CRM

VOLUME 16 • NO. 2
1 9 9 3

Thematic Issue

National Register of
Historic Places
Interagency Resources Division

Teaching with Historic Places

Where Did History Happen?

Beth M. Boland

Jaded 16-year-olds, bored with the docent's recitation of furnishings, suddenly drop to their knees to touch "the original 17th century floor." A visitor to the U.S.S. *Arizona* stands tearfully silent while others throw leis into the water. Tourists stare in awe at the cliff dwellings of Mesa Verde. Historic places have the power to move us in profound ways—suddenly, sometimes unexpectedly, to imprint upon our minds and our hearts the **reality** of our past, and the longing to know more. It is this sense of excitement generating intellectual curiosity that Teaching with Historic Places, a cooperative program of the National Park Service and the National Trust for Historic Preservation, seeks to impart to teachers and students alike.

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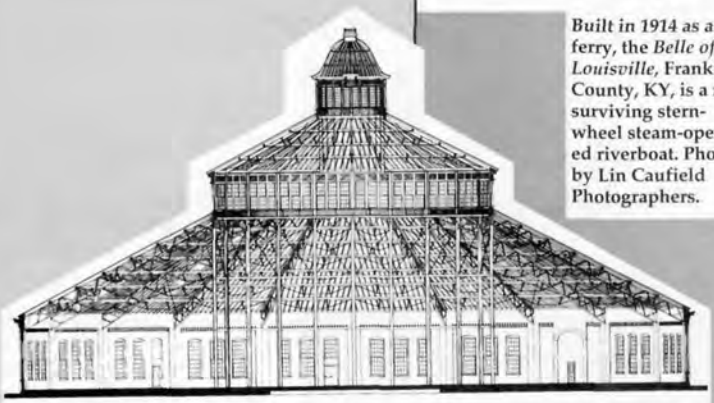

Regular passenger service in the United States was inaugurated at the Baltimore and Ohio Mount Clare Station (Baltimore, MD) in 1830. This Circular Car Barn was constructed in 1884 to build and repair passenger cars. Delineated by Eric DeLony, HAER.

Built in 1914 as a ferry, the *Belle of Louisville*, Frankfort County, KY, is a rare surviving stern-wheel steam-operated riverboat. Photo by Lin Caufield Photographers.

Crested Butte, Gunnison County, CO, developed as a supply center for gold and silver miners, 1880–1910. Photo by Walter Smalling.

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CRM

VOLUME 16 • NO. 2

Published by the National Park Service to promote and maintain high standards for preserving and managing cultural resources.

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Send articles, news items, and correspondence to the Editor, *CRM* (400), U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Cultural Resources, P.O. Box 37127, Washington, DC 20013-7127; (202-343-3395)

Where Did History Happen?

(continued from page 1)

America recognizes thousands of historic places that are dramatic and enticing because of their associations with revered events and people, their beauty, or their mystery. And **every** community has these special places that document how those before us lived, struggled, and influenced who we have become. The National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 was passed to recognize just such places. In their rush for progress, communities too often were sacrificing the very monuments—impressive or humble—that represented the progress they had already achieved and that embodied their unique identity.

Historic resources with state or local, as well as national, significance are listed in the National Register of Historic Places. Over 60,000 files contain text, maps, and photographs that document this country's history, town by town, and region by region. This is the very information often most difficult for classroom teachers to obtain; very few textbooks exist on state history, and fewer still on localities. Yet, we soon discovered that merely to inform classroom teachers of the wealth of information available from the National Register of Historic Places would not be sufficient. We needed to produce materials that would be truly useful to teachers, but would not duplicate the efforts of others.

The 125-foot tower of the Lycoming County Courthouse in Williamsport, PA, falls during the 1969 demolition of the 109-year-old landmark. AP Wirephoto, RGW 51430rgw.

Together, the articles in this issue of *CRM* explain the origins, goals, and progress of the Teaching with Historic Places program within the wider contexts of educational programs that use the built environment—often called "heritage education"—and of national educational reform. Carol Shull, Chief of Registration for the National Register, explains how the program began and was shaped by advice from educators. Kathleen Hunter, Director of Education at the National Trust, summarizes current heritage education programs, and identifies some of the educational needs that these programs generally do not meet.

Reports by the Bradley Commission on History in Schools, the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools, the National Council for Preservation Education, the National Park Education Task Force, and others demonstrated the widespread interest in education reform in the mid-to-late 1980s. John Patrick, Director of the Educational Information Resource Center (ERIC) Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, discusses curriculum reform, national standards projects, and the role of historic places. Salvatore Natoli, a geographer and Director of Publications for the National Council for the Social Studies, writes about the importance of "place" in geography, history, and our sense of ourselves.

The basic building blocks for the Teaching with Historic Places program are lesson plans based on properties listed in the National Register of Historic Places. Educator Fay Metcalf explains the concepts embodied in the lesson plan format she developed. Each lesson uses documentation from National Register files and elsewhere as the basis for class discussions and activities. In her article, National Register historian Marilyn Harper examines various types of documents, and discusses effective selection and use.

"Knife River: Early Village Life on the Plains" (see insert) provides an example of a Teaching with Historic Places lesson plan. The other completed lesson plans in what we intend as an ongoing series are "San Antonio Missions: Spanish Influence in Texas"; "When Rice Was King"; "Run for Your Lives! The Johnstown Flood of 1889"; "Log Cabins in America: The Finnish Experience"; "Roadside Attractions"; and "Attu: The Only North American Battleground of World War II." In addition to appearing chronologically throughout the 1992-93 school year in *Social Education*, the journal of the National Council for the Social Studies, they will be available soon as a set from the National Trust's Preservation Press. Lesson plans also form the basis for more complex educational kits organized around historic themes. The first of these, titled "American Work; American Workplaces," is underway; another, on war and conflict, is just beginning.

A series of workshops has helped introduce the Teaching with Historic Places lesson plans and methodology to classroom teachers, National Park Service and National Trust educators, and others. The program partners have offered one- and two-day workshops on using and writing lesson plans at annual meetings of the National Council for the Social Studies and the National Trust for Historic Preservation. Week-long workshops for Park and Trust educators produced over 25 additional lesson plans, which will be published by the National Trust. The week-long workshops were funded by the

*(**History**—continued on page 7)*

Creating a Partnership

Carol D. Shull

In 1991, the National Park Service and the National Trust for Historic Preservation formed a partnership to launch an ambitious program using properties listed in the National Register of Historic Places to educate our young people. As Chief of Registration for the National Register, I see the breadth of what we have to offer—the great variety of places that reflect our heritage, and the rich documentation about them. As a mother, I have seen my two children excited by a gifted teacher who brought history alive through creative, hands-on activities, only to watch their interest killed by one who only assigned chapters to read and facts to memorize. I marvel that it has taken us so long to find a way to make historic places, which so powerfully convey lessons about our past, widely available to teachers and students.

Why now? Because the time is right. We are in a period of major reform stemming from concern over our children's education. In the preservation world, it has become clear that we must put a higher priority on increasing support through education. We know that preservation improves the quality of life in communities, creates housing and jobs, promotes tourism and civic pride, and can instruct us about the history and contributions of all of our people. If we want Americans to truly care about preserving historic places, we must explain why they are important.

The growing interest in education has coincided with our own heightened awareness of the value of the National Register as a unique national inventory that should be made more accessible to the public. The National Register now lists over 60,000 buildings, sites, districts, structures and objects significant in American history, architecture, archeology, engineering and culture, including over 870,000 individual resources. Each registration file includes a description, statement of significance, bibliography, maps, photographs and other useful data. Over half of the listings are part of "multiple property submissions" of properties related to a historic context, which might be as broad as the development of a community or focused on narrower themes in national, state or local history. Often the National Register files and cultural resource survey reports are the only or best records of these places and their significance.

The National Register Information System (NRIS) makes it possible to identify places by location, functions, areas and periods of significance, important persons, architect/builder, cultural affiliation and other ways. This computerized database not only has made the Register a more valuable planning tool, but has opened it for research on various aspects of American history by making it easier to find appropriate properties. For instance, the National Park Service and the National Conference of State Historic Preservation Officers are preparing a manuscript—to be published by the Trust's Preservation Press—on over 700 registered properties associated with African American history, which were identified by querying the NRIS.

In 1988, Kathleen Hunter joined the National Trust to help develop a heritage education program that would build bridges to the education community. Kathleen asked me to participate in the Trust's study. At meetings between educators and preservation advocates it became clear that educators are looking beyond textbooks to enrich the curriculum. Since then we have sought the advice of leading educators on how historic places and the information about them can be used to address major educational needs and issues.

I can honestly say that in my more than 20 years in preservation I have never participated in more enlightening and helpful discussions. Assembled preservation advocates, curriculum specialists, school administrators, classroom teachers, and national organization leaders were not shy in recommending ways to make it practical for teachers to use historic places in the classroom. Virtually all of the advice has helped shape the Teaching with Historic Places program.

The educators recommended against introducing new subjects into the already crowded curriculum. They emphasized that, without a mandate, teachers do not have time to teach historic preservation, architecture, or archeology. Educators also explained that reduced budgets have resulted in fewer field trips, but endorsed the educational value of historic places even if students can-

Union Avenue Historic Commercial District, Pueblo (Pueblo County), CO, is one of the most common types of historic places in a community: a downtown central business district. Photo by Jim Munch.

not visit the sites. They suggested that we develop a program that would use historic places to teach history, social studies, and other required subjects in the core curriculum. Instructional materials, prepared with the input of experienced teachers in a standard lesson plan format, could clearly demonstrate how and where specific historic places can fit into the curriculum.

Targeting middle schools while making materials flexible enough for upper elementary and high school levels was suggested, because those are the grades at which American history and topics such as geography and civics are taught. Preservationists and educators alike said that our instructional materials should show how comparable historic properties can be found in localities, making the connections between seemingly distant events and theoretical concepts and the students' own communities and experiences. Ideally, a teacher could pick up a lesson plan the night before and use it the next day.

The influence of transportation routes is an important historic theme in many communities. The Calico Rock Historic District, Calico Rock (Izard County), AR, reflects the town's growth as a prominent local trading center following the completion of the St. Louis and Iron Mountain Railroad in 1902. Photo by Don Brown.

Elsie Freeman, then Chief of the Education Branch, Office of Public Programs, at the National Archives and Records Administration, participated in our group because of the Teaching with Documents program that the Archives has run for over a decade in partnership with the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS). Our advisors recommended that the Park Service and the Trust pattern products on the successful document-based learning packages and teacher training program developed by the National Archives, saving us from having to reinvent the wheel.

Nationally-known educator, Fay Metcalf, former Director of the National Commission for Social Studies in the Schools, wrote the first prototype lesson plans, and has become editor for the Teaching with Historic Places series. She has created a format teachers recognize as effective and developed guidelines for preparing lesson plans that can be used by preservationists and educators anywhere in the United States. We hope the series will include lessons written by authors throughout the country.

Fran Haley, Executive Director of NCSS, attested to the popularity of the Archives lessons, which are published as a regular feature in the NCSS journal, *Social Education*. She offered to publish the Teaching with Historic Places lessons as an ongoing series in *Social Education*, giving us another partner and enabling us to follow the advice that we make our materials available through channels school districts and teachers use.

If the Teaching with Historic Places program is to succeed, we must train teachers to use historic places and the documentation about them to create their own lesson plans. Preservation advocates, too, need to learn what educators need to use historic places in the curriculum. With this in mind, we have made training and the development of a curriculum framework that can help make the use of historic places a standard teaching skill elements of the Teaching with Historic Places program.

Support from several sources has made Teaching with Historic Places possible. Some of the National Park Service's Parks as Classrooms funds—most of which are being used for programs in national parks—are helping to develop Teaching with Historic Places, because the program benefits parks, which contain nearly 20,000 resources listed in the National Register. Additional funds have come from special NPS training monies. The National Trust has provided the services of Kathleen Hunter and other staff, and costs of publishing and marketing our instructional materials. Our goal is to obtain the steady funding necessary to assure that Teaching with Historic Places can continue as an ongoing program.

I have not had space to mention everyone who has advised and assisted us, but I want to thank them all for their invaluable assistance in developing Teaching with Historic Places. The wisdom of their recommendations and the certainty that Teaching with Historic Places can and will make a major contribution have been affirmed by what I have read and observed.

We always have had the historic places that can tell the stories that need to be told. Now we have a program in which educators and preservation advocates everywhere can participate, and which assists our young people in developing the skills they must have to be productive citizens. I am convinced that the Teaching with Historic Places program is one of our most exciting opportunities.

Carol D. Shull is the Chief of Registration, National Register of Historic Places, Interagency Resources Division, National Park Service.

Heritage Education
What is Going on Out There?

Kathleen Hunter

History discovery trunks, walks around the neighborhood, field trips, adopt-a-building projects, community planning simulations, and historical reenactments are a few of the many approaches of heritage educators. In the United States, interpreters, or "heritage educators," at museums and historic sites—always important tourist attractions—long have conducted programs for school children. Since the 1970s, however, heritage education has expanded from the museum or park setting into communities and their schools.

Heritage educators do not always share professional standards or goals. There are some common elements to their programs, however. Activities focus the learners' attention on the actual evidence of our history and culture, such as the natural and built environment, material culture, practices, oral history, music and folkways. Then the heritage education approach engages learners in an interactive exploration of this evidence. This approach also encourages learners to move from idea to action—from understanding the historical environment to protecting it. Finally, it draws on many disciplines—history, geography, the natural and social sciences, the arts and literature—to decipher meaning and significance.

Historic house museums and historic sites have shown a concerted effort to strengthen interpretive programs to give visitors a more complete and accurate story. House museums are finding creative ways to tell their story to learners of every age. At Shadows on the Teche in Louisiana, for example, youngsters portray the children of the Weeks family who owned the plantation. An Arlington, VA, high school class visits Woodrow Wilson's home in Washington, DC, each year for a simulated League of Nations meeting. Students visiting Drayton Hall in Charleston, SC, learn archeological skills.

Living history museums—such as Williamsburg, VA, and Greenfield Village, MI—offer a wide range of interactive learning opportunities, allowing visitors to connect with the period and culture being presented. They combine fixed exhibits and preserved structures and artifacts with demonstrations, reenactments, performances, and opportunities to explore historical evidence.

Programs developed by historical societies tend to emphasize investigation into the community's people and events. In Hunterdon County, NJ, for example, high school students have compiled valuable documentation on county residents for the historical society. The Kentucky Historical Society supports an extensive collection of books, films and other materials for school-aged children. In the Philadelphia area, Cliveden House in Germantown not only teaches youngsters about events at the house itself, but also about many aspects of local history.

A student in one of Drayton Hall's archeological programs puzzles over the identity of an uncovered artifact. Photo by Eugene Heizer, Drayton Hall Education Program, Charleston, SC.

Preservation organizations sponsoring heritage education programs invite students to discover the physical clues to the community's history and culture. A staple of these kinds of programs is the walk-around-the-block for early elementary students. Savannah, GA, schools use the historic residential district to teach youngsters about the European roots of the city's design and culture, and the overlay of the American experience. In Boston, MA, preservation consultant Joyce Stevens has designed history trails for students of every age on such topics as women's issues, cultural diversity, and architectural history. Preservation organizations want students to develop a sense of civic responsibility for protecting the sites that reflect the community's heritage. **Appreciation and stewardship** follow from knowledge and understanding.

The Architecture in the Schools program sponsored by the American Institute of Architecture emphasizes the importance of the design arts as an organizing principle. This program acknowledges the importance of the historical and cultural elements reflected in historic places, but its larger purpose is to help learners recognize the design elements that contribute to the texture of communities: aesthetics, the environment, technology, economics, history, and culture. Heritage education from an architectural perspective emphasizes "visual literacy" to wake up students to the design features around them, including stylistic and structural features and the use of space and materials. The Center for Understanding the Built Environment (CUBE) in Prairie Village, KS, is a recognized leader in this methodology.

For some groups, heritage education is incorporated into larger environmental planning activities, focusing on a decision-making process that considers the natural and built environments. The American Planning Association is supporting a variety of activities that include heritage education elements. Ramona Mullahey at Historic Hawaii Foundation, for example, has developed a program that "guides youth and adults through a basic understanding and decision-making process that shapes and designs our environment,"[1] by manipulating basic planning concepts such as zoning, growth, and managing change.

During the past few years, practitioners have shifted away from handing finished products to the schools toward involving teachers in designing and developing programs. The fundamental principle of the National Trust's national heritage education effort has been to build a partnership with the education community that linked their goals for educational reform to our goal to protect our nation's historical and cultural environments.

Professional development for teachers and preservationists has emerged as the predominant effort of all the groups promoting the heritage education approach. The Utah Heritage Foundation sponsored a 1992 summer workshop that introduced teachers to architecture and design as organizing concepts for exploring Salt Lake City. Teachers examined how aesthetics, economics, science and technology, the environment, history, and culture influenced why and how Salt Lake City was built. In Charleston, SC, the Low Country school districts and Drayton Hall conducted a three-week summer program during which they visited many of the region's historical and cultural sites, and then worked together to incorporate information from them into various subject areas.

Data compiled by the National Trust on more than 600 local and state heritage education programs reveal some disturbing information. (1) Few of these programs have been adopted by the schools they are meant to serve. (2) The vast majority of programs are for early elementary students only. (3) There is no evidence that identified programs are designed with the integral involvement of teachers. (4) The programs overwhelmingly focus on architecture and the design arts. Fewer than one percent of the programs were designed to teach geography, and few Southern plantations saw their site as an opportunity to teach about cultural diversity. (5) There is virtually no evidence that these heritage education programs have been evaluated for their effectiveness in improving understanding of history and culture.

The National Trust and the National Park Service developed their collaborative Teaching with Historic Places program to build on the strengths of many excellent programs already in place, and to address some of the gaps. First, the program has been designed from the perspective of the school curriculum. We do not push preservation, planning, or some other agenda. Our assumption is that recognition of the significance of places leads to the desire to protect them. Secondly, short, ready-to-use lesson plans and longer curriculum units have been designed to make it easy for teachers to integrate information into their regular instructional program. Thirdly, professional development activities emphasize solid academic grounding in a number of disciplines, current thinking on instructional methodology, and the need to form school-community collaborations.

We hope that the Teaching with Historic Places projects will begin to yield these results: 1) more teachers initiating heritage education projects, and using preservation groups, museum and site interpreters, archeologists, architects and planners as their resource persons; 2) heritage education activities fully integrated into classroom instruction at all grade levels and in many subject areas; and 3) a consistent standard for measuring the strengths and weaknesses of the heritage education method.

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[1] Description of Historic Hawaii's Maintaining a Sense of Place program, *Heritage Education Resource Guide*, National Trust for Historic Preservation, October 20, 1990, p. 73.

Kathleen A. Hunter is the Director of Education Initiatives at the National Trust for Historic Preservation.

*(**History**—continued from page 3)*

National Park Service's Parks as Classrooms program, discussed by interpretive specialist Bob Huggins.

To help teaching with historic places become a standard teaching methodology, the National Register and the National Trust began working with others to develop a curriculum framework that could be used in a variety of ways. Charles White, a professor at George Mason University, explains the experimental framework, and how it is being tested in a course at his university.

The National Register's and National Trust's Teaching with Historic Places is but one of a number of place-based education projects throughout the country. Kay Weeks and Ruthann Knudson write about the education activities of two other National Park Service programs. If you know of an interesting heritage education program, submit an article to the *CRM* editor. We also invite anyone who has used Teaching with Historic Places lessons to write the National Register and tell us how they have worked in your classroom. Also, consider writing your own lesson plan for possible inclusion in the published series.[1]

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[1] To respond, complete and send the response form in this issue; or send either lesson plan evaluations or new lesson plan drafts to Teaching with Historic Places, National Register of Historic Places, Interagency Resources Division, National Park Service, P.O. Box 37127, Washington, DC 20013-7127, Attention: Beth Boland.

Beth Boland is a historian with the National Register of Historic Places, Interagency Resources Division, National Park Service; and the program coordinator for Teaching with Historic Places. She organized this issue of *CRM* and served as guest editor.

The 1952 Quintin Blair House (Park County, WY) is an excellent example of Frank Lloyd Wright's "natural house," which influenced the look of post World War II suburban development. Photo by Richard Collier.

Prominent Places for Historic Places

K-12 Social Studies Curriculum

John J. Patrick

Curriculum reformers of the 1980s and 1990s have emphasized knowledge and skills that **all** students should learn to be equipped for intelligent and fruitful participation in the 21st century world. In 1983, Ernest Boyer and other leaders of curriculum reform called for development of a new core curriculum for schools. Boyer wrote, "A core of common learning is essential. The basic curriculum should be a study of those **consequential** ideas, experiences, and traditions common to all of us."[1]

In 1993, Diane Ravitch and others heralded national standards projects as one means to carry out the continuing calls for a new core curriculum. The mission of these projects is to identify clearly and compellingly what all students need to know and be able to do to become well-educated participants of a vibrant, free society.[2] Three of the National Standards Projects pertain to core subjects of the social studies curriculum: history, geography, and civics.[3]

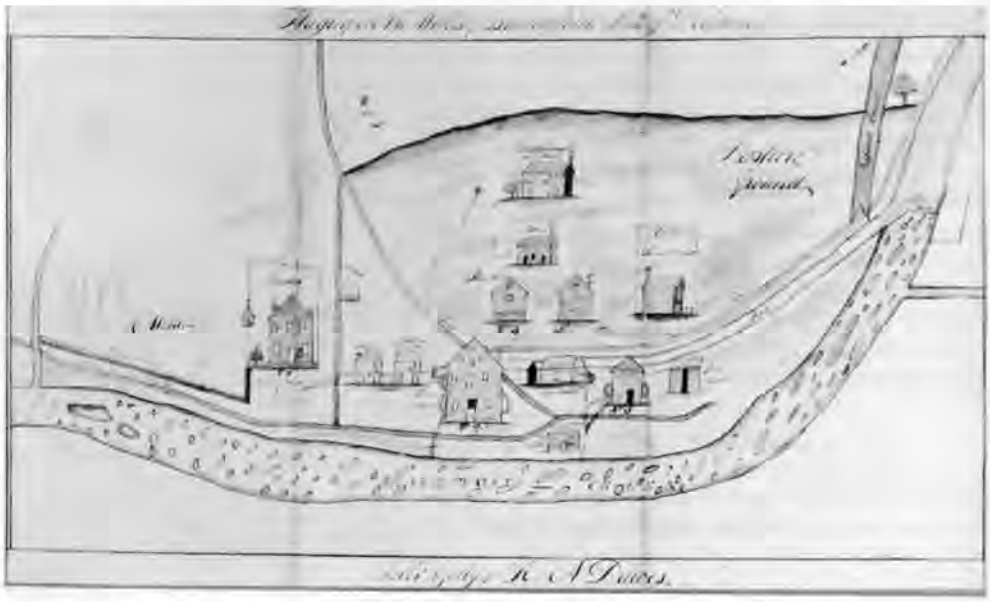
There are prominent places or openings for content about historic places in the emerging social studies core curriculum exemplified by the National Standards Projects. Historic places are tangible forms of our legacy from preceding generations, and, like written primary sources, they embody and reflect the traditions, experiences, ideas, and controversies of our past. The National Register of Historic Places database includes information on a variety of properties in all regions of the country.

The historic places in the National Register can be used by teachers and students as objects of inquiry, in the same way that written primary sources are used in the classrooms of good history teachers. Teachers unable to take students directly to particular sites—because of such barriers as too many miles or too few funds—can use video programs, photographs, or specially developed learning materials about these places. The contents and pedagogy of two sets of instructional materials developed by the National Park Service and the National Trust—the Teaching with Historic Places lesson plans, and the "American Work, American Workplaces" educational kit—fit directly into the priorities of the History Standards Project, which has included historic places in its list of sources of evidence for historical inquiry by students.[4]

Item six in the History Standards Project's list of 15 criteria says, "Standards should include awareness, appreciation for, and the ability to utilize a variety of sources of evidence from which historical knowledge is achieved, including written documents, oral tradition, literature, artifacts, art and music, **historical sites,** photographs, and films."[5] Thus, the National History Standards and school curricula that reflect them include the use of historic places as primary sources for students to interpret, analyze, and evaluate in combination with written documents and other primary sources.

Item 12 in the History Standards Project's list of criteria also pertains directly to the use of historic places: "Standards in U.S. history should utilize regional and local history by exploring specific events and movements through case studies and historical research."[6] The resources of local history and culture certainly are a readily accessible laboratory for studies of culture in the past and present, especially the material culture embodied in historic places. Curricula developed in terms of the History National Standards will include nearby historic places as focal points of investigation. However, lessons on places in local history are flawed if treated in isolation from the larger history and culture of the United States and other parts of the world. The best teaching about places and events of local history connects them to broader events and themes in national and world history.

In addition to fitting the priorities of the History Standards Project, historic places as objects of inquiry also are compatible with the teaching and learning of geography as envisioned by the geography educators of the 1980s and 1990s. Geography educators have formulated five fundamental themes as organizers of content and instructional activities in the school curriculum: location, place, relationships within places, movement, and regions.[7] Teaching and learning about each of these five



A 1797 insurance map shows the Dawes property before it was acquired by du Pont in 1812; the sawmill (center) may still exist as part of another building at Eleutherian Mills (within the Brandywine Powder Mills District), New Castle County, DE. Photo courtesy The Hagley Museum.

geography themes can be greatly enhanced through the use of historic places.

In one illustration, Brandywine Creek near Wilmington, DE, was an important site in the early industrial development of the United States. In 1803, Eleuthere Irenee du Pont built a gunpowder factory along the Brandywine. By 1810, the Eleutherian Mills was America's largest gunpowder factory. Today, it is preserved as a historic landmark, open to the public, and is a source of data relevant to all five geography themes. Students could conduct investigations about (1) the factory's location along Brandywine Creek, (2) its physical and human characteristics during the first decade of the 19th century, (3) the impact of workers on the environment and its impact on them, (4) the movement of people and goods into and out of this place, and (5) the impact of this place on the development of the Mid-Atlantic region of the United States.[8]

The shells of 17 of the original 21 roll mills survive along Brandywine Creek; buildings open to the water and tree density were safety features in case of explosions. Photo courtesy The Hagley Museum.

The use of historic places in teaching fundamental themes of geography indicates the great educational value of closely connecting history and geography in the school curriculum. Key concepts of geography are tied inseparably to major ideas of history, such as time, period, and events. Geography and history in tandem enable learners to understand how events and places have affected each other across time, how people have influenced and been influenced by their environments in different periods of the past.[9]

Historic places clearly can have a large place in the history and geography facets of the emerging K-12 social studies curriculum. They have been prominently recognized in the work of the History Standards Project, and they are compatible with key ideas of the Geography Standards Project. Historic places are valuable primary sources of data to be used in conjunction with primary documents in studies of the past. Historic places can also be used to illuminate fundamental themes of geography. Finally, historic places can become links for builders of curriculum connections between geography and history.

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1 Ernest L. Boyer, *High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America* (New York: Harper & Row, 1983), p. 302.

2 The U.S. Department of Education, in collaboration with major associations of scholars and educators, has launched National Standards Projects in mathematics, science, history, geography, civics, the arts, and English.

3 Information on the three National Standards Projects pertaining to the social studies curriculum can be obtained from: (1) History National Standards Project of the National Center for History in the Schools at UCLA; 231 Moore Hall; 405 Hilgard Avenue; Los Angeles, CA 90024; contact Charlotte Crabtree. (2) Civics National Standards Project of the Center for Civic Education; 5146 Douglas Fir Road; Calabasas, CA 91302; contact Charles Quigley. (3) Geography National Standards Project of the National Council for Geographic Education and the National Geographic Society; 1600 M Street, NW; Washington, DC 20036; contact Anthony de Souza.

4 Charlotte Crabtree, National History Standards Project: Progress Report and Sample Standards (Los Angeles: National Center for History in the Schools, November 1992), pp. 23-24.

5 *Ibid*, p. 23.

6 *Ibid*, p. 24.

7 Joint Committee on Geographic Education, *Guidelines for Geographic Education* (Washington, DC: Association of American Geographers and the National Council for Geographic Education, 1984); the five fundamental themes of geography education have been incorporated into the *Geography Assessment Framework* for the 1994 National Assessment of Educational Progress, and they are being used in the Geography Standards Project.

8 The Agency for Instructional Technology (AIT) has produced a prize-winning instructional video program for use in secondary schools —"The Industrial North"— which highlights the Eleutherian Mills. It is part of a 16-program series, *America Past*, produced in 1987. For information about these video programs, which emphasize historic places, contact AIT, Box A, Bloomington, IN 47402; telephone 800-457-4509.

9 The Agency for Instructional Technology (AIT) has produced a series of 10 video programs, *Geography in U.S. History*, which emphasize historic places. These programs, produced in 1992, have been designed for use in secondary school U.S. history courses. Two of the programs in this series have been awarded prestigious national prizes. For additional information about these programs, contact AIT.

John J. Patrick is a professor of education at Indiana University, where he also serves as Director of the Social Studies Development Center and Director of the ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education.

Notes on Location and Place

Salvatore J. Natoli

At first glance, location and place are not evocative terms. Location, from the Latin *locus* meaning "place," becomes either absolute or relative in geographical usage. Place—variously derived from the middle English/old French "open space," Latin "broad street," Greek "broad" or "flat," and the Spanish "plaza"—becomes invested with all manner of characteristics. Yet "place" is a useful term in geography, and much more evocative than the general public's picture of the essence of geography—place name location.

The chief mathematical components of location are latitude and longitude, the intersection of which gives us a precise location in degrees, minutes, and seconds. As map projections of the earth's surface, they permit us to see **absolute locations,** which are indispensable for developing exact navigational systems: missiles can be programmed to hit targets at these mathematical coordinates, satellite imagery gives measurements of earth phenomena, and airlines and steamships require precise coordinates for plotting their routes. Absolute location is a global address. In contrast, we frequently personalize **relative location:** "Where were you born?" "In Reading, Pennsylvania. It is in southeastern Pennsylvania, on the Schuylkill River, midway between Philadelphia and Harrisburg." We do not say 40.20° N. lat., 75.55° W. long. Relative location always provides a reference point to other points, introduces environmental characteristics, and provides some measures of distance and direction.

One of the *Oxford English Dictionary* definitions of "place" is "a particular part of space, of defined or undefined extent, but of definite situation, sometimes applied to a region or part of the earth's surface." Two parts of this definition are crucial to geographers: the distinction between defined and undefined space, and the requirement for a definite situation. According to the *Guidelines for Geographic Education: Elementary and Secondary Schools* (Joint Committee on Geographic Education 1984, 4-5), "place" refers to the physical and human environmental characteristics that describe an area on the earth's surface. It is an introductory descriptive term that sets up a series of identifying characteristics or clues. For example, a book on the Scott and Amundsen south polar expeditions is titled, *The Last Place on Earth* (Huntford 1979).

J. Nicholas Entrikin (1991) stated, "Place presents itself to us as a condition of human experience. As agents in the world we are always 'in place,' much as we are always 'in culture.' For this reason our relations to place or culture become elements in the construction of our individual and collective identities." An entire genre of literature demonstrates the meaning of place in one's perceived life experiences. Countless novels set moods and define experiences that are closely influenced by places. John Steinbeck's *Tortilla Flat*, James Michener's numerous novels, Garrison Keillor's *Lake Wobegon Days*, and Emily Bronte's *Wuthering Heights* are but a few examples. Novelists such as William Faulkner, Reynolds Price, Willa Cather, and Flannery O'Connor have profoundly influenced our images of certain places.

Fred Lukerman (1964, 167-172) identifies at least six constituent values of places: location, ensemble (integration of nature and culture), uniqueness (within an interconnected framework), localized focusing power, emergence (within a historical-cultural sequence of change), and meaning. Thus, we can define a place as a specific site or situation with a particular set of distinguishing human and natural characteristics—different from, but related to, other places; distinctive for attracting a variety of human activities; stamped by a specific history, but continually changing; and having real meaning as a result of these aspects and characteristics.

Author Flannery O'Connor wrote one novel and collections of short stories between 1951 and 1964 at Andalusia, the 547-acre family farm near Midgeville (Baldwin County), GA. The farm and its rural landscape had a pronounced influence on her work. Photo by James R. Lockhart.

Lukerman omits methods for delimiting places, objective measurements, attention to scale, and all but the most ambiguous means of generalization. What we do find is considerable subjectivity. Because values are difficult to measure, careful, deliberate, and detailed observations are integral to developing formal concepts of the region, and essential for demonstrating landscape elements to compare and contrast with other places.

Jakle, Brunn, and Roseman (1976) state that people are stereotyped by the kinds of places where they live, and places also become stereotyped by the kinds of people found in them. Thus, persons entering a place for the first time search for cues with which to assign meaning to a place. Prior knowledge of a place might interfere with an objective appraisal by clouding or masking cues, but

stereotypes also provide useful frames of reference that we can modify by careful observation.

Perception has been an important research avenue in geography for more than two decades. Perception depends on more than the stimulus present and the capabilities of the sense organs. It varies also with the individual's past experience and present attitude acting through values, needs, memories, moods, social circumstances, and expectations. Measuring perception is problematical because people have difficulty in articulating their conscious and unconscious feelings, or ideas associated with perception. In many cases perception must be inferred from behavior or from other indirect sources (Saarinen 1976, 6-8).

Places can instruct us. John Brinkerhoff Jackson's writings on the vernacular landscape illustrate how we can read and understand current and past lives and activities from the revealed landscape. His work considers the problem of aesthetics, especially when townspeople may overlook the real advantages of the local environment and destroy the very vitality they hope to create by a more pleasurable visual landscape (Jackson 1970, 14-9; Jackson 1984).

In the tradition of erecting public statues and memorials to arouse civic pride in an area's history and accomplishments, the city of Seattle (King County), WA, dedicated "Seattle, Chief of the Suquamish" on Founder's Day, 1912. The great, great granddaughter of Chief Sealth (Seattle), for whom the city was named, unveiled the statue.

Various clues signal the history and development of a place. European and Asian cities portray vividly not only historical periods but levels of development that add complexity and even charm. American historical consciousness recently has led to wholesale reconstruction or salvaging of our heritage: Society Hill in Philadelphia, the Faneuil Hall area in Boston, Colonial Williamsburg. Even newer cities such as Seattle, Portland, and San Diego now recognize the need to conserve part of their past. The Teaching with Historic Places series in *Social Education* attaches special significance to ordinary places in our historical heritage.

By careful observation we can identify age differences among places. Some of the newer towns in the American West have a temporary or even unfinished look, and the proportion of new buildings to old is high. Contrast the modernity of Tokyo, obliterated by bombers during World War II, with the historical temples of Kyoto, which was spared. Kevin Lynch in his classic work, *What Time is This Place?* (1976) noted: "Places and events can be designed to enlarge our sense of the present, either by their own vivid characters or as they heighten our perception of the contained activity—setting off the people in a parade, an audience, or a market."

Julian Wolpert (1965, 159-169) defined "place utility," another facet of place perception, as a composite measure of the attractiveness or unattractiveness of an alternative location as perceived by a decision-maker. A function of levels of information, learning, and search activity, place utility is generally used to analyze migration decisions.

Places are building blocks for geographical knowledge; providers of experience in making sense of the landscape; stages for events; and reminders that humans require space to live, work, play, and prosper. People create and imprint places according to their distinctive knowledge, levels of technology, historical development, and even whimsy. Places are involved in important decisions, both personal and corporate. Places embody all of the themes and narratives of geography and the vital themes of history.

Think of the city, town, settlement, or farm where you were born or where you now live. How complete, comprehensive, or accurate a picture can you paint for those who have never lived there? Will their perceptions and experiences allow them to imagine it in some way similar to what it is or how you see it? How have your perceptions of this place changed over time? Another interesting activity is to draw a mental map of your hometown or area and then write about it as an article for a foreign-language magazine. When we attempt to convey the theme and concept of place to others, we are drawing upon their rich lode of experiences and testing their powers of observation and description.

When one can come to know and understand one's place, with all its history, variety, and complexity, and how that place may have shaped one's life and experiences, one might come to know and appreciate the importance of these creations to all people.[1]

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[1] This article is excerpted from a longer paper given at two Teaching with Historic Places workshops for National Park Service and National Trust educators in September 1992. For a copy of the complete paper, write to the author at the National Council for the Social Studies, 3501 Newark St., NW, Washington, DC 20016.

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Creating Lesson Plans for Teaching with Historic Places

Fay Metcalf

As a consultant to Teaching with Historic Places, my mission was to create lesson plans, using real historic places, that would not only be useful to teachers, but used by them. Part of the challenge was to infuse the lesson plans with some of the same aura possessed by the places themselves—that appeal that arouses the interest and curiosity necessary for real learning. For we realized that most of the teachers and students for whom the lessons would be applicable would never visit these sites. In addition, lessons would have to be flexible enough to fit comfortably into different school systems and curricula across the country.

As created, lessons consist of several sections: Introduction, Objectives, Teaching Activities (Setting the Stage, Locating the Site, Determining the Facts, Some Visual Evidence, Putting It all Together, and Vocabulary, if needed), and Visiting the Site. We hope that a standard format will make it easy for educators to develop their own lessons.[1]

Several general considerations guide the overall concept and evolution of each lesson plan. Most importantly, each is based on a real place or places significant in America's past. While a lesson may use more than one site to make its point, each must have a specific focus; that is, a lesson will not include everything about a place that is interesting, but only that which will yield a better understanding of the central theme. Both the historic place selected and the focus of the lesson about that property should amplify or present a different slant to the information in standard textbooks. Lessons may compare or contrast topics with textbook coverage, add more detail, provide another example, or tell the story from a different perspective.

All lessons must present an authentic view of the past. Lessons should involve a variety of social sciences and humanities, but place history—the most commonly taught subject in the schools—at the center. For ease of use, all lessons should be relatively short and "self-contained"; that is, they must include all information necessary to answer questions, with the exception of outside research required as part of some student activities.

The **Introduction** serves as a "grabber" to help teachers realize that this is something both interesting and useful for students to study. Unless you create an enticing and empathetic sense of a historic place—which can be done with language that evokes emotions and engages the senses—you may lose an important opportunity. After all, if the teacher isn't interested, the lesson plan will never reach the students. This section also provides extra information to read to students as is, or to explain at an appropriate point in the lesson.

Once the teacher's curiosity is piqued, it is important to follow through by explaining how this lesson will teach elements in the established curriculum, suggesting teaching units in which the lesson could be used, and indicating the skills and knowledge to be learned from the material. The introduction also makes clear that the lesson is based on an existing place listed in the National Register of Historic Places, and uses National Register documentation.[2] It establishes the place itself as the starting point for the lesson plan and the center to which the lesson continually returns.

Objectives for Students state measurable goals that students should be able to attain from the lesson plan. Use active, concrete verbs, such as "describe," "compare," "list," "explain," or "analyze," which specify how the students can demonstrate what they have learned; rather than "understand," "appreciate," or similar words that are hard to measure.

In **Setting the Stage,** the teacher provides students the brief general background information they will need to understand the later, more specific, readings and activities. The teacher is free to use whatever method of presentation is most comfortable and effective.

Locating the Site helps students identify the location of the place, both as a point on a map, and in relation to political boundaries (states, towns), topographic features (mountains, rivers), environmental and climatic zones (deserts, forests), transportation routes (railroads, roads), or other locational characteristics selected for their direct relevance to the lesson plan. Exercises help students extract information from the maps and data provided.

Determining the Facts is the longest section, consisting of two or three student readings, on which questions and discussions are based. Although designed as handouts for students, these readings also provide information for the teachers without assuming a lack of knowledge. National Register files include documentation that often may be used directly, or which may be combined with other information to create readings. Whenever possible, readings should include primary sources, such as letters, transcripts of trials, ledgers, contracts, diary entries, or contemporary newspaper accounts. National, state, or local park documents, published local histories, and information from state and local historical societies may

Why would someone build a gas station like the Teapot Dome Service Station (in Zillah, Yakima County, WA) in 1922? Photo by Leonard Garfield.

be other good sources of materials. Questions and exercises guide students in drawing out pertinent facts.

Neither teachers nor students commonly are taught how to study and interpret photographs and graphic materials as historical documents. **Some Visual Evidence** provides some practice. A wide variety of media is available—historical photos, historical or contemporary maps, advertisements, newspaper coverage, diagrams of industrial or engineering processes, political cartoons, posters—use your imagination! Captions usually will accompany visual materials, but sometimes it is most effective to withhold identification until after some discussion.

This sauna (ca. 1910), is one of the buildings in the John G. Johnson (Ritakangas) Homestead, Long Valley Finnish Structures, Long Valley (Valley County), ID. What do the construction, age, function, and environment of this building tell us about the life and culture of the residents? Photo by Alice Koskella.

Putting It All Together leads students beyond the facts to higher-order thinking skills. This is where analysis, comparison, inquiry, interpretation, generalization, and recognizing cause-and-effect relationships take place. The section starts with a short paragraph summarizing the over-all purpose of the lesson plan and what is to be accomplished by the activities, followed by three to five student activities that relate to the objectives.

Activities should involve as much variety as possible: writing research-based reports, drawing, creating diagrams or dioramas, writing letters, conducting newspaper interviews, or using a team approach to solve a problem or unravel a mystery. Role-playing can be effective, but should be used cautiously, as it can lead to historical inaccuracy. Include at least one activity that focuses students' attention on their own community, one that relates to participatory citizenship, and one that has students work in groups; these may overlap. Students and teachers alike are most likely to follow suggestions for further reading that are included in an activity rather than those listed in a bibliography.

Unfamiliar **Vocabulary** words are best integrated into lesson readings and discussions, but in some cases—as when there are a lot of technical or foreign language terms—a separate vocabulary section may be appropriate. Teachers may explain the terms or assign students to look up the words on their own.

The last section in the Teaching with Historic Places lesson plan is **Visiting the Site.** While lesson plans assume that most classes cannot visit, some schools may be located within a reasonable distance of a lesson plan's subject property. Also, students interested in a particular place may encourage their families to visit. Therefore, lesson plans include brief information on location, visiting hours, and other pertinent data, when known.

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[1] For an example, see the *CRM* insert, "Knife River: Early Village Life on the Plains." The "Student Handouts" were renamed "Readings" in later lesson plans.

[2] Teachers are encouraged to create and use lesson plans on any historic place, whether or not it is listed in the National Register. We emphasize National Register properties because the research on these places already has been conducted, and the documentation is readily available. Lesson plans on unregistered places might include as one of the activities researching and documenting the property for inclusion in the National Register.

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The Johnstown Inclined Railway, Cambria County, PA, was built after the 1889 Johnstown Flood as an escape route to high ground. Would it have had other practical uses? Photo courtesy Pennsylvania Historic Sites and Landmarks.

Being Selective: Documents and Lesson Plans

Marilyn Harper

Documents play a central role in the lesson plan format developed by educator Fay Metcalf for Teaching with Historic Places. Written and visual materials, designed as handouts and used in conjunction with activities and questions, provide the information students need to attain the objectives of the lesson plans. Readings provide the background students need to understand the historic place and the lesson based on it. Maps locate the place and relate it to its surroundings while also teaching geography skills. Current photographs record the concrete presence of real places. Historic photographs contribute a sense of the small details of the past while strengthening observation and analytical skills. Historic travel accounts, newspaper articles, diary entries, advertisements, inventories, and other primary documents enable students to envision relationships between people and places in the past, and to compare them with those of the late 20th century.

Imaginative teachers long have appreciated the value of using real places in teaching, but may have been discouraged by the amount of time-consuming and often frustrating research that seemed to be necessary. Teaching with Historic Places lesson plans demonstrate that the more than 60,000 National Register of Historic Places property files can provide a shortcut.

Each National Register file contains a registration form with narrative sections describing the property and analyzing its historical significance. Each file also includes a bibliography, maps, and black and white photographs. Historic photographs and copies of primary documents may be included also. In many files, the amount of historical research is impressive and the range of materials extensive and imaginative.

The documentation on the World War II Attu Battlefield in Alaska, was adapted to a Teaching with Historic Places lesson plan virtually unchanged. The historical background section was abridged as a reading to enable students to understand the historic events that occurred at this barren and remote site. The photos, both recent and historic, were clear and dramatic. Maps from the file were used, but were redrawn for publication to clarify the military action of the battle. This lesson plan will appear in *Social Education* in the spring of 1993.

Excerpts from documentation in "multiple property submissions" (MPSs) to the National Register—covering the history and development of an area, or of thematically related groups of resources—also can be used as readings. MPS "context statements" give general background for properties nominated for their significance within that historic context. The Georgetown (SC) Rice Culture MPS, for example, provided information for a lesson plan based on three plantations. Historic contexts in MPS documents also can provide information for understanding related properties not included in the MPS. Information on the organization of rice plantations might be compared with plantations growing different crops in other parts of the country, for example; or the information on the early history of Georgetown County could provide the context for a house in a local town.

Sometimes documentation from several property files can be combined. In the lesson plan for the Johnstown Flood, in Johnstown, PA, the registration form and the visitor's guide for the Johnstown Flood National Memorial provided the specific information on the flood itself. Material on the industrial development of the town came from National Historic Landmark files for the Cambria Iron Works. A current photograph, dramatically illustrating the location of the city in a tightly constricted river valley, came from the file for the Johnstown Inclined Railway. Teachers can use the computerized National Register Information System to obtain lists of properties related geographically or thematically.

The photographs included in all nominations not only show what a historic place looks like now, but can help students understand the relationship between the place and important historical themes and events. The photographs of Lead, in the remote Black Hills area of South Dakota, show small worker's houses clustered around

The rice barn and threshing mill at Mansfield Plantation, SC, were common features of Georgetown County rice plantations. Photo by Wyndell Peacock.

A ca. 1925 street scene reveals aspects of life and culture in Ybor City, Tampa (Hillsborough County), FL. Photo by Caesar Gonzmart.

the huge structures of the Homestake gold mine, dramatically illustrating the town's dependence on the mine. Although nominations are not required to include historic photographs, many of them do. Details, such as the signs, electric power lines, and clothing shown in the historic photograph of Ybor City, FL, can stimulate both observation and imagination.

Nomination files may contain other materials usable as documents in lesson plans. The 1948 decision in *Shelley v. Kraemer*, published in the *Supreme Court Reporter*, was included in the nomination file for the Shelley House, St. Louis, MO, and highlights the constitutional issues raised in the landmark case that banned enforcement of restrictive housing covenants. The schematic view of the Steelton plant in Pennsylvania shown in a Sanborn fire insurance map of 1875 clarifies complex technological interrelationships that are important in understanding America's Industrial Revolution, but which are difficult to illustrate with words alone.

In many cases, teachers will have to supplement National Register documentation to achieve lesson plan objectives. For properties listed during the early years of the National Register program, for instance, the narratives often are sketchy and the background research limited in scope. Bibliographies, included in all nominations, sometimes can help. Also, the State Historic Preservation Offices (SHPOs) that submitted the nominations sometimes can provide additional or updated information. Materials in SHPO files—which may not have been submitted to the National Register—may include survey reports, newspaper clippings, color slides, or other useful items. The teacher's own background, training, or interests may suggest connections, too. For example, the Teaching with Historic Places lesson plan on log cabins in Idaho asked students to draw a comparison with Laura Ingalls Wilder's *Little House on the Prairie*.

Ultimately, the documents to be included in a lesson plan will depend on the focus and objectives selected. These will dictate what is needed to tell the full story. Finding the right document, the one that will make the required subjects of the social studies curriculum come alive, can be one of the most exciting parts of teaching with historic places.

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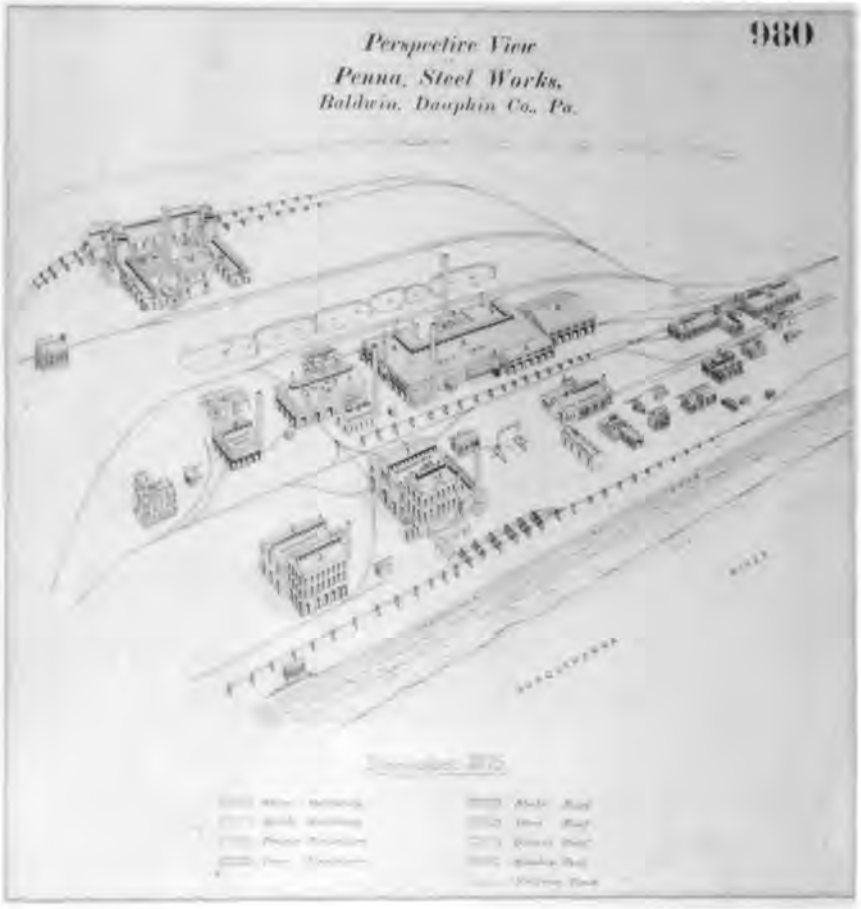

An 1875 diagram of the Pennsylvania Steel Company's plant at Steelton was included in the documentation for the "Iron and Steel Resources of Pennsylvania, 1716—1945" MPS. Sanborn Map Company, NY.

Parks as Classrooms to Date

Just Scratching the Surface

Bob Huggins

Since January 1990, when the National Park Education Task Force met in San Francisco, the National Parks as Classrooms program has seen an unprecedented ground-swell of support and recognition. Never before has an "initiative" found so much consistent endorsement, not only from the National Park Service (NPS) and its direct supporters, but from the President, the Congress, the Secretary of the Interior, and most importantly—the public.

Where did the National Park Service "go right?" The most important component is found in its employees. No other group of individuals, with the exception of school teachers, has the pride, dedication, and desire to share their wealth of knowledge with people of all ages.

Another element of success can be attributed to the 1990 recommendation of the National Park Education Task Force, which was primarily made up of field people who were then, or had been, directly involved in developing NPS education programs. Task Force members were charged with reviewing past "successes and failures" of NPS education programs, establishing the present level of programming, and recommending the Service's future direction.

The Task Force found that most "failures" of the Environmental Education Program of the 1970s could be attributed to:

- The use of the word "environmental," which tended to exclude cultural and historic sites from educational funding while "forcing" those areas into doing Environmental Education programs.
- The development of "generic" curriculum at the Washington level which often did not fit local curriculum.
- The sudden shift in funding priorities from Environmental Education to the Bicentennial in 1975-76.

Their recommendations included:

- That cultural and natural areas be given equal emphasis, thereby not excluding any site from participating in the education program.
- That program development should be delegated to the park level and that the parks should be encouraged to develop partnerships with their local schools in designing curriculum based programs.
- That a formal training course be designed—and **fully funded** by the Washington Office—to address educational program development, in recognition that park employees often do not have experience in curriculum formulation.

Task Force members also found that important audiences had been overlooked in the past: youth at risk, inner-city schools, boys' and girls' clubs, and financially-depressed rural schools. They recommended an effort to identify special audiences and include them in the NPS education outreach programs. They encouraged parks that had established successful programs to become "Mentor Parks" to areas that were struggling to develop programs of similar themes. They saw the need to develop cooperative agreements with universities to develop Cooperative Park Education Units (CPEUs) where a Park Service education specialist could sit on the faculty and work with fellow faculty members and parks in developing special education projects.

Most importantly, they emphasized the need to have additional funding to support the Parks as Classrooms project. One team member summed up this need by saying: "We just can't ask the parks to `do more with less' any more."

In fiscal year (FY) 1991 Congress recognized Parks as Classrooms by appropriating $780,000 to the program. In FY92 the amount stayed the same. Even though the funding level did not come close to meeting all of the needs of the program or recommendations of the task force, it had tremendous impact at the field level. Eighty-two "grass roots" education projects were funded, ranging from video tapes dealing with ethnic diversity and resource interpretation, to curriculum based teacher guides, to an employee literacy program.

A soldier of Company A, 10th Cavalry, Fort Concho Museum, San Angelo, TX, presents a program to children at the Museum of Westward Expansion, Jefferson Expansion National Memorial, St. Louis, MO. Photo by Al Bilger.

Creativity and imagination blossomed overnight. Traveling trunks for schools were developed, the Servicewide "Developing NPS Education Programs"

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Teacher Training for Teaching with Historic Places

Charles S. White

The National Trust for Historic Preservation (NTHP) and the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP), with funding from the National Park Service, have focused considerable attention over the last year on effective ways to develop a teacher-training curriculum as part of their Teaching with Historic Places program. Discussions with educators and members of the preservation community have yielded several ideas that have guided our work:

- **Strong ties to existing and emerging curriculum mandates.** The content and skills of a Teaching with Historic Places curriculum will be adopted only to the extent that they help teachers achieve curriculum goals mandated by state and local education agencies.
- **Consistency with reform movements.** Proposed curricula and training must mesh with emerging national curriculum standards and should focus on higher-order thinking and "learning how to learn" across traditional disciplines. Teacher training efforts must encourage partnerships among schools, universities, community agencies, and businesses.
- **Collaborative and hands-on training.** Members of the education and preservation communities should be brought together to learn each other's language and to create a shared language about teaching with historic places in order to forge effective long-range partnerships. While doing so, teachers must be engaged directly with the historical resources they will be introducing to their students. This will mean using the full range of historical and cultural documents (both two- and three-dimensional) at their disposal.
- **Model-Using and Model-Building.** Few techniques are more effective than using models to demonstrate, analyze, and apply. Fortunately, there are numerous outstanding programs around the country from which powerful curriculum and teacher-training models can be drawn.

We are currently applying these ideas in two concurrent efforts: to construct a curriculum framework for teaching with historic places; and to test aspects of our evolving framework in a graduate-level university course.

Curriculum Framework

With the invaluable help of Peter O'Connell of Old Sturbridge Village, Tim Crimmins of Georgia State University's Heritage Preservation Program, and educator Fay Metcalf we are crafting a curriculum framework which has three main goals: (1) to summarize the knowledge base and skill requirements for learning from historic places, (2) to identify effective strategies for implementing the curricula, and (3) to identify issues to consider when using the framework in a variety of contexts. We also want the framework to serve as an orienting document that speaks to both educators and preservationists. The tentative organization of the framework reflects these overall goals.

Content. What can be learned from historic places? This question is guiding our exploration of historical and social science evidence one can glean from historic places, as well as the range of less tangible understandings and appreciations that one can derive from "place." We are examining the variety of intellectual skills students and teachers need in order to learn from and teach about historic places. Finally, we are identifying linkages between Teaching with Historic Places knowledge and skills and the school curriculum.

Implementation. The wealth of cultural and historical resources around us often lies undiscovered, unless we know where to look. In this section of the framework, we suggest where to look for, and how to select, historic places and related resources that support the school curriculum. Instructional strategies that place a premium on higher-order thinking and historical inquiry can be brought to bear on those resources, and some of these strategies will be described in the framework.

Using the Framework. We want the framework to provide support for a wide range of curriculum development, including lesson and unit materials for use with students as well as workshops and courses for teachers and members of the preservation community. Here we address issues of school-community collaboration, workshop development, opportunities for

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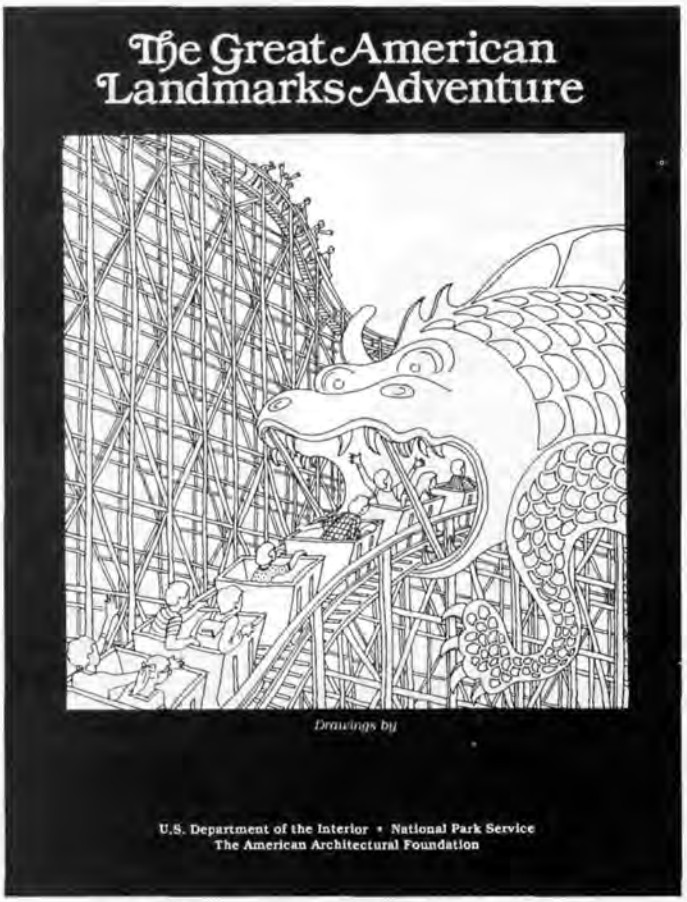
The author directs students' attention during a field study of the Clarendon area of Arlington, VA: How does this building convey information about the community' history? Photo by Beth Boland.

Anatomy of a Book
The Great American Landmarks Adventure

Kay Weeks

Over 2,000 National Historic Landmarks serve as invaluable resources for studying our nation's people and events. These special places show that what we've done in the past can be linked to what we're doing now and will probably continue to do, in one form or another, in the future. In 1988, I began developing an idea for using these places in a book for children. From that first thought to publication in 1992 was an adventure all its own. My idea was to create a book using time travel to raise public awareness of National Historic Landmarks (NHLs), and get children to think about themselves as both keepers and creators of America's history. Increased awareness, in turn, could spur increased technical and financial assistance for deteriorated and neglected NHLs. What better place to start than with children?

The educational concept from the outset was to show historic places and events as the antecedents of aspects of contemporary culture—communications, journey and discovery, commerce, literature, music, and other areas. One of the questions that helped determine the 43 Landmarks that were included in the book was "What have Americans thought or done in the past that shape the lives of children today?" Places that reflect the human needs to leave signs and develop societal structures, invent weapons, devise modes of transportation, make and distribute commercial products, build engineering wonders, and create a unique American music (jazz) represent part of the answer.



The cover of *The Great American Landmarks Adventure* features a drawing of Playland Amusement Park, Rye (Westchester County), NY. Drawing by Roxie Munro.

We wanted to include the broadest possible range of resources and people, and present them chronologically within some overall story line. Thus, the adventure in time begins with a pre-historic cave painting, then moves forward chronologically, ending with America's 1969 rocket to the moon. Throughout, the contributions of America's diverse peoples are emphasized. Drawings based on photos seemed more fitting for children than photographs themselves. The book would need to be attractive to kids and families in general, useful for teachers of U.S. history (grades 4 to 8), and potentially marketable as a tour guide for national and international travelers. The purchase price would be kept as low as possible.

Several self-imposed rules helped ensure consistency. Each Landmark had to be extant and, to the greatest extent possible, shown as it exists today. Each Landmark had to be issue-laden enough to become a basis for discussing current events; the Teacher's Guide is designed to stimulate discussion of the present in terms of the past. An inclusive approach acknowledging a broad range of human behaviors was adopted; thus, there are neutral and even negative stories represented. I wanted each child to become involved in invention or discovery, to become the traveler; thus, there is a heading for each page to reinforce this idea, such as, "We left our names on a rock during westward journeys" or "We looked toward the stars." Although all of the Landmarks are extant, not every reader can visit them; thus, the book is an armchair trip into the past. Finally, because children can have fun while learning, the educational book would also serve as a coloring book and feature high-quality line art.

When I heard the Consumer Information Center, General Services Administration (GSA), had a program that linked federal agency concepts to corporate funding, I took my incipient time-travel idea to GSA liaison Pat Bonner. She was enthusiastic about the overall concept and immediately contacted several groups, among them The American Architectural Foundation (AAF). The Foundation liked it too and provided funds and an apparatus to hire an artist for the book. A small committee unanimously selected award-winning children's book illustrator, Roxie Munro, and the rest is—history.

A particularly important contribution to the book was Ray Rhinehart's suggestion to reinforce the notion of environmental stewardship by including a blank page at the end of the book on which children can add their own drawing; the idea is that children can look around their own communities for extant examples of history, and begin thinking about landmarks of the future. In summa-

*(**Book**—continued on page 20)*

Archeological Public Education Programs

Ruthann Knudson

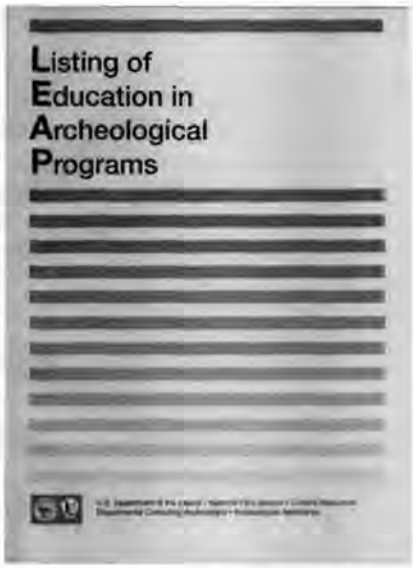
Kids and adults are attracted to archeology—the excitement of finding in the dirt a tool made thousands of years ago, or the intrigue of explaining a child's porcelain tea set left in the ruins of a frontier homestead cabin.

Excitement, fascination, and mystery are hooks for teaching mathematics, geography, reading, writing, history, economics, art, chemistry, physics, geology, and other subjects. Archeology involves relics and footprints from the prehistoric and historic past that are submerged under water, buried in the ground, or on top of the ground surface—the secrets of the past. Archeology usually isn't a formal subject taught in the grade schools, but has provided a wealth of information to be used throughout a subject-centered, fused, core, or activity curriculum to teach comprehension, analysis, and synthesis skills.

One of the Archeological Assistance Division's bookmarks displays a sample of rock art, which can be found in numerous American states.

The National Park Service Archeological Assistance Program (AAP) is charged with providing leadership and coordination for the federal archeology program (McManamon et al. 1989). An important task under that charge is to facilitate the use of the federal program's information, artifacts, and sites to support public education, which in turn supports resource conservation. The AAP thus serves as an important information broker between the archeologists and resource managers and the educators and students of our country.

The AAP coordinates the federal archeological Public Awareness Working Group (PAWG), which includes representatives of over 20 agencies that have some archeological protection and public education responsibilities. One of the first PAWG projects was the creation and distribution of a series of bookmarks with illustrations of archeological artifacts and a message to protect and preserve archeological resources. Over three million of these have been distributed around the United States; and Alaska, Louisiana, Maryland, and Virginia have used these as a model for their own protection message. Another major PAWG project was a brochure titled *Participate in Archeology*, published in 1992, 75,000 of which are now being distributed throughout the country. Several publications summarize what has been learned about archeology in forma! education and provide lists of curricula or case studies (e.g., Educational Resource Forum 1991, Rogge and Bell 1989, Smith and McManamon 1991).



In 1987, with PAWG's impetus, the AAP established the Listing of Education in Archeological Programs (LEAP) clearinghouse (Knoll 1991) for information about posters, brochures, exhibits, public participation or school education programs, broadcasts, press articles, popular publications, or community outreach that increased public education about archeology. Once information was added to an electronic database, data on 1987-1989 (Knoll 1990) and 1990-1991 (Knoll 1992) activities were published in book formats, which have been widely distributed. The LEAP clearinghouse continues to solicit information on archeological public education from anyone involved in such activities, and is currently evaluating its audience and format (hard copy vs. electronic network).

Several professional and avocational archeological organizations have active public education or awareness programs, and the AAP supports opportunities for those organizations to communicate with federal archeologists and resource managers, educators, and the general public. The AAP provides support for the Intersociety Archaeology and Education Work Group, including the exhibition of its *Education Resource Forum* (1991) of teaching materials. At the recent annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, the AAP exhibited Federal archeological public awareness materials, sponsored the *Education Resource Forum* exhibit, and sponsored a panel discussion on the use of archeological materials in social science teaching, in which eight archeological organizations participated.

Archeology weeks are celebrated in at least 17 states, most of them with significant support from federal agencies. Public awareness activities, including formal classroom activities, are usually a part of such celebrations.

*(**Archeological**—continued on page 24)*

(*Classrooms—continued from page 16*)

course trained over 100 employees, parks with like themes joined together to develop cooperative education projects, and—in a sense of true creative conviction—some parks that received no special funding "did more with less" by going ahead with their projects.

For a while, the FY93 budget appeared to meet the basic program needs as well as recommendation of the task force. But in the final hours of Congress the proposed budget was cut to base funding. Yet even with a less than perfect funding base, there is still a lot of excitement, support and conviction for the NPS education programs. Most of the parks' cooperating associations have gone beyond "the extra mile" to support park education programs. The National Park Foundation (NPF) has provided more than $300,000 in grants and recently received a $1 million grant from The Pew Charitable Trusts for the Parks as Classrooms project.

Other exciting projects include a new video titled "Parks as Classrooms," produced by the NPS Harpers Ferry Center. Available to educators and for employee training, it beautifully portrays the learning opportunities found within the national park system.

We continue to work with Charles Schulz and have—in cooperation with the NPF—recently finished the second poster/brochure featuring the *Peanuts* characters, titled: "Snoopy Presents Parks as Classrooms." We also hope to produce an animated video (TV special) titled "What Did You Do This Summer Charlie Brown?" featuring the national park system and all of its diversity.

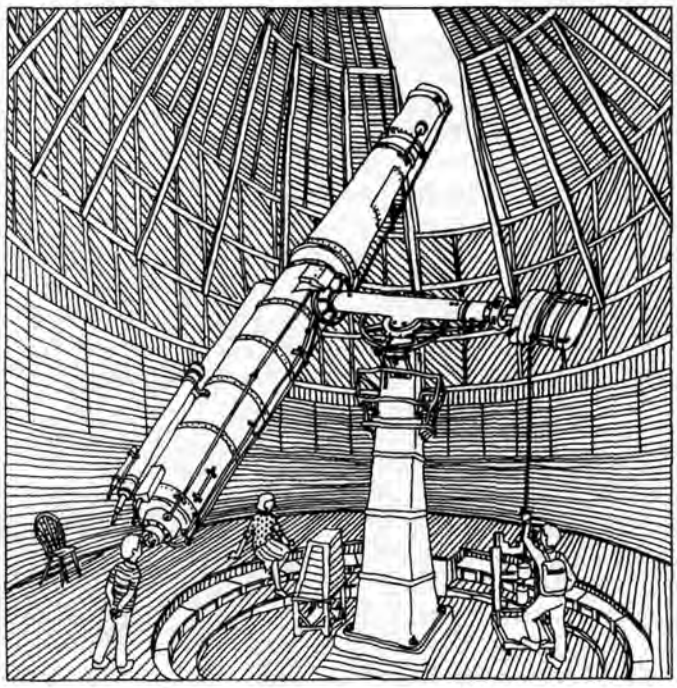
The National Park Service has seen a lot of growth in the past three years and we have a lot to show for it. We should all be proud but not complacent. We have only scratched the surface of possibilities and haven't even begun to mine the vast opportunities in education that lay beneath that surface.

Bob Huggins is an interpretive specialist for natural and urban areas, Division of Interpretation, National Park Service.

NPS Education Task Force

Bob Huggins, Chairperson (Washington Office)
Martha Aikens (Mather Employee Development Center, Harpers Ferry, WV; now at Independence National Historical Park, PA)
Glen Clark (Alaska Regional Office)
Sandy Dayhoff (Everglades National Park, FL)
Cquvator (Q) Gatson (Lake Mead National Recreation Area, NV; now at Cabrillo National Monument, CA)
Julia Holmaas (Harpers Ferry Center, WV)
Kathleen Hunter (National Trust for Historic Preservation)
Marti Leister (Golden Gate National Recreation Area, CA)
George Price (Lowell National Historical Park, MA)
Holly Robinson (NPS Advisory Board)
Kathy Tevyaw (Lowell NHP; now at North Atlantic Regional Office)
Sandra Weber (Washington Office)

(*Book—continued from page 18*)



Lowell Observatory, Flagstaff (Coconino County), AZ. Drawing by Roxie Munro.

ry, the team of people who worked on this project agreed that the book should engage readers both visually and intellectually. As the book is sold or distributed for pilot educational projects across the county, we'll see how well we did.[1]

Several pilot projects are already underway to test *The Great American Landmark Adventure*. In February, in conjunction with the Smithsonian, the Octagon House, and the American Institute of Architects, Joshua Taylor—an education specialist with the Arlington County (VA) school system—used the book and teachers guide to lead a discussion of present and future landmarks. In March, the first international use will occur when the book is used in San Francisco by a group of Japanese junior high school students visiting the United States to enhance an existing English language curriculum. The *Adventure* book also will be used in the Department of the Interior's mentoring program with the schools in the District of Columbia.

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[1] *The Great American Landmark Adventure* may be ordered from the Government Printing Office for $3.25 a copy; the teachers guide is free with orders of 20 or more. For more information, contact Kay Weeks, Preservation Assistance Division, National Park Service, P.O. Box 37127, Washington, DC 20013-7127.

Kay Weeks is a technical writer and editor in the Preservation Assistance Division, National Park Service.

RESPONSE FORM

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*(**Location**—continued from page 11)*

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Salvatore J. Natoli, a geographer, is Director of Publications and editor of *Social Education* for the National Council for the Social Studies.

Once the tallest building in Honolulu, the 1925 Aloha Tower symbolizes the importance of both sea transportation and tourism in Hawaii's history. Photo by Gary T. Cummins

*(**Training**—continued from page 17)*

interdisciplinary study, and support for curriculum change in schools. We also intend to present several models that illustrate how the aspects of the framework might be implemented in a lesson plan for students, in a workshop for teachers and preservationists, and in a university course for a similar audience.

Work on the curriculum framework is in its early stages, and we look forward to thoughtful input from a wide range of advisers. As the framework evolves, though, we are testing some of the ideas in a pilot university course at George Mason University (GMU) in Fairfax, VA.

University Course

In the spring of 1993, GMU's Graduate School of Education is offering a three-credit graduate course titled "Teaching with Historic Places" in cooperation with the NTHP and NRHP. Drawing on the historical and cultural resources of the region, as well as the talents of NTHP and NRHP personnel, the course has assembled classroom teachers and members of the preservation and museum communities to explore together the knowledge, skills, and instructional possibilities of historic places. Four field studies, bracketed by careful preparation and extensive debriefing, apply concepts and skills to a range of places: a house museum, a historic district, and a contemporary community in transition to "our town." Model lesson plans and the draft curriculum framework serve as guides for the collaborative development of curriculum materials that will culminate the course.

Conclusion

We expect the pilot course to illuminate both the strengths and the shortcomings of the curriculum framework. Other workshops, advisory meetings, and conference presentations also will shape revisions to the framework and refinements in our approach to and plans for teacher training. The success of these and other efforts to bring historic places into the classroom may well determine whether our children will claim their full historical and cultural inheritance.

Charles S. White is associate professor in the Graduate School of Education at George Mason University, Fairfax, VA.

(*Archeological—continued from page 19*)

The AAP has promoted statewide and local archeology weeks for several years through announcements and reports in its newsletter, *Federal Archeology Report;* a case study on the nationally recognized Arizona Archaeology Week (Hoffman and Lerner 1988); and direct involvement. The AAP currently is collecting systematic information on archeology weeks in this country and overseas (Greengrass n.d.). An AAP-sponsored symposium at the 1991 Plains Anthropological Conference focused on state archeological education programs (Butler 1992), and the report from that meeting provides information for initiating comparable programs in other states and provinces.

The use of archeological information, artifacts, and environmental samples, and the sites themselves, can be a powerful formal or informal education tool. Increased understanding of archeological heritage resources helps federal agencies fulfill their responsibilities as trustees of these public remnants of the human past.

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Cultural Resources
Washington, DC

Teaching with Historic Places:

A series of lesson plans produced by the National Park Service and the National Trust for Historic Preservation

Knife River: Early Village Life on the Plains

BY FAY METCALF

High on a bluff overlooking the Knife River in the Upper Missouri River Valley, soft winds ruffle the lush grasses that cover, but do not obscure, circle upon circle of raised earth with central depressions that mark all that remains of a once lively, noisy village. In the late 18th century, while European colonists were fighting a revolution with England in the eastern part of the continent, these villagers were conducting their centuries-old trade with remote tribal groups; fashioning weapons needed to hunt the big game that shared the rolling hills; tending their gardens of squash, pumpkin, beans, sunflowers, corn, and tobacco; and carrying on all the other occupations of daily life. From the ceremonial plaza—a spot of land that was once the center of village activities—one can look to the northward hills and see trails left from the travois used by hunters and traders.

Looking downward toward the slow-moving river, partly obscured by the cottonwood and willow trees that line the river banks, one can easily imagine groups felling trees to be hauled up the hill and prepared as support beams for new or reconstructed earthlodges. One can almost hear children splashing in the river's cool waters, swimming and playing about in the round bull boats that were used to cross the river.

It is possible to imagine such scenes, because we know what to look for. The writings and illustrations of Euro-American visitors to the villages during the late 18th and early 19th centuries provide a historical record of Plains Indians that is unparalleled in its abundance of information, detail, and diversity of sources. Recent archeological studies have added rich information about the site that goes back at least 3500 years.

This lesson about Plains Indian life is based on National Register of Historic Places nomination files and other source materials about the Knife River Indian villages. Materials for students include (1) student handouts compiled from contemporary writings by Euro-Americans about the villages, (2) maps of the region with notes, and (3) early American paintings of the villages and the people living there. The lesson could be used in teaching units on pre-Columbian North America or the westward movement in 18th- and 19th-century American history. Students will learn to distinguish between primary and secondary sources of information and will strengthen their skills of observation, analysis, and interpretation related to history, geography, the social sciences, and the arts.

Objectives for the Students

- To describe the village life of the Hidatsa and Mandan groups during the peak of their culture in the early 19th century and to explain how the villagers both shaped their environment and adapted to it.

- To compare information about these seasonally nomadic Plains villagers with the more popularized film and textbook history of nomadic horse-culture Indians such as the Lakota and Cheyenne.
- To use archeological and historical data to understand the daily life of the villagers during particular time periods.
- To examine various sources of information relating to a particular historic site.
- To discover which American Indian groups once lived in the students' own region and to explore how these local groups were both alike and different from the Hidatsa and Mandan peoples.

Setting the Stage

The approximately 1,700-acre Knife River Indian Villages National Historic Site is the only unit of the National Park Service that was created primarily to commemorate the history and prehistory of the Plains Indians. The site is not so grand at first encounter as the Mesa Verde, Colorado, cliff dwellings or the "serpent" mounds of the Hopewell culture near what is now Cincinnati. But because it explains so much about early life on the Plains, the Knife River villages complex is of keen interest. The Indians to be studied in this lesson—the Hidatsa, Mandan, and Arikara—may have lived in the region from about 1300 to 1845.

From 1976 to 1983, archeologist Dr. Stanley Ahler of the University of North Dakota directed excavations at Knife River sites. By piecing together the story from the remains of earthlodges, 150,000 pottery shards, and 8,400 stone tools from some 50 sites, Dr. Ahler constructed what he believes to be an unbroken record of 500 years of human habitation. Even this period represents but a fraction of the time people have lived in the region. The site preserves the record of at least 3,500 years, representing a transition from the villagers' reliance on seasonal hunting and gathering of wild vegetable foods to their reliance on hunting supplemented by gardening. Both early and later peoples were traders—middlemen in a widespread exchange of goods.

Historians are equally interested in this site. Detailed written sources and hundreds of paintings and sketches made by Euro-American visitors describe the villages from 1738 through the mid-1840s when the Indian groups, decimated by small pox and other Euro-American diseases, abandoned the site.

Teaching Activities

Locating the Site

Provide the students with copies of the attached maps to complete the following exercises:

- Using Map Exhibit 1, locate the Knife River Indian Villages National Historic Site in North Dakota, and then examine the detail map showing the villages. Note that the Knife River is a tributary of the Missouri River, a water route early Euro-Americans hoped could lead them to the Pacific Ocean. The Missouri also provided a transportation system for both Indian and Euro-American trappers and traders. Use the map scale to compute the distance from each village to the others.
- Examine the plan of Big Hidatsa Village. What might this suggest about the relationship between and within the groups?
- Examine Map Exhibit 2, which shows trading relationships in both prehistoric and historic times. Note the prominent place the Knife River region held in both time periods. List the trade items, noting their potential uses. (Discuss the students' lists.)
- Read Notes to the Maps. (The notes will provide additional information and answer some of the students' questions.)
- Determine the trading partners of the Hidatsa and Mandan during historic times. Place a check mark beside the names of Indian nations you know. Check the index of an American history textbook to see how many of these groups are mentioned.
- On the map showing the trading relationships of the Mandan and Hidatsa Indians, dotted lines mark the boundaries of what would later be known as the Prairie and Great Plains states. Label these states.

Determining the Facts

Village Life on the Knife River

Student Handout 1 provides a short but comprehensive overview of the way the villagers lived from about 1740 to 1845, when fur traders, the Lewis and Clark expedition, and other Euro-Americans visited the site. Have the students read the handout and answer the following questions:

- What natural conditions of the Upper Missouri River Valley did the village Indians use to their advantage?
- These villagers had a governmental structure quite different from those we know today. What elements of their political system fostered a well-ordered society?
- The handout states that sex roles were clearly defined. What evidence is presented?
- The villagers were a preliterate society, meaning they did not have a written language. Since the villagers did not teach their children from textbooks, how did they educate them?
- How did the villagers make their living?
- The battle and the hunt are both described in one paragraph. Were these really so similar that, according to the rules of good writing, the two topics can be combined in this way? Explain.
- How did the spirits guide the villagers? How does the religion of the Knife River villagers compare with other religions you have studied?

Western Contact

Have the students read Student Handout 2 and answer the following questions:

- Why would being a center of trade lead to a high degree of "cultural sophistication and affluence"? If you do not know the meaning of these words in this context, try to puzzle them out by looking up each word in a dictionary. If the terms are still unclear, reread Student Handout 1 and consider the villagers' complex way of life.
- Why did the Hidatsa and Mandan receive many Euro-American visitors? How did the villagers treat their guests?
- List the visitors mentioned in the handout. What were their motives for traveling to the Knife River area?
- How did these visitors change the Hidatsa and Mandan way of life? What happened in later years to the tribes and their allies, the Arikara?

Visual Evidence

With the students, examine the photograph showing the aerial view of Big Hidatsa Village, explaining that what appear to be circular depressions represent the location of earthlodges. Have the students note the location of the Knife River and modern fields and farm buildings. Then ask them the following questions:

- Is there evidence that the circular depressions were once more extensive than what can be seen in this photograph?
- Why did American Indians of many centuries ago and Euro-American settlers of the late 19th century consider this a good site for farming? (In spite of the harsh climate, there is alluvial soil, available water from the river, and reasonably flat land for planting.)
- Can you imagine earthlodges resting on the rims of what are now depressions?

Now show the students the reproductions of the George Catlin paintings, *Hidatsa Village, Earth Covered Lodges, on the Knife River*, and *Bird's-Eye View of the Mandan Village*. Both provide a sense of the density of the people and lodges and show some everyday activities.

Earthlodges, which were 30 to 60 feet in diameter and 10 to 15 feet high, each housed an extended family of up to 20 people along with the family's most valuable horses. The size of an earthlodge is not too different from that of the average classroom. By using a middle figure—45 feet in diameter—the students can calculate the square footage contained in an average earthlodge. Have them measure the square footage of their classroom and compare this with the area of the earthlodge. Ask the students to list those items necessary to daily life that would need to fit into the earthlodge, and have them place the items inside. Then give the students copies of the diagram of an earthlodge interior, showing a typical arrangement. Students may be surprised by the space allotted to horses: the best hunting and war horses were stabled indoors for protection from the weather and theft.

Explain to the students that while the villagers spent a good deal of time outdoors in mild weather, the climate was harsh, with recorded winter temperatures often as low as forty-five degrees below zero. In winter the people often moved to temporary lodges built among the trees beside the Knife River, where they were protected from the winter winds and had easy access to firewood and water. Show the students the reproduction of the Karl Bodmer painting *Winter Village of the Minatarres* [Hidatsa], and have them compare it with the two Catlin paintings.

Putting It All Together

Three of the most striking cultural aspects of the Hidatsa and Mandan tribes were (1) their practice of living in large villages with houses set close together, (2) their skill as architects and builders, and (3) the richness of their culture, due in part to their role as middlemen in a widespread trading network and their control of an important product—Knife River flint—which was valued for the quality of tools and weapons it produced. Have the students draw generalizations about how the villagers lived in the 1830s when Catlin and Bodmer painted these scenes.

Creating a Matrix

Ask the students to reexamine the reproductions of the Catlin and Bodmer paintings. This time they should look closely, reading the paintings as they would a book, from left to right and from top to bottom. Instruct the students to go over the paintings several times, each time attempting to pick up new details. They should break the paintings into smaller components, by grids, or by looking at the background first, then the foreground, next, groups of objects or people, individual items, portions of the human body, and so on. The students then work in pairs to complete the following exercises:

- Make lists of items such as the number of earthlodges, the number of people performing certain activities, the types of actions depicted, and the types of clothing, weapons, tools, and sports equipment shown. Classify the data in a matrix using as many categories as needed. The following sample is a useful guide for getting started:

	no. of earthlodges	no. of people	clothing	weapons	tools	sports equipment
Hidatsa						
Mandan						
Winter homes						

- After comparing matrices with classmates, the students should make additional generalizations about the paintings. One might observe, for example, that the villagers seem to enjoy and excel at sports based on the number of swimmers shown and their apparent enjoyment and by the depiction of villagers playing a game (a hoop-and-spear game known as tchung-kee). Summarize the evidence in the paintings, and discuss the image of the Hidatsa and Mandan Indians as portrayed by Catlin and Bodmer.
- Draw further conclusions about how the villagers lived by going beyond the evidence of the paintings and including information from the handouts and Notes to the Maps. Write a brief paper on the life of the Knife River villagers during the 18th and 19th centuries, using all available information. (This exercise will show the students how written information [history] and evidence from the site itself [archeology] both contribute to an understanding of a people and their environment.)

Researching Local Indians

Have the students compare what they have learned in this lesson with materials in an American history textbook that use sites such as prehistoric cliff dwellings or mound cultures to illustrate early life in the Americas. Ask them to outline differences and similarities. Next, instruct the students to research the Indians who lived in their region. Were they more like cliff dwellers than Hidatsa villagers? Were they engaged in early trade? How do their houses, clothing, and other items compare with those of the Knife River villagers? If possible, take the students to visit a local museum that displays prehistoric artifacts from their region. If this can be arranged, have the students construct a matrix of cultural items as they did for the Knife River Indians. Back in class, have the students compare the matrices and then draw conclusions about why the cultures might differ (the environment, available resources, proximity to oceans, and proximity to other tribes, for example).

Making Comparisons

Ask the students to examine an American history textbook account of the Plains Indians, noting similarities and differences

between the Knife River villagers and tribes such as the Sioux and the Cheyenne (all these groups are considered Plains Indians). The Hidatsa, Mandan, and Arikara obtained horses along with the other Plains groups in the mid-1700s. Why didn't the villagers adopt the typical American Indian horse culture? Most of the other groups had also been farmers at one time, but they gave up their farms to lead a more nomadic existence. What characteristics of the Knife River villagers might account for their continued occupation of the village sites? Divide the students into two groups, with one group representing the migratory Plains Indians and the other representing the villagers. Have each group list why theirs is the best way of life, and then ask a representative from each to present these arguments. Ask the class to vote on which group's presentation was the most effective in content and reasoning.

Vocabulary

EARTHLODGE
A circular earth-covered wooden house or public building, which usually has its entire interior area dug out to one foot below the ground surface. The outside edge of the excavated area has a ring of poles set into it, forming a wall. Four central roof support posts with rafters across them form a square. Poles are leaned against the rafter square from the top of the pole wall and across the rafter square, leaving only a central smoke hole. Brush is placed over the wooden frame on all sides, and the entire structure is covered with earth. The lodge is entered by a ladder through the central smoke hole or through a tunnel-like wooden entry passage built into the wall.

PALISADE
A fence of upright logs or poles set on end into the ground for enclosure or defense.

TRAVOIS
A sled-like carrier made of two poles that are dragged on either side of a horse, dog, or person, with a hide or wooden platform between the poles on which a hide tent, household goods, food, or other things are carried.

Further Reading

Students might wish to do further reading about the archeological evidence from the villages and then make reports to the class. A particularly useful work is Stanley A. Ahler, et. al., People of the Willows (Grand Forks: University of North Dakota Press, 1991). Some interesting topics for other reports include construction of earthlodges in The Earthlodge, a short and inexpensive pamphlet published by the Theodore Roosevelt Nature and History Association and available from the Superintendent, Knife River Indian Villages National Historic Site, RR #1, Box 168, Stanton, N.D. 58571; and the Okipa, a four-day ceremony reenacting the Mandan creation story, and at the same time a coming of age experience which is described in George Catlin's Letters and Notes on the Manners, Customs, and Conditions of North American Indians, vol. 1 (New York: Dover Publications, 1973). Useful sources for other topics include Thomas and Karen Ronnenfeldt, eds., People of the First Man: Life Among the Plains Indians in Their Final Days of Glory (New York: E. P. Dutton, 1976); The Way to Independence, Memories of a Hidatsa Indian Family, 1840-1920 (Minnesota Historical Society), which brings the story of these people closer to the present; and Gilbert L. Wilson, Waheenee: An Indian Girl's Story Told By Herself to Gilbert L. Wilson (Bismark, N.D.: State Historical Society, 1981).

Visiting the Site

The Knife River Indian Villages National Historic Site is administered by the National Park Service. The area is located 60 miles north of Bismark, North Dakota, and can be reached via U.S. Highway 200A. For more information, contact the Superintendent, Knife River Indian Villages National Historic Site, P.O. Box 9, Stanton, North Dakota 58571.

NOTES

Elements of this lesson are drawn from Robert U. Akeret, Photoanalysis (New York: Peter H. Wyden, 1973) and Martin Sandler, Teachers' Guide: In Search of America (Lexington, Mass.: Ginn and Co., 1975).

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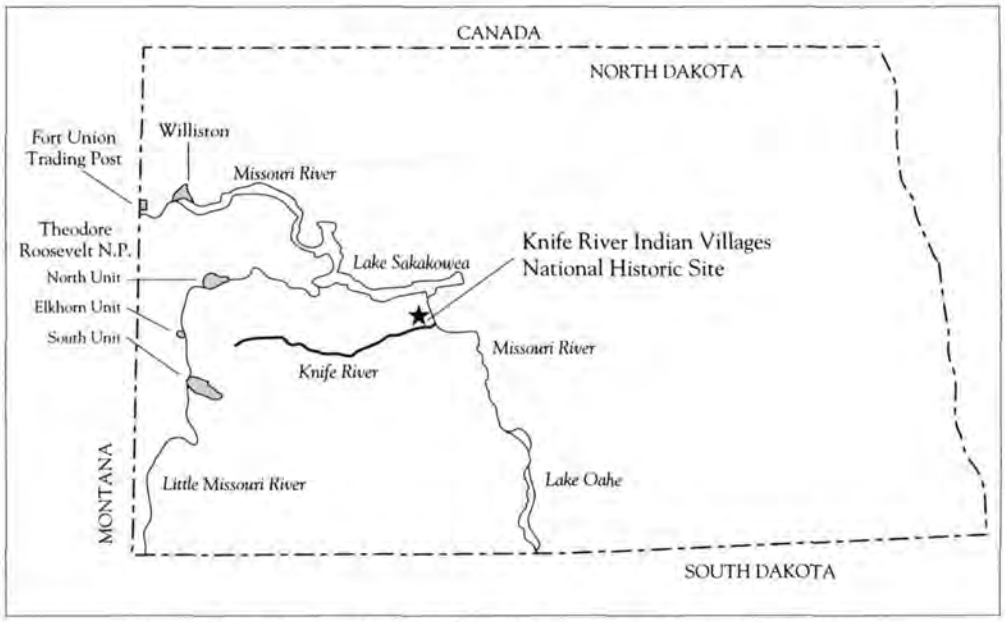
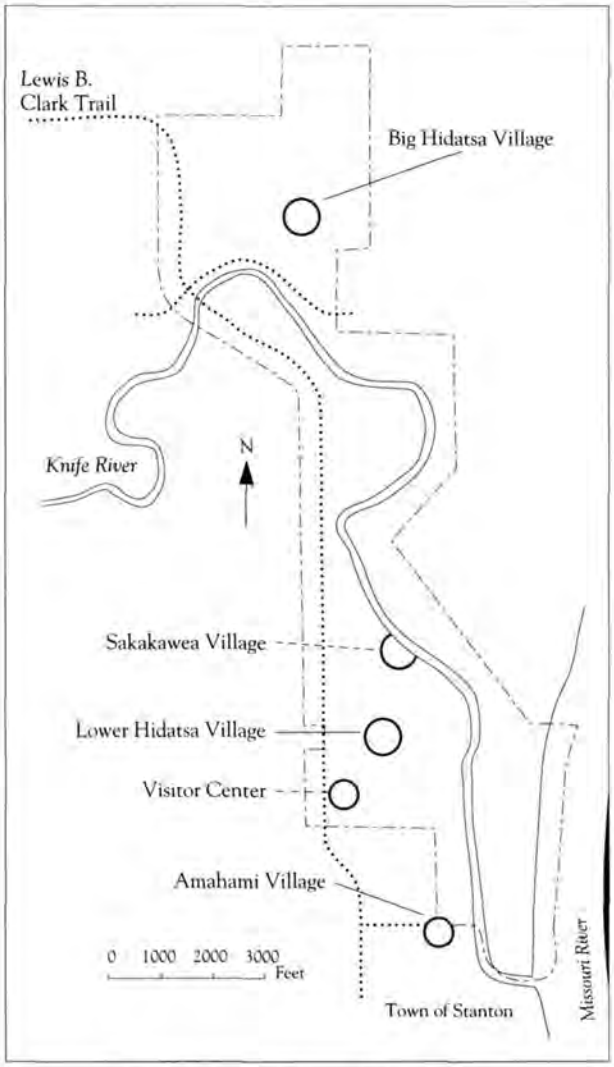
Map Exhibit 1

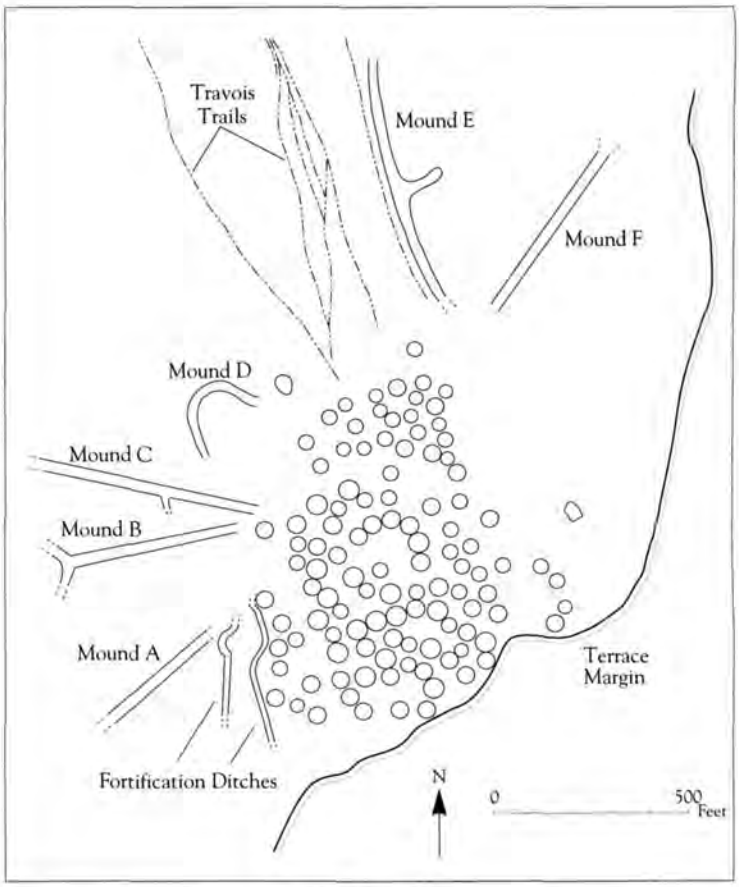
All maps were adapted from Stanley A. Ahler, Thomas D. Thiessen, and Michael K. Trimble, *People of the Willows: The Prehistory and Early History of the Hidatsa Indians* (Grand Forks: University of North Dakota Press, 1991).



Regional map showing the Knife River Indian Villages National Historic Site

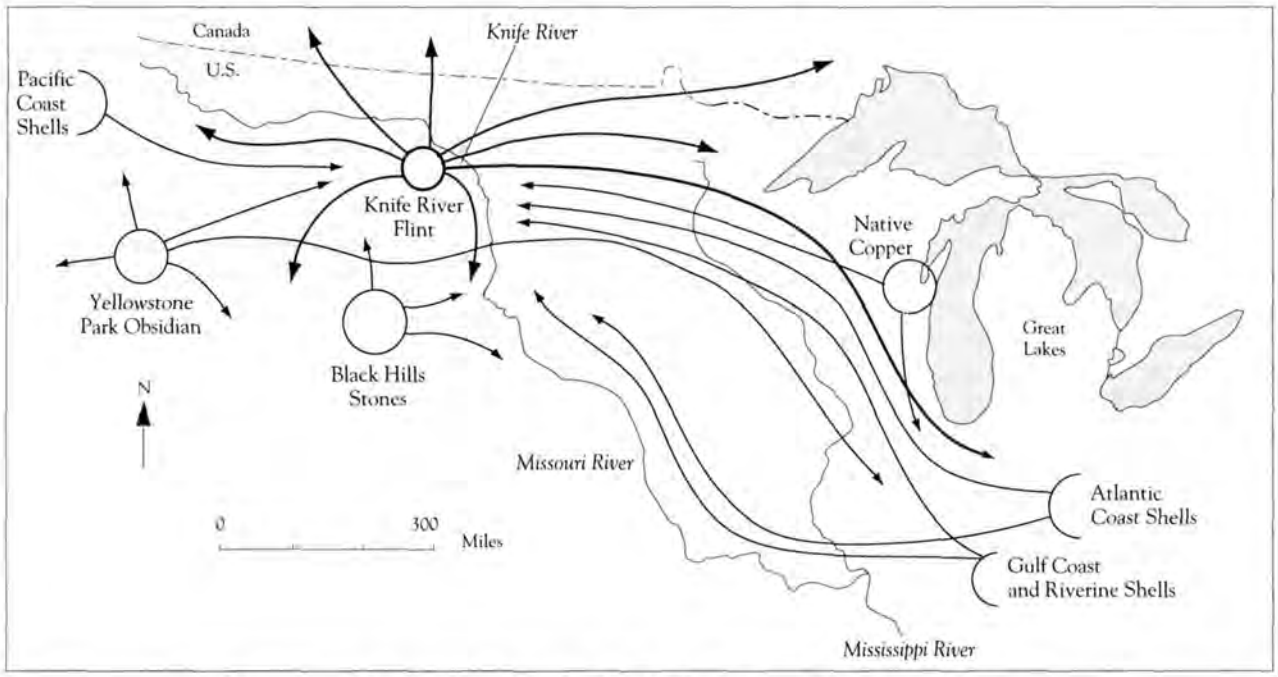


Detail of the Knife River Indian Villages National Historic Site

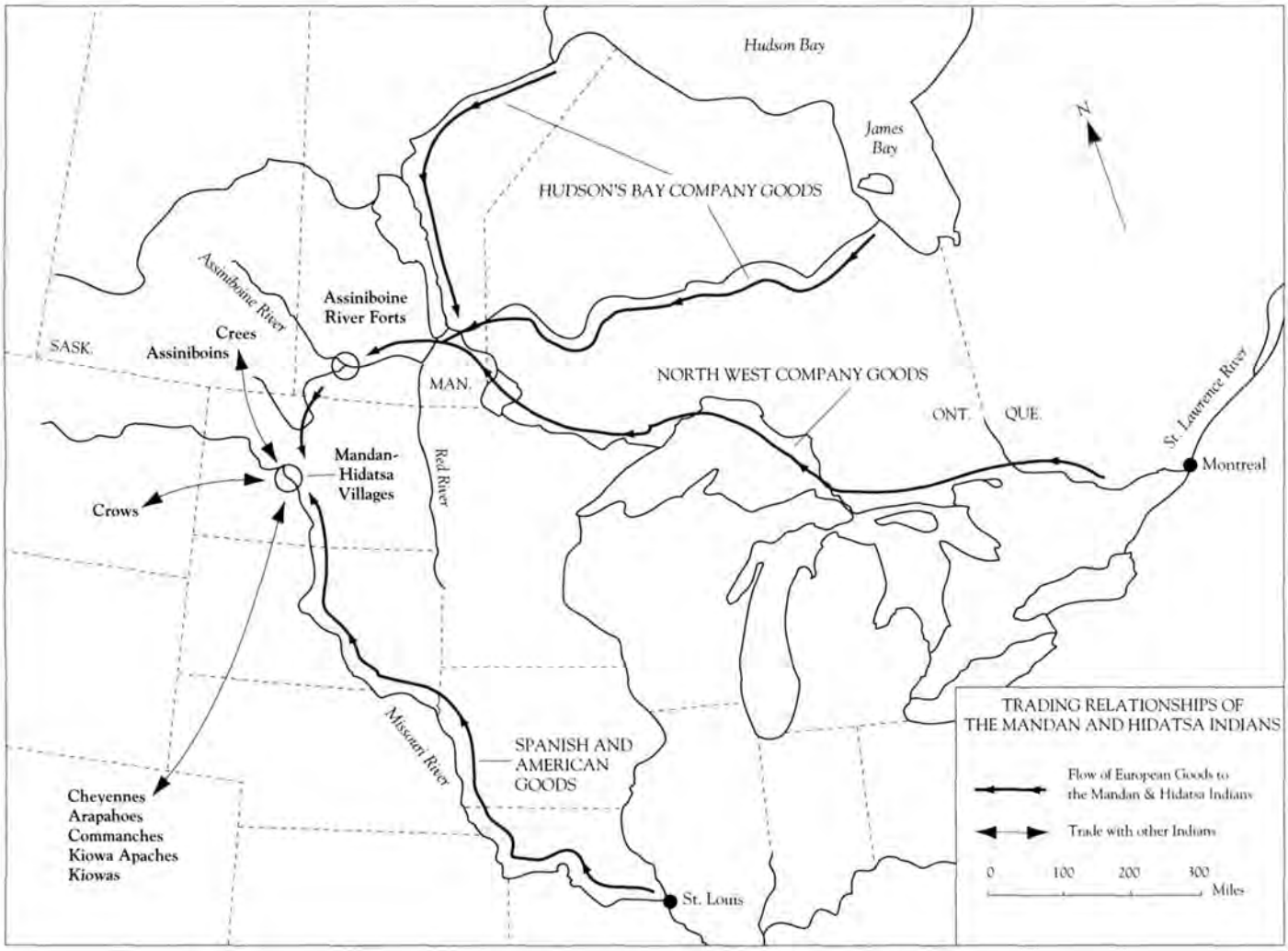


Big Hidatsa Village.

Map Exhibit 2



Movement of durable materials within the Northern Plains prehistoric trading system.



Trading relationships of the Mandan and Hidatsa Indians, c. 1800.

Notes to the Maps

Knife River Settlements

In the 18th and early 19th centuries, what is now the Knife River Indian Villages National Historic Site Archeological District was a relatively urban settlement with three large villages: the smallest included 6 acres with 47 houses, the largest 16 acres with 113 houses, each house being from 45 to 50 feet in diameter. Well-traveled horse trails traversed the villages, which had cache pits for storage and were fortified against enemy attacks. Cemeteries were situated on elevated promontories near each village.

Trade at Knife River

The commodities traded in prehistoric times between Indian groups were mostly garden produce, hides, meat, and other perishable items of the hunt. While little evidence of these goods has survived, certain non-perishable artifacts traded into the villages from distant places provide a few clues.

Some of the best evidence for prehistoric trade is found in the stone used to make everyday tools and implements. Knife River flint, which the villagers traded widely, is one such stone of particular importance: it is a dark brown, glassy material which was in great demand for producing durable, sharp-edged implements. Exotic materials, including shells and copper, moved through trade routes to Knife River villages in small quantities, usually in the form of pendants and beads used for personal adornment.

The earliest European visitors observed the villagers to be shrewd traders, exchanging corn, beans, squash, and other horticultural products with their nomadic neighbors for the dressed hides, feathers, lodge covers, and clothing articles of widely dispersed peoples such as the Assiniboin, Plains Cree, Crow, Cheyenne, Arapaho, Kiowa, Kiowa-Apache, and Comanche. Their experience within this trading network prepared the Hidatsa and Mandan to be discerning traders with the Europeans.

The earliest contacts were not with Europeans themselves, but with European products. These were obtained through a network of other Indians who were trading furs directly with the French and other Europeans at forts and contact points along the eastern border of the continent. Glass beads and iron fragments dating from 1600–1650, found at the Big Hidatsa and Lower Hidatsa villages, are evidence of this early trade at Knife River.

Direct contact with Europeans began in 1738 when Assiniboin "middlemen" led Frenchmen from Canada to the region. Soon British and Canadian traders began to filter into the region for the prized beaver pelts and for the skins of wolf, fox, and otter. The Knife River villages also became known as a trading post for high quality horses that would be exchanged for guns and ammunition. In this manner, the Hidatsa and Mandan obtained considerable affluence and power among the Northern Plains tribes.

These notes were compiled from Stanley A. Ahler, Thomas D. Thiessen, and Michael K. Trimble, *People of the Willows: The Prehistory and Early History of the Hidatsa Indians* (Grand Forks: University of North Dakota Press, 1991) and from an interagency memorandum sent by Ruthann Knudson, archeologist, Archeological Assistance Division, National Park Service, to Marilyn Harper, historian, National Register Branch, Interagency Resources Division, September 19, 1991.

Student Handout 1: Village Life in the Upper Missouri River Valley (c. 1740-1845)

A Way Of Life

The Mandan, Hidatsa, and Arikara tribes shared a culture superbly adapted to the conditions of the Upper Missouri River Valley. Their summer villages, located on natural terraces above the river, were ordered communities with as many as 120 earthlodges, each sheltering an extended family of 10 to 30 people from the region's extreme temperatures. These summer villages were strategically located for defense, often on a narrow bluff with water on two sides and a palisade on the third. In winter the inhabitants moved into smaller lodges along the bottomlands, where trees provided firewood and protection from the cold wind.

In this village society, men lived in the household of their wives, bringing only their clothes, horses, and weapons. Women built, owned, and maintained the lodges and owned the gardens, gardening tools, food, dogs, and horses. Related lodge families from numerous villages made up clans, whose members were expected to help and guide each other but who were forbidden to marry other clan members. Clans were competitive, especially in war, but it was the age-grade societies, transcending village and clan, that were looked to for personal prestige. Young men purchased membership in the lowest society at 12 or 13 years of age, progressing to higher and more expensive levels as they reached the proper age. Besides serving as warrior bands, each group was responsible for a social function: policing the village, scouting, or planning the hunt. Most important, the age-grade societies were a means of social control, setting standards of behavior and transmitting tribal lore and custom.

The roles of the sexes were strictly defined. Men spent their time seeking spiritual knowledge, hunting, and horse raiding—all difficult and dangerous but relatively infrequent undertakings. Women performed virtually all the routine work: gardening, preparing food, maintaining the lodges, and, until the tribes obtained horses, carrying burdens. The lives of these people were not totally devoted to subsistence, however. They made time for play. Honored storytellers passed on oral traditions and moral lessons, focusing on traditional tribal values of respect, humility, and strength. The open area in the center of each village was often given over to dancing and to ritual, which bonded the members of the tribe and reaffirmed their place in the world.

The Village Economy

Agriculture was the economic foundation of the Knife River people, who harvested much of their food from rich flood-plain gardens. The land, which was controlled by women, passed through the female line, and the number of women who could work determined the size of each family's plot. They raised squash, pumpkin, beans, sunflowers, and, most important, tough, quick-maturing varieties of corn that thrived in the meager rainfall and short growing season of the Knife River area. Summer's first corn was celebrated in the Green Corn ceremony, a lively dance followed by a feast of corn. Berries, roots, and fish supplemented their diet, while upland hunting provided buffalo meat, hides, bones, and sinew.

These proficient farmers traded their surplus produce to nomadic tribes for buffalo hides, deer skins, dried meat, and other items in short supply. At the junction of major trade routes, they became middlemen, dealing in goods within a vast trade network: obsidian from Wyoming, copper from the Great Lakes, shells from the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific Northwest, and, after the 17th century, guns, horses, and metal objects. High quality flint quarried locally found its way to tribes spread over a large part of the continent through this trading system.

The Battle and the Hunt

In this tribal culture, raiding and hunting were the chief occupations of the men. When conflict was imminent, a war chief assumed leadership of the village. Although horses and loot often came from the raids, the conflicts were more important as stages on which warriors could prove themselves. Hunting parties were planned in much the same fashion, with a respected hunter choosing participants and planning the event. Prowess in battle and hunt led to status in the village, both individually and for the hero's society and clan. Ambitious young men would risk leading a party, which was highly rewarding if successful but ruinous to their reputation if not. The primary weapon was the bow and arrow, used along with clubs, tomahawks, lances, shields, and knives. Even more prestigious than wounding or killing an enemy was "counting coup"—touching him in battle. But ambition did not spur every action: warriors often had to defend the village against raids by other tribes. When men prevailed in battle, the women would celebrate with dance and song.

Spirit and Ritual

Spirits guided the events of the material world, and from an early age, tribal members (usually male) sought their help. Fasting in a sacred place, a boy hoped to be visited by a spirit—often in animal form—who would give him power and guide him through life. The nature of the vision reported to his elders determined a man's role within the tribe. If directed by his vision, he would make a great sacrifice to the spirits, spilling his blood in the Okipa ceremony. The Okipa was the most important of a number of ceremonies performed by Mandan clans and age-grade societies to ensure good crops, successful hunts, and victory in battle. Ceremonies could be conducted only by those with "medicine," which was a bundle of sacred objects associated with tribal mythology purchased from a fellow clan or society member. With bundle ownership came responsibility for knowledge of the songs, stories, prayers, and rituals necessary for spiritual communication. Certain bundle owners were looked upon as respected leaders of the tribe.

Student Handout 2: Western Contact

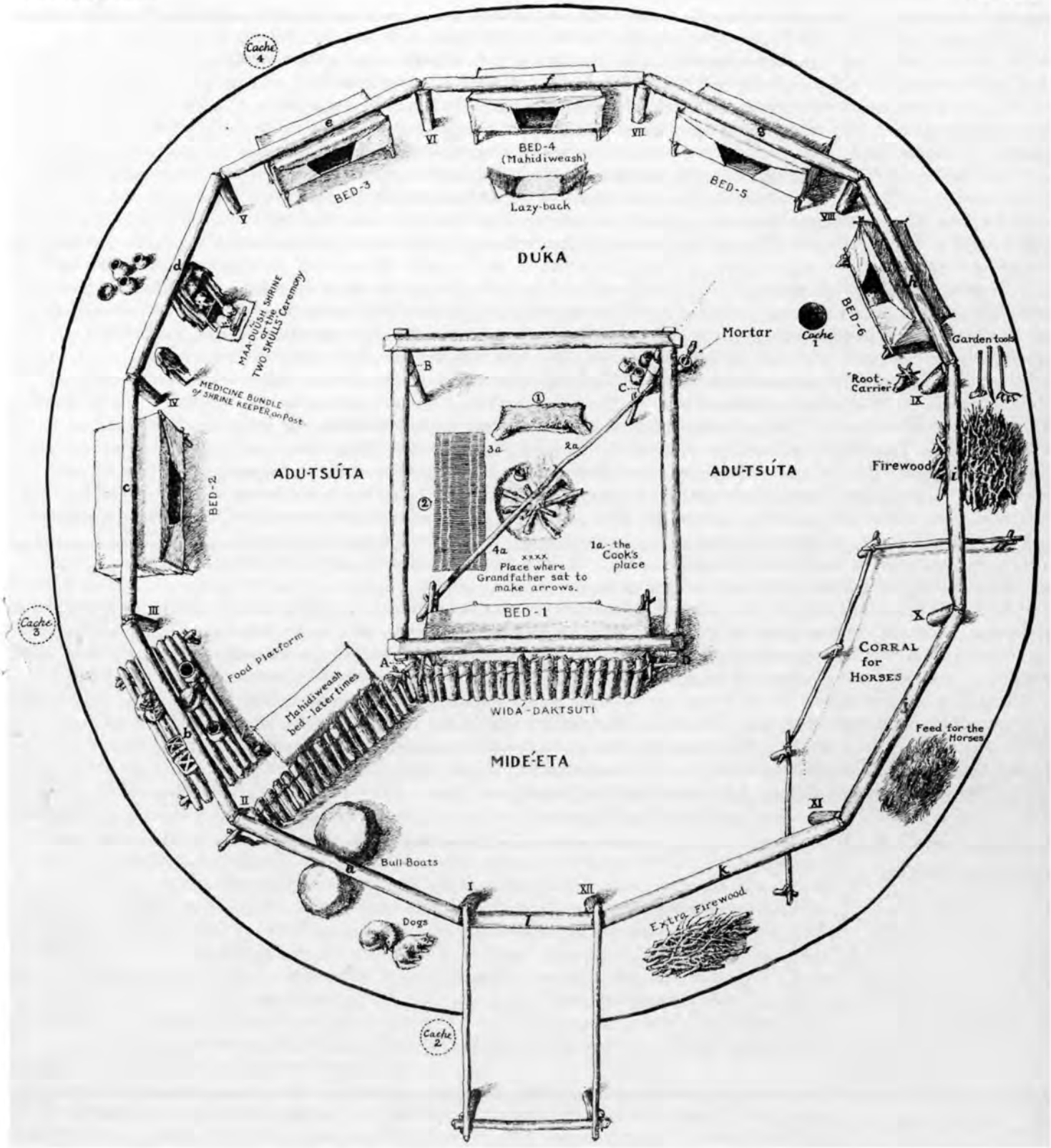
By the mid-18th century the villages of the Mandan, Hidatsa, and Arikara served as centers of trade, which attracted Indians and Euro-Americans alike and led to a degree of cultural sophistication and affluence that has been regarded by some anthropologists as a culture climax of native North Americans.

Because of their role as trade centers and their location on a tributary of the Missouri River, a major artery of western travel, the villages at Knife River received many Euro-American visitors—men drawn by the prospect of wealth in the fur trade, exploration and national expansion, and simple curiosity. For the most part, the Mandan and Hidatsa received these outsiders with openness and hospitality, providing a welcome respite to weary travelers and an important staging area for further travel and fur-trade operations in more remote regions. This frequent and sustained contact with a different culture ultimately transformed the traditional way of life for the Hidatsa and Mandan, while contributing to the economic development and westward expansion of America.

When trader Pierre de la Verendrye—a French-Canadian colonial officer responsible for opening up much of the western Great Lakes region—walked into a Mandan village in 1738, he found a native American society at the height of its prosperity. Verendrye's arrival marked the first recorded European visit to the Indians of the Upper Missouri River Valley and began a relentless process that transformed a culture within 100 years. At first the three tribes remained relatively isolated, although there were increasing contacts with French, Spanish, English, and American fur traders. Their culture was still healthy when explorer David Thompson reached the area in 1797, but the pace of change quickened after the Lewis and Clark expedition visited the tribes. The expedition spent the winter of 1805 a few miles south of the Knife River villages, where the men built a three-sided fort, which they named Fort Mandan. The men of the expedition frequently visited with the villagers. During this same winter, fur trapper Toussaint Charbonneau and his Shoshone wife, Sakakawea, were hired to guide the explorers westward. Other explorers, including Prince Maximillian of Weid-Neuwied, whose ethnological and natural history notes are still a primary reference on the Mandan and Hidatsa, and artists such as Karl Bodmer and George Catlin, drew sharp portraits of a society in transition. John James Audubon visited in 1843, but by then the culture had changed radically.

An influx of Euro-American fur traders set up new trade patterns that undermined the tribe's traditional position as middlemen in a long-established American Indian trade network. Villagers grew more dependent on European goods such as horses, weapons, cloth, and iron pots. Diseases carried by the Europeans and overhunting of the bison further weakened the failing culture. There were several small pox epidemics between 1780 and 1856: the epidemic of 1837–1838 was especially tragic with a mortality rate of almost 60 percent. In 1845 most of the remaining Hidatsa and Mandan joined together to establish Like-a-Fishhook Village some 40 miles northwest of the Knife River villages. In 1862 the remaining Arikara joined them, and the tribes became known as the Three Affiliated Tribes. In 1865 they were forced to leave their village and move onto the Fort Berthold Indian Reservation, where they continue to live today.

Student handouts were compiled from the National Park Service visitors' guide for Knife River Indian Villages National Historic Site, 1989. Additional information in Student Handout 2 came from the National Register nomination form, "Knife River Indian Villages National Historic Site Archeological District" (Mercer County, North Dakota), Thomas D. Thiessen, archeologist, Midwest Archeological Center, National Park Service, 1987.



Aerial view of a 12-post earthlodge's layout. Earthlodges were constructed in the following order: Four interior supporting posts (B) were hammered into the ground and joined by four beams. Exterior supporting posts (I, II, III, and so on) were also placed into the ground and connected by stringers (a, b, c, and so on), followed by the installation of leaners and rafters (not visible here) to provide support for the walls. Finally, willows, grass, and earth provided covering for the walls. (American Museum of Natural History)

Aerial view of Big Hidatsa Village, Knife River Indian Villages National Historic Site, Stanton vicinity, North Dakota. (North Dakota State Highway Department, 1967)

Hidatsa Village, Earth Covered Lodges, on the Knife River, George Catlin. (National Museum of American Art, Smithsonian Institution, Gift of Mrs. Joseph Harrison, Jr.)

Bird's-Eye View of the Mandan Village, George Catlin. (National Museum of American Art, Smithsonian Institution, Gift of Mrs. Joseph Harrison, Jr.)

Winter Village of the Minatarres [Hidatsa], Karl Bodmer. (Joslyn Art Museum, Omaha, Nebraska)