War II resulted in increased demands for natural resources. Students explore some of the economic, social, and political consequences of growing resource demands and consider the effects on the environment across the United States.

Students read a chapter from Rachel Carson’s *Silent Spring* as the basis for examining the nation’s changing perceptions about the environment and the resulting policy changes that governments implemented to mitigate environmental problems.

Standard 11.9.7. Examine relations between the United States and Mexico in the twentieth century, including key economic, political, immigration, and environmental issues.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *The United States and Mexico—Working Together*

This unit teaches students about treaties and agreements between the United States and Mexico related to environmental concerns. They examine the different ways the stakeholders balance decisions while analyzing cross-boundary environmental issues. Students consider how population growth and density influence an area’s natural resources and environmental health, how environmental factors permeate political boundaries, and how environmental issues influence the relationship between the countries. Students read about the Rio Grande and, in a simulated conference, present perspectives of stakeholders concerned about water quality in the region. The final lesson focuses on the Tijuana River watershed and includes a class discussion of how actions in the rest of the border region influence U.S.–Mexico relations.

Standard 11.11.5. Trace the impact of, need for, and controversies associated with environmental conservation, expansion of the national park system, and the development of environmental protection laws, with particular attention to the interaction between environmental protection advocates and property rights advocates.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Many Voices, Many Visions: Analyzing Contemporary Environmental Issues*

This unit uses a series of case studies to teach students about the wide range of considerations and decision-making processes affecting natural resources management policies. Students develop skill in analyzing complex and controversial issues as they review expansion of Redwood National and State Parks in 1978, winter use of snowmobiles in Yellowstone National Park, and oil drilling in the Arctic National Wildlife Refuge. Each lesson approaches the complex nature of natural resource issues from a different vantage point, giving students the chance to use several different analytical skills and methods. Overall, the unit

provides students with the knowledge and skills they need in order to evaluate future resource management issues.

TWELFTH GRADE: PRINCIPLES OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

Standards 12.2.2. Principles of American Democracy

Explain how economic rights are secured and their importance to the individual and to society (e.g., the right to acquire, use, transfer, and dispose of property; right to choose one’s work; right to join or not join labor unions; copyright and patent).

12.2.5. Principles of American Democracy

Describe the reciprocity between rights and obligations; that is, why enjoyment of one’s rights entails respect for the rights of others.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *This Land Is Your Land*

Students explore case studies about California laws, regulations, policies, and decision-making processes related to environmental decisions and individual rights. Students consider the “balance” between an individual’s use and management of natural resources and the “common good.” They explore the reciprocity between rights and obligations to ensure public health and safety. Students learn that such decisions are influenced by a spectrum of factors, including laws, policies, financial incentives, risk analyses, knowledge, and rights and responsibilities. Analysis of the history of the Sunshine Canyon Landfill is the basis for examining conflicts over environmental issues that result from competing perspectives.

Standard 12.3.2. Principles of American Democracy

Explain how civil society makes it possible for people, individually or in association with others, to bring their influence to bear on government in ways other than voting and elections.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Active Voices: Civil Society and the Natural Environment*

Students examine case studies related to how citizens have influenced governmental decisions related to environmental issues in ways other than voting. Using a set of California specific case studies, students examine how citizens voice their needs for social and environmental justice. They build an understanding of the ways in which citizens make their voices heard, including methods that involve interaction with formal governmental processes and strategies that educate and

galvanize public opinion. Finally, students, analyze commonalities and differences among the unit’s environmental case studies, including differences in strategies that various stakeholders chose to implement.

Standard 12.7.6. Principles of American Democracy

Compare the processes of lawmaking at each of the three levels of government, including the role of lobbying and the media.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Making and Implementing Environmental Laws*

This unit examines lawmaking processes and roles of federal, state, and local governments related to environmental and public health. Students read about federal and state Superfund laws and Superfund sites in California as a means of comparing different levels of government. They explore the complex relationship between state, federal, and local governments in resolving environmental issues. The final lessons analyze California’s Brownfields Program and explore California’s Green Chemistry Initiative, and policy strategy for encouraging industry to use “green,” rather than potentially toxic, materials.

TWELFTH GRADE: ECONOMICS

Standard 12.1.4. Economics

Evaluate the role of private property as an incentive in conserving and improving scarce resources, including renewable and nonrenewable natural resources.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Private Property and Resource Conservation*

Students explore economic issues as they relate to resource conservation. Students examine how Californians have dealt with water ownership in the 150 years since statehood. The unit focuses on the possible consequences of common ownership of resources, including possible degradation and resource depletion. Students see how water in the state came to be defined as a public, not a private, good. They also learn about land trust and other incentives that encourage private property owners to care for their natural resources. At the end of the unit, students use what they have learned to research and analyze ownership and use of a resource in their community over time.

Standards 12.2.2. Economics

Discuss the effects of changes in supply and/or demand on the relative scarcity, price, and quantity of particular products.

12.2.7. Economics

Analyze how domestic and international competition in a market economy affects goods and services produced and the quality, quantity, and price of those products.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Sustaining Economies and the Earth's Resources*

Students study “sustainable economics,” an economic system with a focus of sustaining ecosystem goods and services over a long period of time. By examining a case study about the U.S. and international fishing industries, they learn about economic forces and our dependence on natural systems. They analyze the relationship among supply, demand, scarcity, and price to learn about making informed decisions as consumers. In subsequent lessons, students apply their knowledge about ecosystem dynamics to an investigation about industry practices on ocean resources and marine ecosystems. The final lesson examines the function of regulatory measures in sustaining both the natural systems and the fishing industry for future generations.

Standard 12.3.1. Economics

Understand how the role of government in a market economy often includes providing for national defense, addressing environmental concerns, defining and enforcing property rights, attempting to make markets more competitive, and protecting consumers' rights.

CURRICULUM UNIT: *Government and the Economy: An Environmental Perspective*

This unit focuses on understanding the role of government in a free-market economy from the perspective of addressing environmental concerns. Students examine the fiscal policies, incentives, and market forces used by government to influence business activities that affect the natural environment. Students consider the pros and cons of a new approach toward environmental protection—one that uses market mechanisms. Emissions trading (for example, cap-and-trade) gives businesses incentives to comply with environmental standards while also allowing them flexibility in compliance.

APPENDIX H

Practicing Civic Engagement: Service-Learning in the History–Social Science Framework

Never doubt that a small group of thoughtful, committed citizens can change the world. Indeed, it is the only thing that ever has.

—Margaret Mead

Service-Learning and Community Service

Service-learning is an instructional strategy that engages students in real-world problem solving. Students work on community issues/problems that matter to them, applying critical thinking skills as they analyze causes and effects, discuss possible ways to address the issue/problem, and plan and execute service activities. To implement service-learning effectively, there must be an intentional link between academic content and skills and the students' service activities, which can provide opportunities to make what is learned in class even more relevant to students.

Service-learning is applicable for all of the core disciplines (science, mathematics, English language arts), but for social studies, service-learning has particular significance as one of the six Civic Mission of Schools proven practices:¹

Service learning is far more than community service alone; high-quality service learning experiences incorporate intentional opportunities for students to analyze and solve community problems through the application of knowledge and skills.

Service-learning helps to make education real, connecting academic skills and knowledge to issues that matter to young people. When students have opportunities to use the knowledge and skills they are acquiring in school to address meaningful issues in their community, the content of their learning becomes more relevant to their lives, and they better understand the importance of civic participation.

According to the *Guardian of Democracy* report, service-learning programs that best develop engaged citizens are linked to the curriculum in the following ways:

1. They have sufficient duration and intensity to address community needs and meet specified outcomes.
2. They are used intentionally as an instructional strategy to meet learning goals and/or content standards.
3. They incorporate multiple challenging reflection activities that are ongoing and that prompt deep thinking and analysis about oneself and one's relationship to society.
4. They actively engage participants in meaningful and personally relevant service activities.
5. They promote understanding of diversity and mutual respect among all participants.
6. They are collaborative and mutually beneficial and address community needs.

1. Carnegie Corporation and Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement, *Guardian of Democracy: The Civic Mission of Schools* (Leonore Annenberg Institute for Civics of the Annenberg Public Policy Center of the University of Pennsylvania and the Campaign for the Civic Mission of Schools, 2011), 29.

7. They engage participants in an ongoing process to assess the quality of implementation and progress toward meeting specified goals and use the results for improvement and sustainability.
8. They provide youths with a strong voice in planning, implementing, and evaluating service-learning experiences with guidance from adults.

Examples of Service-Learning Projects

Service-learning is appropriate for all ages and has been successfully implemented in the elementary, middle, and high school grade levels. For example, a first-grade classroom conducted a study on acceptable hallway behavior. As part of their history–social science curriculum, the first-grade students learned about rules and, in the process, decided to help increase student compliance with the rule of no running in the hallway. The students collected data about when and how many students ran; they discussed and instituted solutions; and then they investigated to determine how their “interventions” worked, thus bringing their understanding of the rules to life.

Upper elementary students may be interested in issues related to conflict management, school beautification, or safety. Students concerned about a dangerous crosswalk may conduct an investigation to find out if others see a problem and then make an appointment with school administrators, a school resource officer, or other appropriate adult to discuss their findings. Students may propose adding a crossing guard to that intersection, creating a poster campaign to warn students to be extra careful crossing that street, or start a safety patrol. Through the process, those students will have applied critical thinking/problem-solving skills, communication, presentation, collaboration, and organizational skills, and gained knowledge about how to address public problems.

Middle school students may be interested in issues related to the environment, health and nutrition, homelessness, or bullying. Using bullying as an example, their investigation may start with a question like “What causes people to become bullies?” or “What is the difference between ‘bullying’ and ‘teasing’?” or “What can be done to reduce bullying in our schools?” When students start with a question, the service-learning experience can become a high-quality inquiry. On their path to finding answers and solutions, they will likely encounter multiple perspectives,

look at a variety of sources (interviews, articles, data), and ideally deal with public policy (even at the school-site level) along the way.

High school students may be interested in issues related to global studies, substance abuse, domestic violence, the environment, or public transportation. One group of students was concerned about overcrowded public transportation. The buses were dangerously overcrowded with adults, middle school, and high school students during the before- and after-school hours. The students documented the overcrowding: children in the aisles nearly falling down from the swaying of the bus and people sitting on each others' laps. Next, students made an appointment with the local transit authority and learned about the cost of adding an additional bus, which was not in the current city budget. They did a close analysis of a variety of documents containing data on bus ridership, routes, and pickup times and also delved into the city's transportation budget. The students prepared an organized and data-driven presentation and returned to the transit authority. They were then invited to make the same presentation at a city council meeting and they impressed all when they pointed out that instead of adding a new bus, the overcrowding problem could be easily remedied by changing the schedule and route of an underused bus at the peak before- and after-school times. The bus schedule was subsequently changed, and everyone is more comfortable and safe going to and from school.

Why Service-Learning?

According to the National Service Learning Partnership, research shows that well-executed service-learning has many benefits.

- **Academic and intellectual benefits.** Service-learning supports young people in mastering curriculum by helping them make meaningful connections between what they are studying in the classroom and its many applications beyond school, in the community.
- **Civic and ethical benefits.** Service-learning allows young people to explore and develop skills, including community stewardship, civic action, and sympathy and empathy. When focused on civic outcomes, service-learning is one of the six most promising research-based practices in civic education identified in *The Civic Mission of Schools* report, by the Carnegie

Corporation of New York and the Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE).²

- **Social and personal benefits.** Service learning offers young people a holistic learning experience that can increase their hands-on engagement in learning, provide them access to adult mentors, bolster their connection to the community, and enhance their preparation for the world of work.

The National Dropout Prevention Center recommends service-learning as a core strategy for increasing graduation rates, along with mentoring/tutoring, alternative schooling, and after-school opportunities. Research shows that service-learning addresses students' need for classes to be more interesting, learning to be more meaningful, and academics to be connected to the real world.³

Web Sites

- California Department of Education/CalServe: <http://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/cr/sl/>
- Constitutional Rights Foundation: <http://www.crf-usa.org>
- County Offices of Education: <http://www.cde.ca.gov/re/sd/co/index.asp>
- National Dropout Prevention Center: <http://www.dropoutprevention.org>
- National Service Learning Clearinghouse: <http://www.servicelearning.org>
- National Youth Leadership Council: <http://www.nylc.org>

2. Carnegie Corporation of New York and the Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement, *The Civic Mission of Schools* (New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York, 2003), 3.

3. John M. Bridgeland, John J. DiIulio, Jr., and Karen Burke Morison, *The Silent Epidemic: Perspectives of High School Dropouts* (Washington, DC: Civic Enterprises and the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, 2006).

This page is intentionally left blank.

Works Cited

Chapter 1

Intersegmental Committee of the Academic Senates of the California Community Colleges, the California State University, and the University of California (ICAS). 2002. *Academic Literacy: A Statement of Competencies Expected of Students Entering California’s Public Colleges and Universities*. Sacramento, CA: Author. http://senate.universityofcalifornia.edu/_files/reports/acadlit.pdf (accessed December 12, 2016).

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

Chapter 2

Derewianka, Beverly, and Pauline Jones. 2012. *Teaching Language in Context*. South Melbourne, Australia: Victoria Oxford University Press.

Duke, Nell. 2000. “3.6 Minutes Per Day: The Scarcity of Informational Texts in First Grade.” *Reading Research Quarterly* 35: 202–24.

Duke, Nell K., and V. Susan Bennett-Armistead. 2003. *Reading and Writing Informational Text in the Primary Grades*. New York: Scholastic.

- Lee, Carol D., and Anika Spratley. 2010. *Reading in the Disciplines: The Challenges of Adolescent Literacy*. New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York.
- Shanahan, Timothy, and Cynthia Shanahan. 2012. “What Is Disciplinary Literacy and Why Does It Matter?” *Topics in Language Disorders* 32 (1): 7–18.
- Yopp, Ruth H., and Hallie K. Yopp. 2006. “Informational Text as Read-Alouds at School and Home.” *Journal of Literacy Research* 38: 37–51.
- Zygouris-Coe, Vassiliki I. 2012. “Disciplinary Literacy and the Common Core State Standards.” *Topics in Language Disorders* 32 (1): 35–50.

Chapter 6

- Los Angeles County Office of Education. 2003. *Education for Democracy, California Civic Education Scope & Sequence*. Downey, CA: Los Angeles County Office of Education.
- . 2011. *Preparing Students for College, Career and Citizenship: A California Guide to Align Civic Education and the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science and Technical Subjects*. Downey, CA: Los Angeles County Office of Education.
- National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS). 2013. *The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards: Guidance for Enhancing the Rigor of K–12 Civics, Economics, Geography, and History*. Silver Spring, MD: Author.

Chapter 10

- California Department of Education. 2015. *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve*. Sacramento: Author.

Chapter 14

National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS). 2013. *The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards: Guidance for Enhancing the Rigor of K–12 Civics, Economics, Geography, and History*. Silver Spring, MD: Author.

Chapter 19

Allal, Linda. 2010. “Assessment and the Regulation of Learning.” In *International Encyclopedia of Education*, Vol. 3, 3rd ed., edited by Penelope Peterson, Eva Barker, and Barry McGaw, 348–52. Oxford: Elsevier.

Andrade, Heidi, Xiaolei Wang, Ying Du, and Robin L. Akawi. 2009. “Rubric-Referenced Self-Assessment and Self-Efficacy for Writing.” *The Journal of Educational Research* 102 (4): 287–302.

Bailey, Alison L., and Margaret Heritage. 2008. *Formative Assessment for Literacy, Grades K–6: Building Reading and Academic Language Skills Across the Curriculum*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin/Sage Press.

Black, Paul J., and Dylan Wiliam. 1998. “Assessment and Classroom Learning.” *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy, and Practice* 5 (1): 7–73.

Black, Paul, Christine Harrison, Clare Lee, Bethan Marshall, and Dylan Wiliam. 2003. *Assessment for Learning: Putting It into Practice*. New York: Open University Press.

Bell, Beverley, and Bronwen Cowie. 2000. “The Characteristics of Formative Assessment in Science Education.” *Science Education* 85: 536–53.

Boekaerts, Monique. 2006. Self-Regulation and Effort Investment. In *Handbook of Child Psychology: Volume 4. Child Psychology in Practice*. 6th ed., edited by K. A. Renninger, I. E. Siegel, R. M. Lerner, and W. Damon, 345–77. New York: Wiley.

Brookhart, Susan M. 2013. *How to Create and Use Rubrics for Formative Assessment and Grading*. Alexandria, VA: Association for the Supervision of Curriculum Development.

- Butler, Deborah L., and Philip H. Winne. 1995. "Feedback and Self-Regulated Learning: A Theoretical Synthesis." *Review of Educational Research* 65 (3): 245–81.
- California Department of Education. 2015. *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve*. Sacramento: Author.
- Cohen, Nicole, Tracey E. Hall, Ge Vue, and Patti Ganley. 2011. "Becoming Strategic Readers: Three Cases Using Formative Assessment, UDL, and Technology to Support Struggling Middle School Readers." In *New Frontiers in Formative Assessment*, edited by Pendred E. Noyce and Daniel T. Hickey, 129–40. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.
- Erickson, Frederick. 2007. "Some Thoughts on 'Proximal' Formative Assessment of Student Learning." *Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education* 106: 186–216.
- Griffin, Patrick. 2007. "The Comfort of Competence and the Uncertainty of Assessment." *Studies in Educational Evaluation* 33: 87–99.
- Griffin, Patrick, Leanne Murray, Esther Care, Amanda Thomas, and Pierina Perri. 2010. "Developmental Assessment: Lifting Literacy Through Professional Learning Teams." *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy and Practice* 17 (4): 383–97.
- Hacker, Douglas J., John Dunlosky, and Arthur C. Graesser, eds. 1998. *Metacognition in Educational Theory and Practice*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Harlen, Wynne. 2007. "Formative Classroom Assessment in Science and Mathematics." In *Formative Classroom Assessment: Theory into Practice*, edited by J. H. McMillan, 116–35. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Heritage, Margaret. 2010. *Formative Assessment: Making It Happen in the Classroom*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- . 2013. *Formative Assessment in Practice: A Process of Inquiry and Action*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.

- Herman, Joan L., and Margaret Heritage. 2007. "Moving from Piecemeal to Effective Formative Assessment Practice: Moving Pictures on the Road to Student Learning." Paper presented at the Council of Chief State School Officers Assessment Conference, Nashville, TN.
- Hess, Karin, Dennis Carlock, Ben Jones, and John R. Walkup. 2009. "What Exactly Do 'Fewer, Clearer, and Higher Standards' Really Look Like in the Classroom? Using a Cognitive Rigor Matrix to Analyze Curriculum, Plan Lessons, and Implement Assessments." Paper presented at the Council of Chief State School Officers, Detroit, MI, June 2009. <http://www.karin-hess.com/single-post/2010/04/15/Fewer-clearer-and-higher-standards>
- Lane, Suzanne. 2013. "Performance Assessment." In *SAGE Handbook of Research on Classroom Assessment*, edited by James H. McMillan, 313–31. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Linn, Robert L., and Eva L. Baker. 1996. "Can Performance-Based Student Assessment Be Psychometrically Sound?" In *Performance-Based Assessment: Challenges and Possibilities: Ninety-Fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, edited by Kenneth J. Rohage, Joan Boykoff Baron, and Dennie Palmer Wolf, 84–103. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press for the National Society for the Study of Education
- Linquanti, Robert. 2014. *Supporting Formative Assessment for Deeper Learning: A Primer for Policymakers*. Paper prepared for the Formative Assessment for Students and Teachers/State Collaborative on Assessment and Student Standards. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers.
- Lodico, Marguerite G., Elizabeth S. Ghatala, Joel R. Levin, Michael Pressley, and John A. Bell. 1983. "The Effects of Strategy-Monitoring Training on Children's Selection of Effective Memory Strategies." *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology* 35 (2): 263–77.
- McManus, Sarah. 2008. "Attributes of Effective Formative Assessment." Paper prepared for the Formative Assessment for Student and Teachers (FAST) and State Collaborative on Assessment and Student Standards (SCASS) of the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO).

- National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS). 2013. *The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards: Guidance for Enhancing the Rigor of K-12 Civics, Economics, Geography, and History*. Silver Spring, MD: Author.
- National Research Council (NRC). 2012. *Education for Life and Work: Developing Transferable Knowledge and Skills in the 21st Century*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Palm, Torulf. 2008. "Performance Assessment and Authentic Assessment: A Conceptual Analysis of the Literature." *Practical Assessment, Research, and Evaluation* 13 (4): 1–11.
- Pintrich, Paul R. 2000. "The Role of Goal Orientation in Self-Regulated Learning." In *Handbook of Self-Regulation*, edited by Monique Bookaerts, Paul R. Pintrich, and Moshe Zeidner, 451–502. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Poppers, Audrey E. 2011. "Identifying Craft Moves: Close Observation of Elementary Students' Writing." In *New Frontiers in Formative Assessment*, edited by Pendred E. Noyce and Daniel T. Hickey, 89–107. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.
- Resnick, Lauren B., and Daniel P. Resnick. 1992. "Assessing the Thinking Curriculum: New Tools for Educational Reform." In *Changing Assessments: Alternative Views of Aptitude, Achievement and Instruction*, edited by Bernard R. Gifford and Mary Catherine O'Connor, 37–76. New York: Kluwer/Springer Science+Business Media.
- Ruiz-Primo, Maria A., and Erin M. Furtak. 2004. *Informal Assessment of Students' Understanding of Scientific Inquiry*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego, CA.
- . 2006. "Informal Formative Assessment and Scientific Inquiry: Exploring Teachers' Practices and Student Learning." *Educational Assessment* 11 (3 and 4): 237–63.
- . 2007. "Exploring Teachers' Informal Formative Assessment Practices and Students' Understanding in the Context of Scientific Inquiry." *Journal of Educational Research in Science Teaching* 44 (1): 57–84.

- Sadler, D. Royce. 1989. "Formative Assessment and the Design of Instructional Strategies." *Instructional Science* 18: 119–44.
- Schunk, Dale H., and Barry J. Zimmerman. 2008. *Motivation and Self-Regulated Learning: Theory, Research, and Applications*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Shephard, Lorrie A. 2000. "The Role of Assessment in a Learning Culture." *Educational Researcher* 29 (7): 4–14.
- . 2001. The Role of Classroom Assessment in Teaching and Learning. In *Handbook of Research on Teaching*, 4th ed., edited by Virginia Richardson and American Educational Research Association, 1066–1101. Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.
- . 2005. "Linking Formative Assessment to Scaffolding." *Educational Leadership* 63 (3): 66–71.
- Smith, Jeffrey K. 2003. "Reconsidering Reliability in Classroom Assessment and Grading." *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practices* 22 (4): 26–34.
- Stobart, Gordon. 2006. "The Validity of Formative Assessment." In *Assessment and Learning*, edited by John Gardner, 133–46. London, UK: Sage.
- Wiliam, Dylan, and Paul J. Black. 1996. "Meanings and Consequences: A Basis for Distinguishing Formative and Summative Functions of Assessment?" *British Educational Research Journal* 22 (5): 537–48.
- Wiliam, Dylan. 2006. "Does Assessment Hinder Learning?" Paper presented at the ETS Invitational Seminar at the Institute of Civil Engineers, London, UK.

Chapter 20

- Aud, Susan, Mary Ann Fox, and Angelina KewalRamani. 2010. "Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups." Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education. <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/2010015.pdf> (accessed December 16, 2016).
- Bacharach, Nancy, Teresa W. Heck, and Kathryn Dahlberg. 2010. "Changing the Face of Student Teaching Through Co-Teaching." *Action in Teacher Education* 32 (1): 3–14.

- Bohn, Sarah, and Caroline Danielson. 2014. "Child Poverty and the Social Safety Net in California." San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California. http://www.ppic.org/main/publication_quick.asp?i=1114 (accessed December 16, 2016).
- California Department of Education. 2011. Data Quest. <http://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/SpecEd/StateRpts/EnrGrdeDis.asp?cChoice=EnrGrdDis1&cLevel=State&cYear=2011-12&ReptCycle=December>.
- . 2012a. *Duty to Protect Students*. Sacramento: Author. <http://www.cde.ca.gov/re/di/eo/dutytoprotect.asp> (accessed December 12, 2016).
- . 2012b. *The California Accommodations Guide: Selecting, Administering, and Evaluating Accommodations for Instruction and Assessment for Students with Disabilities*. Sacramento: Author.
- . 2014. *California English Language Development Standards, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve*. Sacramento: Author.
- . 2015. *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve*. Sacramento: Author.
- Center for Applied Special Technology (CAST). 2011. *Universal Design for Learning Guidelines Version 2.0*. Wakefield, MA: Author.
- Friend, Marilyn, and W. D. Bursuck. 2009. *Including Students with Special Needs: A Practical Guide for Classroom Teachers*. 5th ed. Columbus, OH: Merrill.
- GLSEN. 2012. *The 2011 National School Climate Survey Executive Summary: Key Findings on the Experiences of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Youth in Our Nation's Schools*. New York: GLSEN.
- GLSEN, and Harris Interactive. 2012. *Playgrounds and Prejudice: Elementary School Climate in the United States, A Survey of Students and Teachers*. New York: GLSEN.
- Goldsmith, Phyllis, and Tuyen Tran. 2012. "English Learners and Reading Comprehension: Text Organization in History." *Social Studies Review* 51, no. 1: 57–63.

- . 2013. *Access for All Learners: Building Blocks to Integrate Content and Literacy Instruction*. Berkeley: UC Berkeley History-Social Science Project.
- Gottlieb, Margo. 2006. *Assessing English Language Learners: Bridges from Language Proficiency to Academic Achievement*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Harris-Wright, Kelli. 1999. “Enhancing Bidialectalism in Urban African American Students.” In *Making the Connection: Language and Academic Achievement among African American Students*, edited by C. T. Adger, D. Christian, and O. Taylor, 53–80. Washington, DC, and McHenry, IL: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems Co.
- Herbers, Janette, J. J. Cutuli, Laura M. Supkof, David Heistad, Chi-Keung Chan, Elizabeth Hinz, and Ann S. Masten. 2012. “Early Reading Skills and Academic Achievement: Trajectories of Students Facing Poverty, Homelessness, and High Residential Mobility.” *Educational Researcher* 4: 366–74.
- Ignatjeva, Svetlana, and Dzintra Iliško. 2008. “Towards a Multiculturally Competent Teacher in Building a Sustainable Community.” *Problems of Education in the 21st Century* 7 (7): 39–47.
- Jensen, Eric. 2008. *Brain-Based Learning: The New Paradigm of Teaching*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Kaiser, Ann P., Megan Y. Roberts, and Ragan H. McLeod. 2011. “Young Children with Language Impairments: Challenges in Transition to Reading.” In *Handbook of Early Literacy Research, Volume 3*, edited by S. B. Neuman and David K. Dickinson, 153–71. New York: The Guilford Press.
- LeMoine, Noma. 1999. *Language Variation and Literacy Acquisition in African American Students*. Los Angeles: Los Angeles Unified School District.
- McIntyre, Ellen, and Jennifer D. Turner. 2013. “Culturally Responsive Literacy Instruction.” In *Handbook of Effective Literacy Instruction*, edited by Barbara M. Taylor and Nell Duke, 137–61. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Moll, Luis C., Cathy Amanti, Deborah Neff, and Norma Gonzalez. 1992. “Funds of Knowledge of Teaching: Using a Qualitative Approach to Connect Homes and Classrooms.” *Theory into Practice* 31 (2): 132–41.

- Moore, Jan. 2013. *Research Summary: Resilience and At-Risk Children and Youth*. Greensboro: NC: National Center for Homeless Education.
- Nicpon, Megan F., Allison Allmon, Barbara Sieck, and Rebecca D. Stinson. 2011. "Empirical Investigation of Twice-Exceptionality: Where Have We Been and Where Are We Going?" *Gifted Child Quarterly* 55 (3): 3–17.
- Rogers, Karen B. 2007. "Lessons Learned About Educating the Gifted and Talented: A Synthesis of the Research on Educational Practice." *Gifted Child Quarterly* 51 (4): 382–96.
- Schleppegrell, Mary, and Mariana Achugar. 2003. "Learning Language and Learning History: A Functional Linguistics Approach." *TESOL Journal* 12 (2): 21–27.
- Schleppegrell, Mary J. 2004. *The Language of Schooling: A Functional Linguistics Perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Schleppegrell, Mary J., Mariana Achugar, and Teresa Oteiza. 2004. "The Grammar of History: Enhancing Content-Based Instruction Through a Functional Focus on Language." *TESOL Quarterly* 38 (1): 67–93.
- Schleppegrell, M., S. Greer, and S. Taylor. 2008. "Literacy in History: Language and Meaning." *Australian Journal of Language & Literacy* 31 (2): 174–87.
- Shanahan, Timothy, and Carolyn Shanahan. 2008. "Teaching Disciplinary Literacy to Adolescents: Rethinking Content-Area Literacy." *Harvard Educational Review* 78 (1): 40–59.
- Voight, Adam, Marybeth Shinn, and Maury Nation. 2012. "The Longitudinal Effects of Residential Mobility on the Academic Achievement of Urban Elementary and Middle School Students." *Educational Researcher* 4: 385–92.
- Webb, Norman L. 2005. *Web Alignment Tool (WAT) Training Manual*. Version 1.1. Wisconsin Center for Education Research. <http://wat.wceruw.org/index.aspx> (accessed December 12, 2016).

Chapter 21

- ACT, Inc. 2006. *Reading Between the Lines: What the ACT Reveals About College Readiness in Reading*. Iowa City, IA: Author.
- Applebee, Arthur N. 1996. *Curriculum as Conversation: Transforming Traditions of Teaching and Learning*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Applebee, Arthur N., Judith A. Langer, Martin Nystrand, and Adam Gamoran. 2003. "Discussion-Based Approaches to Developing Understanding: Classroom Instruction and Student Performance in Middle and High School English." *American Education Research Journal* 40 (3): 685–730.
- Bailey, Alison L., and Becky H. Huang. 2011. "Do Current English Language Development/Proficiency Standards Reflect the English Needed for Success in School?" *Language Testing* 28 (3): 343–65.
- Bain, Robert B. 2000. "Into the Breach: Using Research and Theory to Shape History Instruction." In *Knowing, Teaching & Learning History: National and International Perspectives*, edited by P. Stearns, P. Seixas, and S. Wineburg, 331–53. New York: New York University Press.
- Beck, Isabel, Margaret G. McKeown, and Linda Kucan. 2002. "Taking Delight in Words: Using Oral Language to Build Young Children's Vocabularies." *American Educator* 27, no. 1, 36–39: 41, 43–46.
- . 2013. *Bringing Words to Life: Robust Vocabulary Instruction*. 2nd ed. New York: Guilford Press.
- Biemiller, Andrew. 1999. *Language and Reading Success*. Cambridge, MA: Brookline Books.
- Brisk, Maria E. 2012. "Young Bilingual Writers' Control of Grammatical Person in Different Genres." *Elementary School Journal* 112: 445–68.
- California Department of Education. 2013a. *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects*. Sacramento: Author.
- . 2013b. *California English Language Development Standards*. Sacramento: Author.

- . 2015. *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve*. Sacramento: Author.
- Carnegie Corporation, and Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE). 2011. *Guardian of Democracy: The Civic Mission of Schools*. Silver Spring, MD: Author.
- Carnegie Council on Advancing Adolescent Literacy. 2010. *Time to Act: An Agenda for Advancing Adolescent Literacy for College and Career Success*. New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York.
- Cazden, Courtney B. 2001. *Classroom Discourse: The Language of Teaching and Learning*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Chall, Jeanne S., Glenda L. Bissex, Sue S. Conard, and Susan Harris-Sharples, eds. 1996. *Qualitative Assessment of Text Difficulty: A Practical Guide for Teachers and Writers*. Cambridge, UK: Brookline Books.
- Christie, Francis, and Beverly Derewianka. 2008. *School Discourse: Learning to Write Across the Years of Schooling*. London, UK: Continuum.
- Corson, David. 1995. *Using English Words*. New York: Springer.
- Derewianka, Beverly, and Pauline Jones. 2012. *Teaching Language in Context*. South Melbourne, Australia: Victoria Oxford University Press.
- Fang, Zhihui, and Mary J. Schleppegrell. 2010. "Disciplinary Literacies Across Content Areas: Supporting Secondary Reading Through Functional Language Analysis." *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy* 53 (7): 587–97.
- Friend, Marilyn, and W. D. Bursuck. 2009. *Including Students with Special Needs: A Practical Guide for Classroom Teachers*. 5th ed. Columbus, OH: Merrill.
- Gallagher Heffron, S., and R. Downs, eds. 2012. *Geography for Life*. 2nd ed. Washington, DC: National Council for Geographic Education.

- Gebhard, Meg, Jerri Willett, Juan Pablo Jiménez, and Amy Piedra. 2011. "Systemic Functional Linguistics, Teachers' Professional Development, and ELLs' Academic Literacy Practices." In *Teacher Preparation for Linguistically Diverse Classrooms: A Resource for Teacher Educators*, edited by Tamara Lucas, 91–110. New York: Routledge/Taylor and Francis.
- Gibbons, Pauline. 2008. "‘It Was Taught Good and I Learned a Lot’: Intellectual Practices and ESL Learners in the Middle Years." *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy* 31 (2): 155–73.
- Halliday, Michael A. K., and revised by Christian M. I. M. Matthiessen. 2004. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. New York: Routledge.
- Hammond, Jennifer. 2006. "High Challenge, High Support: Integrating Language and Content Instruction for Diverse Learners in an English Literature Classroom." *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 5: 269–83.
- Heath, Shirley Brice. 1983. *Ways with Words: Language, Life, and Work in Communities and Classrooms*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Hess, Karen, and Sue Biggam. 2004. "A Discussion of ‘Increasing Text Complexity.’" Published by the New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont Departments of Education as part of the New England Common Assessment Program (NECAP). www.nciea.org/publications/TextComplexity_KH05.pdf (accessed December 12, 2016).
- Hiebert, Elfrieda H. 2012. "7 Actions that Teachers Can Take Right Now: Text Complexity." *Text Matters*. http://textproject.org/assets/text-matters/Text-Matters_7-Actions-Text-Complexity.pdf (accessed December 12, 2016).
- . 2012/2013. "The CCSS Text Exemplars: Understanding Their Aims and Use in Text Selection." *Reading Today* 30 (3): 6–7.
- Hiebert, Elfrieda H., and Heidi Anne E. Mesmer. 2013. "Upping the Ante of Text Complexity in the Common Core State Standards: Examining Its Potential Impact on Young Readers." *Educational Researcher* 43: 44–51.
- Imazeki, Jennifer. 2013. "Not Just for Seniors: Making Space for Economics in K–11." *Social Studies Review* 52: 37–40.

- Kamil, Michael L., Geoffrey D. Borman, Janice Dole, Cathleen C. Kral, Terry Salinger, and Joseph Torgesen. 2008. *Improving Adolescent Literacy: Effective Classroom and Intervention Practices* (NCEE 2008–4027). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/Docs/PracticeGuide/adlit_pg_082608.pdf (accessed December 12, 2016).
- Katz, Mira-Lisa, and Adele Arellano. 2013. “Assignment Template Appendix E: Using Classroom Discussion Strategies to Foster Rhetorical Literacies.” In *California State University Expository Reading and Writing Course*. 2nd ed. Long Beach, CA: California State University Press.
- Lee, Peter. 2004. “Understanding History.” In *Theorizing Historical Consciousness*, edited by Peter Seixas, 129–64. Toronto, ON: University of Toronto Press.
- . 2005. “Putting Principles into Practice: Understanding History.” In *How Students Learn: History in the Classroom*, edited by M. Suzanne Donovan and John D. Bransford, 61–65. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press.
- Marzano, Robert J., Debra J. Pickering, and Jane E. Pollock. 2001. *Classroom Instruction That Works: Research-Based Strategies for Increasing Student Achievement*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Moje, Elizabeth Birr. 2010. “Comprehending in the Content Areas: The Challenges of Comprehension, Grades 7–12, and What to Do About Them.” In *A Comprehensive Look at Reading Comprehension, K–12*, edited by Kathy Ganske and Douglas Fisher, 46–72. New York: Guilford.
- Nagy, William E. 1988. *Teaching Vocabulary to Improve Reading Comprehension*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS). 2013. *The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards: Guidance for Enhancing the Rigor of K–12 Civics, Economics, Geography, and History*. Silver Spring, MD: Author.

- National Governors Association (NGA) Center for Best Practices, and the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO). 2010. "Appendix A: Research Supporting Key Elements of the Standards." In *Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects*. Washington, DC: Author.
- Nystrand, Martin. 2006. "Research on the Role of Classroom Discourse as It Affects Reading Comprehension." *Research in the Teaching of English* 40 (4): 392–412.
- O'Dowd, Robert. 2010. "Online Foreign Language Interaction: Moving from the Periphery to the Core of Foreign Language Education." *Language Teaching* 44 (3): 368–80.
- Partnership for Twenty-First Century Skills (P21). *Framework for 21st Century Skills*. 2011. Washington, DC: Author.
- Rose, David, and Claire Acevedo. 2006. "Closing the Gap and Accelerating Learning in the Middle Years of Schooling." *Literacy Learning: The Middle Years* 14 (2): 32–45.
- Schell, Emily, and Douglas Fisher. 2007. *Teaching Social Studies: A Literacy-Based Approach*. New York: Pearson.
- Schell, E. M., K. J. Roth, and A. Mohan., eds. 2013. *A Road Map for 21st Century Geography Education: Instructional Materials and Professional Development* (A report from the Instructional Materials and Professional Development Committee of the Road Map for 21st Century Geography Education Project). Washington, DC: National Council for Geographic Education.
- Schleppegrell, Mary J. 2004. *The Language of Schooling: A Functional Linguistics Perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- . 2009. "Language in Academic Subject Areas and Classroom Instruction: What Is Academic Language and How Can We Teach It?" Paper prepared for the Workshop on the Role of Language in School Learning: Implications for Closing the Achievement Gap, October 15–16, 2009. Menlo Park, CA: Hewlett Foundation.
- . 2012. "Academic Language in Teaching and Learning: Introduction to the Special Issue." *The Elementary School Journal* 112 (3): 409–18.

- Schleppegrell, Mary J., and Luciana C. de Oliveira. 2006. "An Integrated Language and Content Approach for History Teachers." *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 5: 254–68.
- Schoenbach, Ruth, Cynthia Greenleaf, and Lynn Murphy. 2012. *Reading for Understanding: How Reading Apprenticeship Improves Disciplinary Learning in Secondary and College Classrooms*. 2nd ed. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Snow, Catherine E., and Paola Uccelli. 2009. "The Challenge of Academic Language." In *The Cambridge Handbook of Literacy*, edited by David R. Olson and Nancy Torrance, 112–33. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Spycher, Pamela. 2007. "Academic Writing of Adolescent English Learners: Learning to Use 'Although.'" *Journal of Second Language Writing* 16 (4): 238–54.
- Student Achievement Partners. 2013. "A Guide to Creating Text-Dependent Questions for Close Analytic Reading." New York: Achieve the Core.
- Thompson, Sandra, Amanda B. Morse, Michael Sharpe, and Sharon Hall. 2005. *Accommodations Manual: How to Select, Administer, and Evaluate Use of Accommodations for Instruction and Assessment of Students with Disabilities*. 2nd ed. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers.
- University of California, Davis, History Project. 2006. "The Process of Historical Investigation." (accessed November 11, 2017).
- Wiggins, G., and McTighe, J. 1998. *Understanding by Design*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Wineburg, Sam. 2001. *Historical Thinking and Other Unnatural Acts: Charting the Future of Teaching the Past*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Wong-Fillmore, Lilly, and Charles J. Fillmore. 2012. "What Does Text Complexity Mean for English Learners and Language Minority Students?" Invited paper for the Understanding Language Initiative. Stanford, CA: Stanford University. http://ell.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/pdf/academic-papers/06-LWF%20CJF%20Text%20Complexity%20FINAL_0.pdf (accessed December 12, 2016).

Zwiers, Jeff, and Marie Crawford. 2011. *Academic Conversations: Classroom Talk That Fosters Critical Thinking and Content Understandings*. Portland, ME: Stenhouse Publishers.

Chapter 22

August, Diane, and Timothy Shanahan, eds. 2006. *Developing Literacy in Second-Language Learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Borko, Hilda. 2004. "Professional Development and Teacher Learning: Mapping the Terrain." *Educational Researcher* 33 (8): 3–15.

California Department of Education. 2015. *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve*. Sacramento: Author.

Darling-Hammond, Linda, and Gary Sykes, ed. 1999. *Teaching as the Learning Profession: Handbook of Policy and Practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Darling-Hammond, Linda, Ruth C. Wei, Alethea Andree, Nikole Richardson, and Stelios Orphanos. 2009. *Professional Learning in the Learning Profession: A Status Report on Teacher Development in the United States and Abroad*. Palo Alto, CA: The School Redesign Network at Stanford University and the National Staff Development Council.

Desimone, Laura M. 2009. "Improving Impact Studies of Teachers' Professional Development: Toward Better Conceptualizations and Measures." *Educational Researcher* 38 (3): 181–99.

Ermeling, Bradley A., and Ronald Gallimore. 2013. "Learning to Be a Community: Schools Need Adaptable Models to Create Successful Programs." *Journal of Staff Development* 34 (2): 43–45.

Fixsen, Dean L., and Karen A. Blase. 2009. "Implementation: The Missing Link Between Research and Practice." *NIRN Implementation Brief #1*. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina, FPG, NIRN.

- Gándara, Patricia, Julie Maxwell-Jolly, and Anne Driscoll. 2005. *Listening to Teachers of English Language Learners: A Survey of California Teachers' Challenges, Experiences, and Professional Development Needs*. Santa Cruz, CA: The Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning.
- Garmston, Robert J., and Diane P. Zimmerman. 2013. "The Collaborative Compact: Operating Principles Lay the Groundwork for Successful Group Work." *Journal of Staff Development* 34 (2): 10–16.
- Grossman, Pamela L., Sam Wineburg, and Stephen Woolworth. 2001. "Toward a Theory of Teacher Community." *Teachers College Record* 103: 942–1012.
- Joyce, Bruce, and Beverly Showers. 1980. "Improving Inservice Training: The Messages of Research." *Educational Leadership* 37 (5): 379–85.
- . 2002. *Student Achievement Through Staff Development*. 3rd ed. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Killion, Joellen, and Stephanie Hirsch. 2013. "Investments in Professional Learning Must Change: The Goals Are Ambitious, the Stakes Are High—and Resources Are the Key." *Journal of Staff Development* 34 (4): 10–14 and 17–20.
- Knowles, Malcom. 1973. *The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species*. Houston, TX: Gulf Professional.
- Kruse, Sharon D., and Karen S. Louis. 2009. *Building Strong School Cultures: A Guide to Leading Change*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin and the American Association of School Administrators.
- Learning Forward. 2011. *Standards for Professional Learning*. Oxford, OH: Author.
- Lewis, Catherine, Rebecca Perry, and Aki Murata. 2006. "How Should Research Contribute to Instructional Improvement: The Case of Lesson Study." *Educational Researcher* 35 (3): 3–14.
- Little, Judith Warren. 2006. *Professional Community and Professional Development in the Learning-Centered School*. Washington, DC: National Education Association. http://www.nea.org/assets/docs/HE/mf_pdreport.pdf (accessed October 29, 2013).

- Mindich, Dan, and Ann Lieberman. 2012. *Building a Learning Community: A Tale of Two Schools*. Stanford, CA: Stanford Center for Opportunity Policy in Education.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). 1998. *Staying Ahead: In-Service Training and Teacher Professional Development*. Paris: Author.
- . 2005. *Teachers Matter: Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers*. Paris: Author.
- . 2009. *Creating Effective Teaching and Learning Environments: First Results from TALIS*. Paris: Author.
- Stoll, Louise, and Karen S. Louis. 2007. *Professional Learning Communities: Divergence, Depth and Dilemmas*. New York: McGraw-Hill and Open University Press.
- Wei, Ruth C., Linda Darling-Hammond, and Frank Adamson. 2010. *Professional Development in the United States: Trends and Challenges, Phase II of a Three-Phase Study, Technical Report*. Dallas, TX: National Staff Development Council and Stanford Center for Opportunity Policy Education in Education.
- Wenger, Etienne. 1998. *Communities of Practice: Learning, Meaning, and Identity*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Wilson, Suzanne M., and Jennifer Berne. 1999. “Teacher Learning and the Acquisition of Professional Knowledge: An Examination of Research on Contemporary Professional Development.” *Review of Research in Education* 24: 173–209.

Chapter 23

- California Department of Education. 2000. *History–Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve*. Sacramento: Author.
- . 2001. *Visual and Performing Arts Content Standards for California Public Schools, Prekindergarten Through Grade Twelve*. Sacramento: Author.

- . 2013a. *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects*. Sacramento: Author.
- . 2013b. *California English Language Development Standards*. Sacramento: Author.
- . 2015. *English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve*. Sacramento: Author.

Appendix A

- California Department of Education. 2013. *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects*. Sacramento: Author.
- National Governors Association for Best Practices (NGA), and Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO). 2010. *Common Core State Standards Initiative*. Washington, DC: Author.

Appendix B

- California Department of Education. 2005. *History–Social Science Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve*. Sacramento: Author.
- National Council for the Social Studies. (NCSS). 2014. *Human Rights Education: A Necessity for Effective Social and Civic Learning*. Silver Spring, MD: Author.
- . 2013. *The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards: Guidance for Enhancing the Rigor of K-12 Civics, Economics, Geography, and History*. Silver Spring, MD: Author.

Appendix E

- California Department of Education. 2013. *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects*. Sacramento: Author

Carnegie Corporation, and Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE). 2011. *Guardian of Democracy: The Civic Mission of Schools*. Silver Spring, MD: Author.

This page is intentionally left blank.

Framework Resources

The links below lead to selected primary sources that are referenced within the History–Social Science Framework.

Primary-Source Documents

- Articles of Confederation
(<https://www.ourdocuments.gov/doc.php?flash=false&doc=3>)
- California Constitution
(<http://www.leginfo.ca.gov/const-toc.html>)
- Charter of the United Nations
(<http://www.un.org/en/charter-united-nations/>)
- The Constitution of the United States
(<http://www.usconstitution.net/const.html>)
- The Declaration of Independence
(<http://www.ushistory.org/Declaration/document/index.htm>)
- The Emancipation Proclamation
(http://www.archives.gov/exhibits/featured_documents/emancipation_proclamation/transcript.html)
- The Federalist Papers
(<https://www.congress.gov/resources/display/content/The+Federalist+Papers>)

- The Geneva Conventions as adopted and revised
(<https://www.icrc.org/en/document/geneva-conventions-1949-additional-protocols>)
- George Washington’s Farewell Address
(<http://www.ourdocuments.gov>)
- The Gettysburg Address
(<https://www.ourdocuments.gov/doc.php?flash=false&doc=36>)
- Magna Carta (English translation)
(<http://www.bl.uk/treasures/magnacarta/index.html>)
- Universal Declaration of Human Rights
(<http://www.un.org/en/universal-declaration-human-rights/index.html>)

Essays

- “Why Geography Matters . . . But Is So Little Learned,” by Walter McDougall
(http://www.scsk12.org/scs/high/southwind/Honors_files/Why%20Geography%20Matters....pdf)
- “Why Study History?” by Peter Stearns
([https://www.historians.org/about-aha-and-membership/aha-history-and-archives/archives/why-study-history-\(1998\)](https://www.historians.org/about-aha-and-membership/aha-history-and-archives/archives/why-study-history-(1998)))
- “Why Teach Economics in Kindergarten Through Twelfth Grade?” by Jim Charkins
(<https://www.cde.ca.gov/ci/hs/cf/whyteacheconomics.asp>)