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American History Content-Based Instruction in China

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Abstract

This project demonstrates materials developed over a three-year period in Chinese international schools for the teaching of U.S. history to ESL learners. It includes an outline for a two-year curriculum with a regular weekly cycle, as well as a close look at strategies and tested activities intended to facilitate understanding of this complex topic and to encourage students to participate beyond passive reception. Specific cultural issues of teaching U.S. history in China are discussed, including issues of ideology and censorship.

Context

I. Personal Experience. For most of my first year teaching U.S. history in China, I fully expected to be fired at any time. It seemed such an unlikely job. I greeted the conclusion of every teaching topic as an improbable accomplishment. "At least I managed to tell them about the Bill of Rights," I said to myself, as November passed; then, in January: "at least I managed to tell the story of the Civil War." As America expanded and developed in my teaching of events, so too did my sense of living a charmed life. I had stumbled into the position while living in an industrial city near Beijing where I was studying Chinese and teaching part-time in a military academy. While I possessed a degree in history and a lasting interest in the subject, I had no experience teaching it and was totally unaware that there was any real foreign demand for content teachers. When by chance I became aware that a local new international school was hiring for a U.S. history instructor. I applied on a whim, rather doubting it was real, and I continued to doubt until the year concluded. How am I getting away with this, I asked myself constantly: teaching about America in China? Given that it was a class which necessarily had a steady undercurrent demonstrating the virtues of democracy, personal liberties, and checks to the government, it seemed impossible that shadowy, vaguely-defined Chinese authority would not come crashing down on me eventually.

In a way it did, though not as I had expected. I moved smoothly through the American story with no interest whatsoever from anyone in power, though with touching attentiveness from students as well as my Chinese colleagues, some of whom came several times to observe my classes because the material was of interest to them. Then in June I was casually informed that the Chinese government had shut down the school. It was not, happily, as a result of anything I had

done--rather, it was the result of a widespread crackdown in 2012 on foreign programs based in Chinese public schools, the reasons for which remain vague.

I was unemployed, but I had successfully completed a year of American history in China. I vaguely began to wonder if I could make a career of it. It soon became clear that, though the demand for content instructors was paltry in comparison to China's voracious desire for standard TESOL teachers, a small market for content-based instruction was nevertheless extant--and, it seemed, growing. Now, after three years of teaching an American history curriculum, I find I have indeed made a surprising career out of a synthesis of my greatest interests. It is one which allows me to make use of my history degree and my TESOL training in tandem, one which enables me to experience life in a rising foreign culture, and one by which I can, in a subtle, cautious way, promote values that I feel are important. It is thus work that is deeply meaningful to me, and for this reason I have made efforts to carefully consider how I approach it.

In the last years, I have come to believe that Content-Based Instruction, that odd cousin of standard TESOL that is never quite at home by its fire, has a great amount of untapped practical potential. So much time, in China and elsewhere, is spent instructing students in English in preparation for no goal beyond success in testing, using content with no inherent educational value in itself, simply because practice must be achieved by use of some material, the specifics of which are not seen as very important. Thus standard textbooks give a hodge-podge of random readings and skills activities on topics the students will pay little attention to because the topic is irrelevant in itself to the larger goal of improving English for the still larger goal of passing a test. The content is literally a third-rate objective. As a result, not only is an opportunity for expanding student learning lost, but the effectiveness of the English lesson is reduced because of natural student resistance towards doing something perceived as irrelevant. Is this situation really

necessary? The value of CBI is that it contains a practical purpose inherent in itself--expansive knowledge of something new--and that it has the potential to stimulate interest by its dedication to a focus. For these reasons, I have come to believe that not only is CBI, such as is given in international schooling, in many cases a highly effective method of English teaching, but that increasing use of content-based contexts may be a desirable development in the methodology of English language instruction.

Most of my observations and materials in this paper are assembled from my personal experiences as an American history teacher in China over the past three years. I began teaching this topic in Shijiazhuang #1 Middle School to three groups of tenth graders totaling about 100 students, and later taught several twelfth graders in the same school a sped-up version of the first half of the curriculum over several weeks. Classes were only held two or three days a week, which required a style that was predominantly lecture-based if I were to complete a full survey of the subject by the end of the year, as had been requested. The next year I taught 55 tenth graders at Shanghai Southwest Weiyu Middle School, using the same one-year curriculum as I had taught previously, but extended to five days a week, which allowed me to make useful expansion and re-evaluation of my methodology. The following year I began teaching at Suzhou New District #1 Middle School. In this position I was asked to extend the one-year curriculum I had developed into a two-year (four-day weekly) course, which required further alterations and adjustments, as did the fact that my student population was only seven students (all tenth graders), considerably fewer than before. This gradual shift from fast-paced classes with numerous students to slower-paced classes with few students has been fortuitous, as it has enabled me to reconsider my early courses, conceived in a kind of trial by fire, and attempt to refine them with the benefits of increased time for reflection and the ability to observe student reactions on a more personal level. Although this

process of refinement will doubtless continue as long as I am teaching history, I have come to believe through the comments of students, parents, and colleagues, and through my own observations and assessments, that my curriculum is serving as an effective introduction to a complex and unfamiliar subject, and that it is promoting retention and improving English ability. It is also, I hope, provoking some genuine consideration of what is meant by American culture and values.

II. Why U.S. History? In recent years, the Chinese and American educational systems have developed an increasingly symbiotic relationship. As larger numbers of the expanding Chinese middle class reject the overcrowded, institutionalized system that has come to characterize much of Chinese education, comparatively smaller, modern, and underfunded schools in America are moving to fill a growing demand by Chinese parents for a western-style education for their children. To prepare these students for their transition to America, international schools, of varying degrees of quality, now exist in China, operated by Chinese with American partnership. These come in two flavors: schools for college preparation, in which students receive English education through grade 12 in the expectation that they will attend an American university, and transfer schools, in which students receive English education in China for some years before moving into a participating American high school for the remainder of their secondary education. In each case these international schools usually make use of an actual American high school curriculum patterned off of state standards, which is most often divided into four subjects: math, sciences, English, and U.S. (and sometimes world) history.

Of the four, it is history, particularly American history, which may most appear, to a Chinese student, to be the odd one out. It is unusually specific. It is a subject with minimal emphasis in

the Chinese school system, and one with little clear immediate practical application. Even more so than English language study (which is offered from primary school in the Chinese system and is generally prevalent in popular culture) American history deals with a topic explicitly foreign to the experience of the average Chinese student. It is thus easy for students to see it as an arbitrary requirement mandated by the awkward merging of two international partner schools.

Yet the study of U.S. history is enormously beneficial for international students, particularly in China. It provides a broad overview of western values and culture that better enables students to adapt to their future educational environments, helping them to understand both the behavior of other Americans and the priorities of their educational institutions. History moreover promotes critical thinking about abstract ideas--vital for students entering western schooling systems--while remaining anchored in the familiar realm of tangible fact. Similarly, there is fertile ground within the study of history to assist students in the development of persuasive and research-based arguments, skills that will likely be underdeveloped in the Chinese system. In addition, from a purely TESOL perspective, history teaching offers a consistent subject with considerable potential narrative interest to assist students in the application and development of their language skills; one which easily incorporates usage of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. (The concept of *narrative* in particular is one that seems to be undervalued in considerations of teaching history. Unlike any common school subject, history forms a single coherent story that logically builds upon itself for the length of any course taught in a generally chronological way. This consistency and flow must surely contribute to student involvement in an English-learning context.)

Nor are the benefits of history instruction limited to the student. With China in particular, a wider perspective is merited. As China moves to overtake America economically and rises into its role

of modern world power, it is obviously highly important that the two nations have a mutual understanding of the other's cultures and values, and American history instruction for China's students is an ideal method of fostering this. From an American perspective, enabling members of as heterogeneous and information-restricted a society as China is to be exposed to the cultural diversity and classical liberal values (such as recognition of basic human rights) inherent in U.S. history instruction is surely of net benefit to all people interested in such a society's development along these lines. Moreover, such instruction is undeniably a subtle means of exposing this rising, westernized generation of Chinese students to the structure, benefits, and challenges of modern democratic government. The respect for cultural autonomy which all foreign teachers should naturally evidence when working abroad does not seem to be in contradiction with their holding a genuine desire for a political thaw in a non-democratic nation of over one billion people, and U.S. history instruction is a quiet and non-judgmental means of contributing towards this positive outcome. It would be an unusual teacher of American history who did not perceive this to be a worthy cause, albeit one to be supported in a careful and culturally appropriate manner.

The teaching of American history is thus a backdoor in the facade of China--one that can allow both access to and exit from a highly controlled society.

III. What Does U.S. History Instruction in China Entail? International schooling in China tends to involve a partnership between a Chinese private school and a western counterpart, either public or private. This western school might, officially, hold highly specific expectations about such things as curricula, teaching to core standards, and testing procedures, but the very nature of this sort of partnership can make it difficult for these schools to enforce their requirements. It is generally the Chinese school which hires, fires, pays wages, applies for employee visas, oversees

local staff, and which has the physical school on its own territory. This tends to minimize the role of the western school, and usually renders it difficult for them to enforce their expectations. There is little incentive for the Chinese school to push for these things on behalf of the western school, and there may indeed be little communication between the two partners. The Chinese management, for its part, may have a limited ability to communicate with its foreign employees to any great depth, and will be coming from a cultural background that more often values non-conflict in interpersonal relationships over addressing workplace issues to improve efficiency. As a result, Chinese schools may often have fairly lax expectations of their teachers. Since there are so few demands to be met in this situation, the western teacher entering such a program may be taken aback at the amount of personal independence he or she has been granted, and can also be overwhelmed by the lack of clear definition of their duties. In contrast to the often rigidly mandated structure within American public schools, in an international school there may be no curriculum, textbooks, or assessment goals, and the teacher may be required to personally fill these gaps. (History, due to its focus on key events introduced in chronological order, tends to have a more railroaded topic structure, and thus may suffer less than other classes as a result of this vagueness. By contrast, the teacher of a standard literature-based English course may be left with no guidelines for content at all.)

Student selection for such schools is usually done by the Chinese partner school, which has financial incentive to bring in numerous students, and possibly little notion of how to assess student English ability in a systemic way. Thus, they may have very limited standards in terms of how students are selected. Students may be unable to engage in basic conversation. They will often be unable at the start of the year to really understand most of the content in even a simple history lecture. If they do not have previous experience with foreign education, they may resist

activities which ask them to be more than passive listeners. Many seem to enter with the idea that they can sit quietly in the classroom without participating, and these sort of cultural habits will have to be challenged for effective instruction. Yet Chinese students, once they understand the new rules of their context, will often take to it with enthusiasm. The shift from classes based on rote memorization to those involving personalization and narrative construction is one that many Chinese students will express open appreciation for.

In terms of U.S. history knowledge, Chinese students will come into the class possessing very little--yet their knowledge will probably not be significantly less than that of many people in America. Like many American graduates, they will have retained a small core of basic, vital information about the structure of U.S. history from previous instruction. They will be, for example, aware of George Washington and probably have a notion that American gained independence from Britain. They will likely understand about Abraham Lincoln and the general reasons for the American Civil War. They are usually aware of Martin Luther King and seem to have an understanding of American racial issues, which might be a focus encouraged by the Chinese government. None of this is very deep, and the foundation of this instruction may be subtly politicized, but this situation would not seem to be so distinct from that of many students in the United States. It is worth nothing that Chinese international students do not seem to come in with inaccurate information or extreme ideological views pertaining to America and its history. They are thus neither skeptical nor resistant towards the content of a typical American history curriculum.

Chinese students will not, however, enter with very high expectations about what a history class can be. Chinese history teaching, when it is done at all, is more often focused on names, dates, and moral instruction. While the Chinese tendency to give rote drill-based classes may be

overstated, some students may have experienced history instruction as little more than repeating from a textbook in class. History instruction in China is not generally treated as a subject with great significance. Many class years it may not be taught, or may simply be a truncated class with few hours in a week. It is generally considered to be fairly unimportant because there is no significant testing attached to it, high scores in government testing being the primary goal of all Chinese education. The Chinese seem to have an awkward relationship with their history, and seem somewhat unsure how to depict events before the nation's formation in 1949. (One might note that the picture shown on every single Chinese bill is that of Mao Zedong, despite the presumable presence of 6,000 years of luminaries from prior history who might also be considered worthy of placement on the currency.) The Chinese are justifiably proud of their civilization, but may be somewhat detached from the events that formed it. Their culture is not unique in preferring a vaguely mythologized history that lends itself to easy summary, but this is not a situation likely to instill much appreciation for historical study. The seriousness of history as a topic is something that may need to be impressed upon these students early in the year.

IV. Issues of Censorship and Ideology. To understand what is acceptable to teach in China, one must recognize that while censorship in China is culturally mandated, it is rarely backed with any genuine ideological belief on the part of the Chinese doing the censoring. This means that the Chinese educational bureaucracy will alter materials that very visibly transgress certain cultural mores, but that there tends to be less concern whether this material is actually taught in the classroom. What is of primary importance is simply that there be no tangible evidence that it is being taught. Thus, pages will be removed from textbooks, but the actual content of instruction will not be considered very important to monitor. Chinese management will rarely take any

interest even in the broad outline of a curriculum, and are very unlikely to show interest in the fine details. This is not to say that one can casually challenge Chinese political values or otherwise brazenly flout convention in class, but even the slightest attempt at subtlety can take a teacher surprisingly far in what he or she can say.

I have personally experienced censorship of five topics in American or world history. (Note the picture of Chinese office workers from my former school removing pages from history textbooks.) The most sensitive topics are the "Three T's" of Tibet, Taiwan, and Tiananmen Square. These highly specific issues are commonly described as untouchable in the classroom, and pages referring to Tiananmen Square were removed from my textbook by Chinese staff directly in front of me. In truth, none of these are really important topics for a survey of U.S. history, and given their taboo nature, there seems little point in wrangling with them. In fact, I have alluded to all of them in class without incident or seeming discomfort, but I have seen no reason to push beyond this.

A more problematic topic is that of the Korean War. The sole conflict (aside from the brief affair of the Boxer Rebellion) in which Americans and Chinese were at war is obviously a highly relevant topic for a course on American history set in China. However, Chinese have complicated opinions surrounding this event. They tend to be deeply ambivalent about North

Korea and do not see their significant sacrifices to preserve it as being heroic or particularly worthwhile. There is a quiet sense of shame surrounding the whole matter. Chinese history classes seem to give the impression, possibly without stating directly, that North Korea was the defensive party in the war and the victim of NATO aggression, and some Chinese do believe this. Since this is a fairly significant untruth to maintain, it is little wonder that this topic is a target for heavy censorship. Nevertheless, notwithstanding the implied mandate of the excised pages in the textbooks provided in my past classes, I have several times taught the Korean War in a neutral but thorough way, making explicit that North Korea was the aggressor. I consulted with a Chinese colleague before doing this, and was told that she did not anticipate there would be difficulties. Indeed, no consequences ever resulted, and this would seem to be evidence for my belief that the appearance of censorship in China is more important than the reality of it.

A fifth topic which I experienced a request to censor was that of the collapse of the Soviet Union. I was asked not to teach this and was told the relevant pages would be removed from my book, though this never actually happened. I am unsure what the specific objection here was, since there is certainly no misapprehension in China that the Soviet Union still exists, and none of the chapter's content was perceptibly ideological. As the chapter was headed "The Fall of Communism" (it had no mention of China throughout), I suspect that the request may have been made after a cursory inspection of the chapter headings, which I think further highlights the rather superficial means by which material is censored here. Decisions tend to be arbitrary and *ad hoc*, and only very lazily enforced.

The key point to understand about historical censorship in China is that the forbidden subjects are extremely specific. They seem to each involve controversial geographical flashpoints or events that can be dated. Far more interesting is what is *not* censored. Thus, fundamental

American ideologies which would seem to be directly in contrast to Chinese values are in no way noted as a concern. Teaching about the American system of checks and balances; the positive impact of a multi-party system; essential freedoms such as speech, press, assembly, and worship; or the people's right to revolution espoused by Locke and Jefferson, would each seem to be a direct and fundamental existential challenge to the core beliefs of the Chinese government, rather more so than a bare assertion that some people feel that Taiwan is not a core part of China. Yet all of these topics can be taught freely and no concern is expressed over their inclusion in a curriculum or textbook. Indeed, on one occasion I even used the censored pages themselves to illustrate the concept of freedom of speech, asking students to turn in their books to a section that I knew no longer existed, and then, when they absorbed its absence, explaining that this sort of action is precisely what the First Amendment prohibits. Again, the fact that I could make such a demonstration without any objection would seem to emphasize that there are a small number of highly specific buzzwords that Chinese actively seek out when censoring, as opposed to their actually engaging with the course's content in any depth. It seems rather dubious to imagine that the Chinese bureaucrat who censors a 1,000 page English textbook has read every page of it, or that he or she is very likely to delve deep enough to absorb the problematic ideologies mentioned above. Rather, a quick glance through the book no doubt yielded some distressing headings, and the offending pages were swiftly removed. No follow-up, of course, was done to ensure that the teacher making use of the textbook did not personally speak on these topics in the classroom regardless of the missing pages, which in fact I did. Indeed, no one was very likely to care; it was enough that the proper form of Chinese censorship was followed.

Belief Statements

The following are my basic beliefs as a content-based instructor which underlie my choices in structuring this curriculum.

1. *I believe that American values are relevant to the international world, especially China.* This does not mean that I do not subject these values to scrutiny. At all times in my course I put forth America for critical consideration of its successes and failures--after all, questioning America is itself an American value. Yet I believe on the balance that the general ideas embodied in the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution are fundamental to the creation of a healthy modern society, that this is a view supportable by historical evidence, and that people with limited access to these ideas should be given the opportunity to consider them. As I have stated before, this must naturally be approached in a diplomatic and respectful way.

2. *I believe that history is accessible, relevant, and interesting.* I make no concessions on this point. I know that student energy is a mirror of teacher energy, and that my attitude must at all times project curiosity and appreciation for my topic.

3. *I believe that critical analysis of historical facts gives students the ability to understand political, social, economic, and cultural trends in their own lives.* Therefore I promote a broad overview of history in which the big ideas are more important than hard data. I never, for example, ask students to remember dates, and consider it far more important that students can describe the significance of its event than that they can remember its name.

4. *I believe that students retain information better when presented with a compelling narrative.* I try to assemble history as best I can into a series of stories involving real people with real motivations.

5. *I believe that visuals and audio profoundly affect a student's interest in and retention of a history curriculum.* Every lecture I give consists of an average of around 60 carefully chosen visuals, as well as an average of one or two short movie clips. I play historical or thematic music from the period being studied throughout the week, including when students enter class and when they do individual work.

6. *I believe that the scope of history is best grasped through clear periodization and by being broken up into a small number of topics for focus.* History is sprawling. While reducing history to discrete periods is to some degree artificial, it creates a structure that allows students to make sense of the sprawl. I promote awareness of this structure by giving the class a regular rhythm in which we focus for a time extensively on one period, then transition on schedule into another. I further promote this deep focus by having each class center on eight or nine weekly topics that are repeatedly viewed from different angles.

7. *I believe that students learn best when they are taught in a framework of encountering information, internalizing it with teacher help, then practicing it for fluency on their own.* This is at the heart of my course. Each weekly cycle requires students to preview the material, learn basic facts, focus on broader ideas, and then review what they have learned, with the teacher playing a steadily diminishing role in this process.

Goals and Objectives

The goals of this course can be listed in a fairly straightforward way. An increasing trend of modern secondary education is to focus very extensively on numerous goals and potential means of achieving them, but I feel that the goals below are more than deep enough to serve as the framework for two years of instruction.

I. Language

Goal: Students will *improve their English language ability* by applying their skills to a practical course of learning.

Objectives: Students will work to understand a weekly listening-based lecture period, responding to it throughout the week by a variety of speaking, reading, and writing activities.

II. Historical Knowledge

Goal: Students will learn about and retain the following information about American history:

a) A *division of American history* into broad periods (*e.g.* colonial times, the Civil War, the Gilded Age) and the major events, individuals, and issues relevant to each of these. These periods will encompass a balanced survey of American history from pre-Columbian times to recent events.

b) A basic narrative of the *causes and effects* for these periods. (*e.g.* Why did the Civil War occur? How did the Union win it? How did it affect American culture?)

c) How *American culture* has grown and developed from diverse contributions. (This can encompass everything from colonial folk tales to jazz to television.)

d) Highly *iconic figures and events* that are useful for understanding the idiomatic cultural context of America. (*e.g.* Pocahontas, Plymouth Rock, Benjamin Franklin's kite, Benedict Arnold, The Alamo, Wyatt Earp.)

Objectives: In a weekly cycle, students will preview lessons to absorb the general outline of their information, take notes on the essential facts in lecture, consider these facts from a wider overview, then close the week by reviewing what they have learned.

III. Analysis

Goal: Students will develop the ability to *analyze historical trends*, using their own judgment to determine why things happened in history, and how similar trends might occur in the future.

Objectives: Students will engage in class discussions and activities concerning historical trends, and will explore these trends individually in weekly homework writing.

IV. Values

Goal: Students will be presented with a wide variety of historic and modern ideas, and will work with these to develop a *greater individual understanding of their own political and social values.*

Objectives: In conversations about topics such as colonialism, the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, American political parties, socialism, and fascism, students will be encouraged to explore

their opinions and personal reactions in group discussions and activities, as well as in individual writing.

Scope and Sequence

I. Survey or Deep Focus? I have chosen in my courses to teach a full survey of U.S. history, covering all major events from prehistory to recent years. This is not necessarily a standard practice in American high schools, and was certainly not a feature of my own secondary education. Many American history teachers today prefer a course based on intense analysis of a limited number of events, with critical thinking of primary sources serving as the main activity in class. One example might be spending a week looking solely at the Dawes Act (by which white Americans forcibly attempted to incorporate Native Americans into white culture) instead of thoroughly covering the events of the Indian Wars and Native American policy in the late 1800s. This approach has advantages to recommend it, and I certainly do all I can in my course to promote critical thinking and to avoid overwhelming students with detail. Nor do I give all events equal weight: some stories are better than others. Nevertheless, I maintain the value in my own context of completing the full survey, for the following reasons:

1. Chinese students do not have the previous instruction in U.S. history that American students can be presumed to have had. Most Americans will have had several years of such instruction by high school, including state-based history courses. They can thus be expected to have more facts than foreign students lacking this advantage. Given my limited time to catch up, I am uncomfortable doing a deep focus on topics that students may lack fundamental details on. Similarly, Chinese students lack an underlying background in topics that many Americans are naturally aware of simply from absorbing their own culture. Most Americans can easily picture, to some degree, such periods in their history as colonial times, the old west, or the 1960s. Even if they have no very detailed knowledge of these periods, they likely have a sense of the "feel" of

the era. Chinese students, by contrast, cannot be presumed to have the context needed for an in-depth focus. It seems more sensible to instruct them from the ground up.

2. Primary sources seem to me less practical for instructing foreign students, since, by definition, the language cannot be simplified or summarized without negating their nature as a primary account of events. (Any real alteration other than abridgement makes it a secondary source.) Making use of these would require a fair amount of time understanding period-specific language that might be better spent on a more direct approach. I do make limited use of very abridged primary sources in my course, but have not seen that it would be advisable to do more than this. This is obviously variable depending on the abilities of the class.

3. Jumping about in history interrupts the ongoing narrative of change and development that I strongly feel gives history its special flow and interest as a topic. History is a story, and it can be an interesting one. I see no reason to undercut this advantage, so unique to this topic.

4. This belief may be purely personal, but I feel that giving the entire sweep of events is an act of good faith on the part of the teacher. It demonstrates trust that the students are able to follow a complex sequence of events, and that they are able to, on a basic level, acquire and retain knowledge of the full outline of American history. I further believe that student awareness that they are going to exit the course with understanding of the complete story increases their motivation and renders their study, perhaps paradoxically, less overwhelming. (If the teacher confidently maintains that a full exploration of the topic is possible, then history must be not be so vast and academic as it might otherwise appear.) I am sensitive to how historical study can feel overbearing. For much of my own life, history's scope seemed something like a fog-covered valley with a few peaks jutting prominently out of it. Thus I knew about the Revolution and the Civil War, but not what lay between them. This murkiness made history confusing, unfriendly,

and intimidating. I try to ensure that my students do not undergo this same experience, by ensuring that the valleys as well as the peaks are well-explored.

5. On a purely practical level, teaching a survey course will prepare the student for the broad scope of the SAT U.S. History Examination, should he or she choose to take this before applying to an American university. (The existence of this test seems to be the sole reason my initial position as a history teacher in China was created.) While I do not orient my classes towards testing success, achievement on this exam seems like a worthwhile secondary goal for the course.

II. The Yearly Sequence. The course structure I use follows a sequence of 68 lectures. The length of the Chinese school year seems to vary from site to site, but I have found that 36 weeks is a reasonable expectation. Given the importance Chinese place on testing, it is advisable for me to set aside a week each semester for final examinations, leaving 34 weeks for teaching in the year. Thus, in a one-year course, two topics from the sequence of 68 are taught every week. In a two-year course, one topic is taught every week.

The sequence I now use is as follows:

SEMESTER 1/YEAR 1

1. Geography
2. Native American Cultures
3. Christopher Columbus
4. The Spanish in the Americas
5. The French in North America
6. England in the 1500s
7. The First English Colonies
8. Colonists and Native Americans
9. The Thirteen Colonies
10. Colonial Life
11. Slavery and Slave Culture
12. The French and Indian War
13. Anger in the Colonies
14. Revolutionary Philosophy
15. The Continental Congresses
16. The Declaration of Independence
17. The Revolutionary War
18. The Constitution
19. The Bill of Rights
20. The Washington Presidency
21. The Adams and Jefferson Presidencies

22. The War of 1812

23. The J.Q. Adams and Monroe Presidencies

24. The Jackson and Van Buren Presidencies

25. Life in the Early 1800s

26. Westward Expansion to Texas

27. The Mexican War

28. Resistance to Slavery

29. National Divisions

30. Lincoln and Secession

31. Opening of the Civil War

32. Vicksburg and Gettysburg

33. Close of the Civil War

34. Reconstruction

SEMESTER 2/YEAR 2

35. Western Settlement

36. Life in the West

37. The Indian Wars

38. The Gilded Age: Industry

39. The Gilded Age: Immigration

40. The Gilded Age: Imperialism

41. Theodore Roosevelt

42. The Progressive Era

43. Outbreak of World War I

44. Close of World War I

45. The 1920s

46. The Great Depression

47. The New Deal

48. Outbreak of World War II

49. The War in Europe

50. The War in the Pacific

51. The Post-War 40s

52. The 1950s: Culture

53. The 1950s: Politics

54. John F. Kennedy

55. The Civil Rights Movement

56. Martin Luther King, Jr.

57. Johnson and the Vietnam War

58. Counterculture of the 1960s

59. Richard Nixon

60. Ford and Carter

61. The 1980s: Abroad

62. The 1980s: At Home

63. Modern Political Parties

64. The 1990s

65. George W. Bush and 9/11

66. The War on Terror

67. Barack Obama

68. Challenges for the Future

After three years of experimenting with this sequence and making adjustments based on what seemed rushed or superfluous, I have come to believe that something fairly close to the above structure is--for my own context, at least--most effective for teaching an American history survey class with no significant omissions at a comfortable pace.

III. The Weekly Sequence. The actual structure of my week is dependent on whether the course is one or two years. Each week will have at its core one or two lecture days, in addition to specific classes which revolve around the lectures.

I have taught a one year, five-day weekly course, and a two-year, four-day weekly course. These are the schedules I made use of:

One-Year Course	Two-Year Course
Day 1: Lecture on Topic 1	**Day 1:** Preview (of the weekly topic)
Day 2: Synthesis of Topic 1	**Day 2:** Lecture
Day 3: Lecture on Topic 2	**Day 3:** Synthesis
Day 4: Synthesis of Topic 2	**Day 4:** Practice
Day 5: Practice for Topics 1 and 2	

On a *preview* day, the class formally ends study of the previous topic and performs activities for the transition into the next. On a *lecture* day, the teacher presents the core facts of the new topic to the students by using visuals; the students then take notes on special worksheets. On a *synthesis* day the students process the big ideas and key concepts underlying the facts learned in the lecture. On a *practice* day the students review the details of the lesson in ways that allow

them to make use of writing, reading, and speaking skills. I will fully describe the activities I use on each of these days in the next section.

Should a class be so formally structured? Does this sequence leave too little room for adaptation? I have found that adhering to a steady weekly schedule lends the class an order and stability that many students appreciate. There are no surprises in the structure (as opposed to the content) of my class. It follows what to me seems a pleasant rhythm, rather like a boat bobbing on the ocean, and is centered around activities that the students will become increasingly adept at, but which are hopefully varied and staggered enough not to seem monotonous. I also find that students respond to the orderliness of their teacher by being more orderly themselves. This is naturally desirable in a high school environment. Nor have I felt constrained in my ability to adapt to unforeseen problems of timing that derail the schedule. Classes can always run into other classes if needed; this format merely gives me a structural goal to try to abide by. In practice, I find that I am almost always able to adhere to it.

Having only a four-day week for the two-year course is probably an unusual situation, and I have considered how I might expand the schedule in a five-day class. I have experimented in my current World History course, with mixed success, with spending a day looking at excerpts from the literature of the culture currently being studied. This would probably be harder to apply to a U.S. history course, where the focus is far narrower. I might instead consider having a day purely for review. The practice day is supposed to cover this to some extent, but overlaps with language acquisition. A review day distinct from one for language practice would probably be a productive way to conclude the weekly sequence in the extended course. Another option would be to take the aspects of transitioning to the new topic in the preview class and dedicate the final day of the week solely to these, with the preview class serving solely as a look ahead.

Activities

This section will explain in detail the usual activities performed in each of the four types of classes. I will be using my extended two-year course as the reference throughout. The weekly schedule for this course is summarized here.

Class	Student Activities
Day 1-PREVIEW	Write three essential learnings (from previous week) Fill in timeline (from previous week) *Transition to new class* Reading check Preview discussion question
Day 2-LECTURE	Listen and take notes on organizer
Day 3-SYNTHESIS	*Any of:* Chart assembly in groups Primary source response Theme listing ("Tell me...") Map building Character journals Special activities
Day 4-PRACTICE	*If lesson is primarily event-based:* Ordering in groups *If lesson is primarily concept-based:* Matching in groups Fill in cloze Speak on visuals

First, a word on how each class is opened. Before beginning each session, I place on the projector a relevant and powerful visual from the topic we are studying. (If the topic is industry in the Gilded Age, I might show a labor strike, for example.) I keep this up for as long as I do not need the projector for another purpose in order to subtly shape the mood of the class. I further will play music when the students enter and during any activity that does not primarily involve discussion. (For the above example, I might use labor songs such as "Solidarity Forever.") All of this is done to enhance interest and engage the emotions, to give a sense of the cultural aesthetic of the era, and to help the students in mentally dividing the course into discrete periods by providing them with video and audio cues to assist in the distinction--the week in which they heard "Go Down, Moses" is obviously not the one in which they heard "Marching through Georgia."

I. The Preview Day

Write three essential learnings. The new week begins with the old week. The task that opens every Monday is simply for students to recall and summarize what they consider to be the three most significant ideas which they learned in the last weekly lesson. Students write these in their notebooks and I then call on a few of them to stand and read theirs aloud. Some will just repeat basic factual information ("Alexander Hamilton raised taxes and created a government bank.") while others, with a better sense of synthesizing ideas, will weave multiple facts into larger themes. ("Alexander Hamilton was the leader of a party which wanted a stronger American government. For example, he desired more power to tax and to control the economy.") This is the sort of thing I encourage the students to do more of, but they are free to use this activity to mentally assemble the last week in their own heads in a way that makes sense to them. There

might be value in having students keep these entries together in one notebook in order to provide a quick-reference summary of the chief things they have learned.

There are several purposes for this activity. First, I feel that it helps with retention to revisit the previous week after a break. Mainly, however, I believe that summarizing historical learning in an organized way can help create order out of excess information. I have often had the experience of reading a history book and feeling, at the end of it, that I couldn't quite adequately define what I had learned--even if the book was interesting and well-written. It is easy to get drowned in data. I personally maintain that a good history book does not teach you one hundred small things; rather, it makes use of these details to teach you three *big* things, and it is with this in mind that I have students define their own most relevant learnings from the week. This summary further helps students to finalize the previous week in their own mind to prepare them for transition to the next.

This activity can be completed in less than ten minutes.

Timeline fill. As the students perform the above activity, the teacher is writing down a handful of relevant dates on the board. An example might be:

The First Continental Congress

The March to Concord

The Siege of Boston

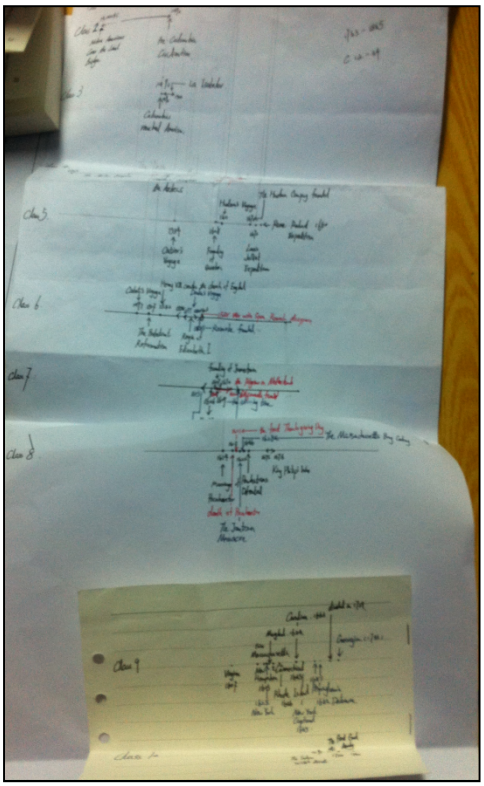
The Second Continental Congress

The Battle of Bunker Hill

The British Retreat to Canada

Students then look up the dates for these events--either printed on their organizers, easily accessible in their textbooks, or simply provided on the board by the teacher--and add these to an extended timeline that encompasses events from every class so far taught. This timeline is created individually by each students and is assembled from numerous stapled papers which causes it to constantly grow--downwards as new classes are added, rightwards as time progresses in the course.

As I mentioned before, I do not concern myself with having students remember dates. For the most part, these are simply trivia. However, it is very important that students understand *chronology.* It is less important to know specifically when Washington, Adams, and Jefferson were president as it is to know that they were president in this order. Creating the timeline thus enables students to see visually which events happened before and after other events, not only for the class just completed but for previous and subsequent classes. It further helps students to get a sense of the scope of *continuing* events. In the above example, the long siege of Boston overlaps the Battle of Bunker Hill and the beginning of the Second Continental Congress and concludes with the British retreat to Canada. Thus by plotting the months encompassing this event on the timeline, its ongoing nature is emphasized, and a causal connection is made between the siege and the British retreat. Moreover, this is all done in a very tactile and personalized way, as students design the timeline in the way that seems most logical and aesthetic to them. I believe at the end of the year, looking at the extensive product they have created will be a source of pride. Most students should be able to describe each of the events they



have listed on the timeline, and their awareness of this should make concrete the full extent of what they have learned.

This is the final event in the course cycle. By physically placing learned events onto a record for later reference, students have, hopefully, also symbolically stored the events into long-term retention for the same purpose. At this point I formally announce that the previous week is over and that we are beginning the next. I place a new visual, relevant to the next topic, on the projector, and I stop the music from the previous class and change it to what we will be listening to in the new week. All of this is done to emphasize the periodization of the course, as well as to make explicit the regular cyclical nature of our activities.

This activity can be completed in five to ten minutes, depending on the number of significant events discussed in the previous class.

Reading Check. We begin the new topic by checking whether students have done the preview reading in their textbook which was assigned on Friday. I will discuss homework in the section on assessment below. In short, students are expected to come into class on Monday having read several pages on the weekly topic. Twenty minutes is now spent ensuring that this was done. I first give students about five minutes to review the text in their books and make quick notes on hard-to-remember terms. They then close their books and spend around fifteen minutes writing a summary of the main ideas they encountered in the text.

Since this is only a preview, I evaluate this summary primarily on effort, as opposed to evidence of deep understanding. The goal is simply to ensure that students have worked to get a general sense of the topical terrain ahead. Because Chinese students resist reading homework (I will discuss this more in the section on the common problems faced in this context) I feel the need to

set aside class time to force the issue. Culturally, Chinese students tend to feel it is good enough to "appear to" have read (this is not to say that American students are not also guilty of this behavior), which is why the teacher must create a situation in which doing this is impossible. In this case, if they haven't read, they can't summarize, and thus there is no way for them to fake their way through this activity, for which they know they will receive a grade.

Preview discussion question. The first class closes with a brief discussion of a question by which students can explore a broad historical theme that will be a focus of the coming week. For example, in the class on early English colonization, this is, "For what reasons would people choose to leave their homes and come to an unknown new world?" In the class on Southern secession, this is, "What makes a revolution right or wrong?" These are obviously not questions with easy answers, and their discussion is only intended to broach an issue which be looked at in greater detail later. I have the students divide into groups to talk these over and agree on some simple answers. Then I ask one or two students to report their ideas back to the class. If I feel the students have omitted a particularly relevant angle by which to view the question, I will briefly speak on my own thoughts. This can all be done in around ten minutes.

II. The Lecture Day

The note organizer. If there is a core of this history curriculum, it is use of the note organizer, which is passed out to every student at the beginning of lecture day, and which will be of consistent and recurring importance throughout the semester. The organizer shows the topics to be discussed in lecture, which are followed by space for note-taking, and is headed by a question

which expresses the primary theme of the class and which will be used as a homework prompt on Day 3. An example of the organizer is in the materials section at the end of this paper.

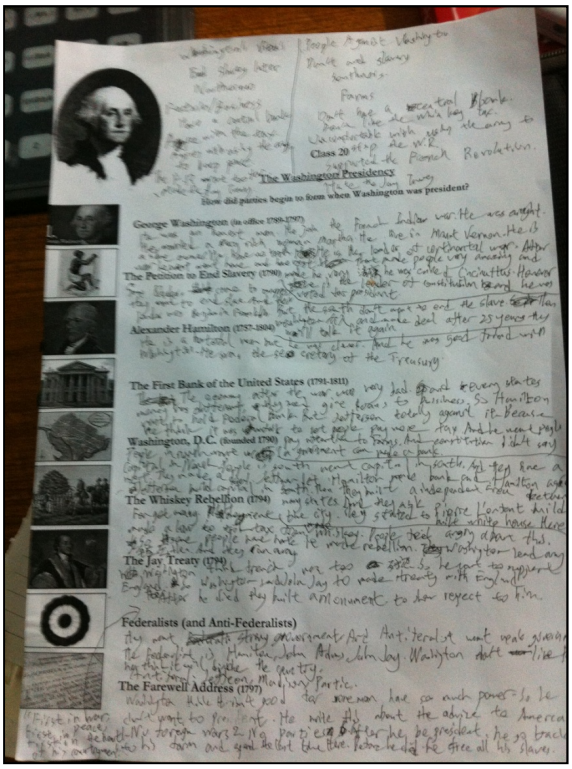
The organizer arose out of early attempts to problematize the challenges of teaching content in China. As I designed the class in my first year, knowing that the limited time required that the course be predominantly lecture, my greatest fear was simply that I would be talking fruitlessly about difficult concepts to a class of blank-faced, uncomprehending, and very bored students. This is a case in which my previous career as a standard TESOL teacher was particularly helpful in addressing a potential issue in a CBI context. I feel it is useful here to make a contrast with content teachers who do not have a TESOL background. I have on several occasions seen other content-based instructors in China, who had taught native English speakers in America but had not taught ESL abroad, come into their new career very unprepared, at least at first, to deal with student incomprehension. This seems to me to be related to the fact that in American schools it is fairly rare that the major classroom difficulty is a lack of raw understanding on the students' part of what the teacher is presenting. Rather, more often the issue is one of apathy or resistance from students who feel the material is being forced on them. Thus an emphasis that is more useful in American secondary schools--engaging interest while teaching to school standards--appears to me distinct from that needed in the CBI context in China, where another focus--communicating complexity; promoting active engagement over passive reception--is more essential for students from this particular cultural context, who tend to have less resistance but more barriers to comprehension. It was thus in order to address these last two needs in particular that I designed the organizer, which is intended to do several things.

First, the organizer clearly communicates the structure of the upcoming lecture. Students know that in approximately forty-five minutes around nine topics will be covered, and they are thus on

the lookout for these specific topics to be discussed, and for the teacher to transition between them. They are also aware that these nine topics are likely connected to each other, and thus they engage with the lecture to ascertain how.

Second, the organizer communicates the teacher's expectations of the students. Students are repeatedly told and have it emphasized that knowledge of the topics on the worksheet is the primary goal of the course. Simply being able to state on tests what each of the topics are and why they are significant is usually sufficient for a grade of a B. (The highest-level students will, as mentioned before, begin to weave larger themes and ideas from the details surrounding these topics.) Knowing that the primary week's goal is simply to understand the handful of topics on the organizer removes some of the overwhelming sprawl of history instruction.

Third, the organizer necessitates active participation by the students. Though they are given the outline of the lecture, they have none of the details. Students must thus spend the lecture filling the organizer with the information they are able to pick up in a sort of scavenger hunt for completion. Actively filling in notes is required of the students for several reasons, in particular for the homework assigned on lecture days, but , notwithstanding this requirement, I have been consistently surprised with the enthusiasm to which my students bring to note-taking when provided with a framework that structures the information in advance. There is something simple and concrete in the task which compels them to participate.



Fourth, the organizer assists in my highly prioritized goal of periodization. By centering each week on a single paper with a numbered topic and distinctive visual look, it is easier for students to mentally recollect and distinguish the weekly subjects as the course proceeds.

Fifth, the organizer is a permanent record and reference. Students tend to keep these papers in binders or otherwise clipped together throughout the year, and they serve as a clear indicator of what has been learned during the course. This makes it very clear which material they should study for tests or refer to for review or teacher questioning. Moreover, since the classes are numbered, the organizers can easily be used for reference points in instruction. If, say, students cannot recall which event set colonial anger against Britain into motion, I can simply tell them to check Class 12, rather than giving them the answer directly.

A final point on the organizer worth mentioning is that I have essentially never seen students write notes in Chinese. (More on whether allowing student to use Chinese is advisable in the last chapter.) My initial concept of the organizers was that they existed to help students process historical information, and thus that there was no reason students could not do this in their own language. In the beginning, in fact, I actively encouraged them to do so, not seeing significant language benefits in forcing them to write short notes in English, and thinking that allowing them to write in Chinese would promote comprehension. However, my students have never chosen to do this. Why this happens exactly is not clear to me, and I think merits further consideration, as it is certainly an unusual situation in which ESL students, given the option in a purely functional activity, prefer to use their second language--for reasons other than pushing themselves to do additional language work for practice , which I am reasonably certain is not the case with the majority of my own students. The answer seems to have something to do with the nature of a fast-paced lecture. Given the wide amount of information they must process on the fly as I speak

on the topic, it appears to me that the students do not wish to spend additional time on mental translation. It is, in fact, easier for them to simply pick up snippets of my speech which are understandable and significant ("The Battle of Antietam gave the North confidence"), then copy them out onto the paper more or less exactly as I say them. This requires them to write down dozens of phrases in each lecture which they have heard in context and have extrapolated from the larger whole as being especially relevant to the topic being discussed, all of which strikes me as a nearly ideal method of practicing listening comprehension. As will be discussed in the section on assessment later, student homework for the night then requires them to take these copied scraps and recast them into individual complete English summaries of the topics. This sequence of listening-copying-recasting is one I consider to be very effective in terms of the language-building aspects of the course.

The lecture. The lecture is the key manner in which students gain information on history in this curriculum. There are, obviously, only two routes by which students can directly learn content, listening or reading. Many content teachers I have observed in China prefer to make use of the latter, since text readings are more traditional to high school curricula, they are pre-prepared, and, generally speaking, it is easier for ESL students to understand the written word than the spoken one. Moreover, extended lecture seems to have something of a bad reputation in modern instruction--particularly contrasting with the progressive tendency of TESOL methodology--often being perceived as dull, impersonal, antiquated, and overly teacher-centered.

Despite these arguments, it seems clear to me that for history content instruction, a lecture-based curriculum is greatly preferable to one based on reading. Probably the most fundamental reason for this is simply that textbooks for content instruction in China are often unavailable, and when they are available, they are inadequate. Textbooks are either written for older students or younger

students, and neither work very well. Those for older students are invariably overlong and far too dense. If we are studying the Mexican War for a week, I cannot assign my students the twenty pages of wordy reading this encompasses in the average high school text. This would be perhaps four hours of reading; the students would openly revolt. (I have experienced otherwise hard-working students do much the same over a mere five pages of reading from a standard high school textbook.) Nor can I truncate this reading without effectively removing the story's beginning, middle, or end. By contrast, books for younger students are often written at a more appropriate level of difficulty and scope, but their ideas and themes are pitched to students with less mature analytical skills. The challenge of teaching high school ESL students is that they are intellectually capable of understanding complex ideas, but have difficulty engaging with these ideas in their language of study. As a result, neither high school nor grade schools books are really appropriate. I have had some success with using a middle school textbook as a balance, but I find it veers into the territory of being too complex or too simple by turns. A Goldilocks approach is required, but difficult to implement, and the textbook appropriate for this context seems still to be waiting to be written. For now, I feel it is apparent that instruction must come from me, not from the book, and this necessitates a lecture and listening-based curriculum, created by myself.

There are fortunately numerous advantages to doing it this way. Foremost is the human element--I am simply livelier than a textbook, which is usually written without dramatization or enthusiasm. Moreover, if I prepare my lecture carefully, I am also far easier to understand, notwithstanding that reading is generally easier to absorb than listening. Carefully chosen language and visuals will present the story in a clearer and more compelling way than raw text, especially when amplified with narrative energy. Lastly, a lecture-based class gives me a greater

ability to structure the curriculum around the themes that I personally consider important, which do not always coincide with the priorities of American state textbooks.

The difficulty to this approach is that it requires a lot out of the teacher. Since the fifty-minute lecture is almost completely teacher-centered (more on this below), a great deal of work must be done to fill this time effectively. Each lecture takes me around five hours to put together, not including research time, which becomes more important when the teacher is being placed above the book as the authority on the topic. (I have increasingly tried to read at least a portion of a history book for each topic I know I will be teaching in the future. Curiously, the more in-depth my knowledge is on the subject, the easier I find it is to *reduce* the lesson to its bare essentials for student understanding.) This process of lecture creation can be tiring, but once the lecture is made it exists for next year, needing only minor adjustments, meaning that the first year of teaching this course is by far the hardest, while subsequent years can be spent researching deeper and perfecting the details. In my first year of history instruction I created 63 lectures which included approximately 4,000 visuals. Over the next two years, while making small adjustments, I added a mere 500 visuals to this total.

In truth, this process has been genuinely beneficial for me as a teacher. For example, lecturing in my first year, it became clear that my knowledge of the Gilded Age was lacking, and thus the topic was underrepresented in my curriculum. In my second year, I read a textbook on this subject, then created two new lectures relevant to it. As a result, I learned many things I would not otherwise have known, and so did my second-year students. I wonder if I would have been so inclined to expand myself in this way had the class structure not required me to be responsible for personally presenting an extended lecture, as opposed to simply letting the book act as the chief reference.

To my mind, the most resonant objection to lecture-based teaching is that it is too teacher-centered, and it can hardly be denied that a fifty-minute class which consists entirely of my speaking about visuals with fairly limited interaction with students certainly fits this description. However, it is important to see the weekly cycle in its larger context. The lecture itself can be viewed as merely the first, "encounter" phase, of a single lesson which extends over four days. Just as students in standard TESOL cannot practice new vocabulary or grammar structures without the teacher introducing these conceptually in some way, neither can the students explore historical themes without first absorbing the structure of the information in an initially somewhat passive manner. Because the range of information being conveyed in a content class is far more extensive than that in a standard TESOL lesson (where the focus tends to be on precision use and practical application of a much smaller amount of material) this encounter phase must be considerably longer when teaching a subject. Nevertheless, it need not be wholly passive, and the note organizer gives students an opportunity to participate in structuring their own encounter. But it is what follows the lecture phase that really shows its merit: with the encounter concluded, the weekly cycle becomes almost totally student-oriented. On the following days for synthesis and practice, the teacher stops communicating information and simply assists the students in exploring it, doing little more than providing a framework for students to internalize the facts they were given in the lecture, and this is especially true on the practice day, which can be so streamlined that on some such days I say essentially nothing in class whatsoever. Thus, while it is true that the lecture day is teacher-oriented, it is teacher-oriented with a purpose.

For all these reasons, then, I believe that lecture is essential to effective teaching in this context. What, then, should such a lecture entail? A standard lecture period in this curriculum has me showing around sixty visuals on the projector, using these as prompts to tie a narrative of eight or

nine topics together. I have found with experimentation that for a fifty minute class, sixty visuals is the sweet spot, allowing sufficient time for elaboration of each. Though it can be time-consuming to compile this many images, the internet is fortunately vast enough that there are very few historical events or concepts for which an effective visual cannot be found with some hunting. (There are exceptions--the Alien and Sedition Acts continue to elude me.) Even after years of constructing and adjusting lectures, I am still learning about what makes for a good lecture visual, and it is far less science than art. In general an image that is large, uncluttered, and which conveys a clear sense of action, theme, or tone with limited need for verbal explanation is ideal.

I further make careful use of short clips from historical movies that effectively build the mood of the class or otherwise depict something that imagination would seem inadequate to depict. Examples include the landing of Columbus in America from *1492,* New World combat between British soldiers and Native Americans in *The Last of the Mohicans,* the breaking of the slave Kunta in *Roots,* the deaths of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson in the miniseries *John Adams,* Pickett's charge from *Gettysburg,* and the Soviet ships turning away from the Cuban blockade in *Thirteen Days.* In later classes, set after the development of the movie camera, the videos can simply be primary sources, such as a news broadcast on the Vietnam War. These clips are all only a few minutes and are intended more as flavor than meat.

It should be noted that Chinese internet censorship, which currently blocks both Google and Youtube, may make it awkward to compile images and functionally impossible to find relevant videos. My curriculum most likely could not be taught without the VPN service which I make use of to bypass the Chinese firewall. This is a good example of how the Chinese government's censorship limits educational opportunities for the Chinese people.

The advantages of using visuals seem readily apparent. Most importantly, they create a context for what I am speaking on which can circumvent gaps in vocabulary. If I show a military scene and my explanation uses the word "soldier," even if a student does not know this word, the image will make it reasonably clear what is happening, and may even inspire a contextual recognition of what the word "soldier" means, which is then associated with a concrete visual image. This sort of visual association is useful not only for absorbing vocabulary but also for retaining historical knowledge itself: surely a student is more likely to recollect an event which they have seen represented by an arresting image than one which is merely conveyed by a few lines of text in a book. Lastly, the visuals naturally maintain interest and attention. Students of this generation are by and large used to staring at screens for a significant portion of their time, and while giving a weekly fifty-minute slide show on a projector will do nothing to abet this tendency, it will at least play to their natural instincts as to how information should be experienced. I have noticed a real contrast in lecturing with and without visuals--on occasions in which I have had to elaborate on something extemporaneously with no pictures to back my words, there is a marked decline in student interest.

I will give a detailed example of the lecture process in the next section, along with samples of visuals I make use of.

III. The Synthesis Day

Having encountered a narrative of the weekly topic, students will make use of various activities on this day which can help them internalize the larger ideas behind the facts.

Chart assembly. This is a tactile exercise which allows students to distinguish information about different groups, individuals, cultures, etc. Students make use of terms written on post-its or other small papers and arrange them into a logical order. In its simplest form, the teacher might simply create two lists, such as the one below, then mix up the terms. Students will then work in groups to put the lists into their proper order. Here, students must match specific causes and effects:

Problems in the Gilded Age	Responses in the Progressive Era
Laborers have difficult working conditions, but are unable to organize effectively	The AFL and the IWW are developed to support strikes
The spoils system allows government officials to give important positions to their friends	Chester A. Arthur creates the Civil Service Commission
A few powerful corporations control much of American business	Congress passes the Sherman Antitrust Act, and Theodore Roosevelt becomes famous as a trustbuster
Cities have poor living conditions, especially for immigrants	Charitable organizations such as Hull House appear in communities
Women are denied the right to vote	Protests and hunger strikes push passage of the 19th amendment
Newspapers are often unreliable and corrupt	Independent muckrakers like Upton Sinclair research social problems
Workers wages are low, pushing them to support revolutionary ideas	Henry Ford develops his economic philosophy, Fordism, for making factories more efficient

Charts can be considerably more complex than the above. For example, one might contrast the colonies of the Spanish, English, and French in terms of their locations, goals, populations, and relationship with Native Americans. This would require a grid with many rows and columns. Depending on the intricacy, this activity might reasonably take from five to twenty minutes.

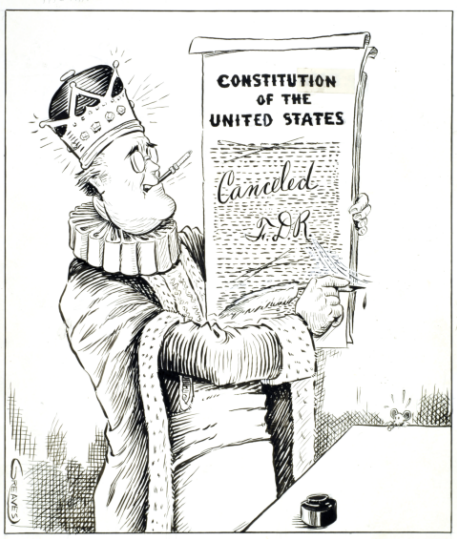
This is an exercise which promotes group discussion, gives history an internal logic, makes education goal-oriented, and allows students to learn with their hands. When the list is complete, it also provides students with a useful summary for reference--my students often like to store pictures on their phones of these lists for later study.

Primary source response. This exercise is the usual way in which my students encounter original historical texts in this class. As I discussed earlier, I feel that using such sources is often problematic in this context, and so must be selected carefully for clarity and length. One type of primary source which fills this need admirably is famous quotations, as they tend to encapsulate poignant ideas in succinct language. Therefore, in the week which opens the Civil War, I might place the following on the projector:

> "You people of the South don't know what you are doing. This country will be drenched in blood, and God only knows how it will end... You mistake, too, the people of the North. They are a peaceable people but an earnest people, and they will fight, too. They are not going to let this country be destroyed without a mighty effort to save it... Besides, where are your men and appliances of war to contend against them? The North can make a steam engine, locomotive, or railway car; hardly a yard of cloth or pair of shoes can you make."
>
> --William Tecumseh Sherman (1860)

Students will read through this, parsing the meaning with their dictionaries, and then comment on Sherman's meaning either by group discussion or individual writing. The teacher can leave the interpretation wholly to the students, or prompt them with focus questions: what does Sherman predict will happen? What does this quote say about how Southerners perceived Northerners? Why does Sherman feel the North has the advantage?

This is an example of how a simple primary source can be used in a low-English class in a focused activity, which can be shortened or extended depended on the difficulty of the quote. Around a third of the way through the course, the teacher can increasingly begin to make use of another form of primary source, one that is usually equally accessible to native speakers and ESL



learners alike: political cartoons. Being visually oriented, these are very well-suited for this context, and can be fruitful prompts for discussion.

Theme listing: This is a fairly straightforward activity for lessons that introduce many broad ideas, as opposed to classes that are more event-oriented. In this sort of class, I try to make sure that students develop an awareness of these ideas by having them assemble lists in groups, using prompts to guide them. Thus, for a class on the Progressive Era, I might put on the board the following:

Tell me...

-Three reasons the women's suffrage movement was successful

-Three reasons that life improved for American workers in this period

-Three accomplishments of the American Federation of Labor

-Three reasons America resisted socialism

Students discuss these in groups by consulting their organizers, then report when called on, with the teacher commenting on their answers. There is no particular reason the prompts need to require three items, but I have a--possibly wholly unjustified--belief that it is easier for students to retain lists of three.

The purpose of this exercise, again, is simply to make explicit the larger ideas contained within the weekly topic. It is an intermediate activity between being a fully teacher-centered and a fully student-centered exploration of historical concepts, in which the teacher gives the framework of

the themes and the students fill in the specifics--just as on the previous day the teacher gave the framework of *factual details* and the students filled in the specifics for these during lecture.

This is a good discussion activity and can often take up a large part of a fifty-minute class.

Map building. This is the counterpart to the timeline fill at the end of the weekly cycle, focusing on the where rather than the when. This sort of exercise can encompass many different kinds of mapping, making use of the following criteria:

1. Students are given an outline map and clear instructions as to what to show.

2. Students collaborate with their peers by consulting the map visuals used in the teacher's lecture (depending on the lesson, I will often have several of these), and should decide for themselves which maps are relevant to their needs.

3. As much as possible, students draw/fill in information on the map themselves as opposed to labeling pre-existing features.

Thus for a class on French colonization, I might give student an outline map of North America with no other markings on it. I would then ask them to show the following:

Territories: Quebec, Hudson Bay, Louisiana

Cities: Quebec, St. Louis, New Orleans

Expeditions of: Cartier, Champlain, Joliet

At this point I would remove myself from the center of attention and turn over the projector to the students, who are free to come to the front and look through the maps used as images in my lecture (presented the day before) and flip between them. This creates a collaborative effort as students discuss and identify the maps together, and help them to familiarize themselves with these specific maps and map use in general. The teacher's absence encourages students to take the lead themselves, which makes for a more personalized, community-based activity.

I keep on hand a set of colored pencils for students to color in regions and other geographical details during map work. There is a curious artistic urge that kicks in during these activities--even for teenagers, the act of creating images with color remains instinctively compelling. I find that Chinese teens tend to be far less inclined than their American counterparts to demonstrate an overstated maturity (one which might quail at an activity involving coloring), and so they are more likely to have fun during this part of the class.

I feel that the tactile act of creating a map from a simple starting point, especially when done as a group, helps students to mentally emphasize locations and historical events already discussed. In the above example, drawing out the Cartier expedition does not simply show where Cartier went, it works to build retention about who Cartier was and what he did, providing additional visual and tactile linkages to the reading and listening information already received. Another reason for this activity is simply that Chinese students also tend to have indifferent skills in geography, so I find that it is desirable to work to develop these for a history class, especially when they are dealing with cultures and regions that are very foreign to them.

Map building need not be done on a grand scale. For example, for the class discussing the Battles of Lexington and Concord, I provide a map of the road west from Boston and have students detail where certain events occurred along this length.

This activity can vary in length according to complexity. The example on French colonization I described above would probably have taken my average student twenty minutes.

Character journals. History can feel impersonal, and this can be a challenge difficult to overcome when teaching about events detached so far in time, distance, and culture from the students as this curriculum is. One means by which I have attempted to address this is by having students create character journals, in which they assume the identity of an invented historical American and write from a first-person perspective each week on the events about which we have learned. Important to this activity is the idea of *continuity*--since this is a full survey class, the journals are able to follow numerous generations of the same American family and report on their changing lifestyles and experiences during major events.

A useful point to begin following the family's story is Class 12 (The French and Indian War), since this is the point at which events in the class's narrative begin to slow down considerably. Prior to this there are often jumps of many decades between lectures, which would make any sort of continuity in journaling difficult. However, the same generation of Americans who were young adults during the French and Indian War will also live through all the events of the time of the revolution, making for an eventful life for the first member of the student's family. Starting at this point also has the advantage of following classes on Native Americans and African Americans, giving students the opportunity to assume the identity of a member of these groups if they wish.

I begin the process of journal writing by giving students a worksheet, shown in the materials section of this paper, to help outline their family's origins. Ideally, this will help orient them in terms of the many identities possible for an American at this time and give inspiration as to certain aspects of their character that might inspire their writing.

I have learned that it is useful to give students a fairly detailed prompt to write on. For the first journal, this might be:

The French and Indian War is over, and the king has passed a law saying that no Americans can settle in Ohio. You or a member of your family were involved in the war. What was your experience? How do you feel about the king's proclamation?

One means of increasing personalization and encouraging collaboration is to have students write letters to one another, reacting to recent events from their perspective. In the following week, students can write a reply.

I give students fifteen to twenty minutes to write in their journals. This seems like an especially good time to put on period music in the background.

In practice, I have found that there are notable barriers to the effectiveness of this activity. I believe personal journals have great learning potential, but they can be problematic in several ways. One reason has to do with a factor mentioned earlier: Chinese lack of cultural background which prevents them from having a general sense of the era. For example, when I most recently had students fill the worksheets to define their identity in colonial times, several described an industrial lifestyle suggestive of a 9-5 factory worker. Despite having an entire week devoted to discussing life in colonial times, it can be difficult in a fast-moving survey class to fully convey to modern students the vast distance between now and then. Another problem is that intellectual understanding of a topic does not really translate into knowing how to write about it. For example, the majority of my students now know what a Quaker is and could define their beliefs

when asked. But assuming the identity of a Quaker involves something more subtle than simple knowledge of an encyclopedic definition, and students seem hesitant to go beyond very simple generalities in their writing--essentially, their American identities tend to be interchangeable. I increasingly feel that this activity necessitates some degree of research, but the difficulty this would entail seems like it might be impractical for a once-a-week creative exercise. Above all, I think this activity is challenging because Chinese students are not routinely encouraged in their schooling to be particularly inventive or to hypothesize. Thus many of my students simply make use of their journals to write barely first-person summaries of all the events discussed in the previous week, as opposed to attempting to make a few of these events at all personal or dramatized. This is at least productive for practice and retention in its way, but it falls short of the possibilities inherent in weaving together a multi-generational story that spans the scope of American history. I am continuing to consider ways to expand this activity and encourage student involvement in the lives of their American *alter egos*.

Special activities. The synthesis day is meant to be the most flexible day of the cycle, since there are many ways to emphasize the important ideas of the weekly lecture. While the above activities are the ones I most commonly make use of, many topics are rich with unique opportunities for activities relevant to their themes. A few examples:

Columbus: To show the world-changing significance of trade, I posit a thought experiment in which a new mineral with significant potential for energy production is found only in Mongolia. How would this affect Mongolia itself, neighboring countries like China, distant established powers like America, and energy producers like Saudi Arabia? Students discuss this in groups and share their ideas with the class. This hopefully emphasizes why something as seemingly simple as trade in spices so radically affected history.

Slavery: In this class, I tell a few (especially good-natured) students that they will take on the roles of serving other students. They are given candy to pass out to the others, taking none themselves, and then are made to clean up the wrappers. (This is an example of the rare activity I am more comfortable making use of in China--a country where slavery has no real historic resonance--than I would be in America.) Afterwards, I inquire as to how everyone feels about what just occurred. Some students who were not selected to serve the others will invariably say they felt rather guilty, at which point we explore why people in society might acquiesce to something that is unjust without saying anything. We also discuss what the long-term effects might be of having students regularly doing work for other students, on both parties. This is intended to give students a view of slavery from various viewpoints,

The Declaration of Independence: While rote memorization is a staple of Chinese education, it is not something I make use of in my class--the sole exception being the opening words of the Declaration of Independence, which strike me as being sufficiently iconic and poetic that I feel it is worthwhile for the class to spend a portion of the lesson trying to remember them by heart. Perhaps there are not really significant educational benefits to having Chinese students relate that the rights of man are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, but I confess it is very personally rewarding as a teacher of American history for me to witness.

The Constitution: This class features a voting procedure to illustrate the reasoning behind the Connecticut Compromise, which created America's two-chamber legislative branch. I first divide the class into a few "big states" with many students, and several "small states" with few students. I then have states hold two votes on which of these groups--big states or small states--should get the contents of a bag of candy, first counting by population, allowing every student to vote, then merely counting one representative vote for each state. In each of these rounds of voting one of

the groups will necessarily be denied the candy, emphasizing the need for a system balanced between these two extremes.

I also make use of a potent piece of realia in this lesson: my never-used absentee ballot from the 2012 presidential election. Having received it in China too late to return it, I have retained it to pass around to my students during this class in order to give them a concrete example of the workings of democracy. I first show President Obama's name on the ballot as a reference for something familiar to the students, then note the candidates of the various other parties also available for selection in the presidential race. I further show the nominees for Senate and House of Representatives, reminding the students of the system introduced in the previous activity. Lastly, I demonstrate the local races and measures, making clear that democracy is both wide and small in scope. My students seem very interested, even excited, to be able to see and touch this ballot (one begged me to let him keep it; and an assistant of mine asked to borrow it briefly to show her family), and I suspect it is an understated but powerful experience for them.

Free Silver: One point I would like to emphasize is that Chinese high-school ESL students are quite capable of understanding complex ideas when they are presented in simple, fluid language. This may seem self-evident, but it is can be easy at times to unthinkingly equate language ability with analytical ability, or simply to assume that there is no way to activate analytical ability because of the limitations of language ability. In truth, it seems to me that far less language than is usually assumed is needed to explore difficult concepts, as long as this language is carefully chosen and logically organized. In the materials section of this paper is a worksheet which I designed for group work to help students understand what I feel is the single hardest concept in the entire two-year curriculum to explain: the Free Silver Movement of the late 1800s. The ideas of this movement are sufficiently convoluted that I simply left Free Silver out of my first year

curriculum, but as it intersects with so many important economic concepts, I felt it was worth exploring in my second year. The worksheet attempts to take students step-by-step through the somewhat abstract reasoning undergirding the desire of American farmers for a silver-based currency at this time. Although it might take an entire period to complete, with my presence required for explanations throughout, I have been pleased with student understanding of this highly difficult concept.

World War I: It can be difficult to summarize the origins of World War I in this course because they are enormously complex and because the opening stages do not involve America. This is a case where some kinesthetic activity can help to clarify a very chaotic event. I thus designate certain students as representing certain countries--Serbia, Austria, Germany, Russia, France, Belgium, Britain, Turkey, America--and two others to portray the to-be-slain Austrian Archduke and Archduchess. I then make clear an explicit chain of alliance links which requires students to "defend" other countries by throwing wadded paper at the nation acting aggressively towards their ally. At last, I instruct the student representing Serbia to proceed with the assassination. This causes Austria to intervene against Serbia, which brings in Russia to attack Austria, which sets into motion a wild chain reaction of flung papers all over the room. It is not the most academic activity in my curriculum, but it has a certain vividness.

The Vietnam War: Throughout the class, I consistently attempt to show Americans at odds with one another, since I feel it important that Chinese see that being in lockstep ideology is contrary to American culture and values. I further try to show that such contention often results in positive changes, and that it does not (a notable exception aside) bring about violent clashes in society. During the first week in which we look at the Vietnam War, I highlight conflicting views on the conflict by showing brief scenes from two movies: *The Green Berets,* in which Americans in

Vietnam are portrayed as noble and paternalistic, and *Apocalypse Now,* in which the Americans are seen as aggressors without empathy. I then ask students to discuss what they have seen, contrasting the viewpoints contained in each. The primary purpose of this activity is to demonstrate that Americans have a wide variety of views of their own behavior, some of which are intensely self-critical, and, significantly, that there is an outlet for such self-criticism in American media.

IV. The Practice Day

This day usually consists of three activities which serve as review in addition to allowing students to practice writing, reading, and speaking, in that order.

The first activity is dependent on the specific nature of the lesson during that week. Certain lectures in the yearly sequence are more *event-based*, while others are more *concept-based.* An example of the former type would be the lesson on the Revolutionary War, which consists mainly of a series of battles, retreats, and negotiations: the Battle of Trenton, the winter at Valley Forge, the French Alliance, the Treaty of Paris, etc. An example of the latter type would be the lesson on slavery, in which the focus is not on specific datable events but rather on general concepts such as the triangular trade, the Middle Passage, slave codes, and plantations.

Because in the former example, the specific order of events is important to understanding the narrative, weekly lessons making use of this topic structure will begin the practice day with an *ordering* activity. By contrast, in the latter example, the meaning of events is more important than the chronology, and so such weeks will make use of a *matching* activity. These are fairly light exercises, meant to provide an easy lead-up to the more difficult cloze which follows them.

Ordering in groups. This activity is fairly simple and student-centered. I divide students into groups of five or so, then hand out about ten blank post-it notes. I instruct the students that they should write about one event from the lecture on each of these notes (with each student thus writing about two events), preferably without looking at their note organizers. Students then discuss in groups the significant events which made up the lesson and assign duties for dividing the writing up of each of these. When this is complete, they get up and stand in line, holding up the post-its in the order the events occurred, while the teachers moves from student to student checking the accuracy of their descriptions and ordering.

This activity requires students to recall the lesson in group discussion, to move deeper into detail than the eight or nine topics on the organizers (which are often not events, but contain links to events), to make use of proper chronology, and to practice writing about history without references. It is also tactile, kinesthetic, and totally student-led. The teacher need only pass out blank papers and quietly check on the final product.

Matching in groups. In this activity, the students again make use of small papers to write on, but arrange them by meaning instead of chronology. The teacher will provide each student with four post-its: two blanks, two with topic names already written. If, as in the example earlier, the student were given the topics of plantations and the triangular trade, he or she would then write a description identifying the nature of these things, without using the names themselves in the description. The teacher then collects the papers with the topic name and places them on the board, and the students swap the written descriptions among themselves. They must then come to the front of the class and, making use of the descriptions provided by the other students, match the topic name to its definition.

This is another simple warm-up activity with most of the benefits of the above exercise. Each of these can be done in about ten minutes.

Categorizing in groups. This is a third variation on the above two activities, which is easier with a larger-sized class. It involves no writing and can be useful for review before tests. In this activity, the students are each given a paper labeled with a wide range of topics from several different lectures. As a simple example:

James Madison	The War of 1812	John Quincy Adams
Impressment	The Battle of New Orleans	The American System
The Democratic Party	The Whig Party	Martin Van Buren
Tecumseh	Henry Clay	The Orders in Council

Students then circulate around the classroom, grouping with other students conceptually in ways that make sense to them, whether straightforward or elaborate. There are many different ways the topics from the above list could be organized. Students might place all the presidents together or divide them into a more detailed classification, such as distinguishing one-term and two-term presidents, or Whigs and Democrats. *Impressment* and *The Orders in Council* could be put together with *The War of 1812,* describing cause and effect, or else students might say that *Andrew Jackson* and *Tecumseh* were the most significant military leaders of this war. *Henry Clay* and *John Quincy Adams* supported *The American System,* an important policy of *The Whig Party*, and so on. The rules are flexible and the possibilities wide, increasing exponentially with the number of topics given. The key here is that the teacher keeps circulating with the students, eliciting explanations from small groups, then breaking them up and encouraging them to create

another with a different rationale. This is a fast-moving activity that requires a fair amount of discussion and knowledge of history.

Fill in the cloze. One of my students, prompted for feedback about the course, wrote that the cloze was one of the most difficult parts of his week--but, he then conceded, perhaps one of the most helpful. His assessment seems a fair one to me. The cloze is simply a fill-in-the-blank exercise in which the choices are the topics from the note organizer and a handful of other relevant terms provided by the teacher. It is placed on the projector for students to work on collaboratively. When most of the students have completed the cloze, I then hand two pieces of chalk to two students. They come to the board, where I have written numbers corresponding to the number of blanks in the cloze, then each write down one of the answers, after which they pass their chalk to another student. In this way the cloze is filled in a group, with any errors tending to be caught by the class and addressed without any need for my intervention--a lack of participation on my part being one of the priorities of this day. This also renders the activity more kinesthetic, bringing some energy into an exercise which some students, like the one quoted earlier, may find a little overbearing.

The value of the cloze is that it serves both as heavy content review and reading practice--it is something almost akin to a test, albeit one done informally as a class. I have become increasingly daring about the language I use in the cloze over the course of my development as a content teacher. When first beginning, my initial instinct was to be conservative and focus on historical comprehension, and thus I made the language quite simple. More and more, however, I find that the context clues and set choices for fills enable even fairly low students to interact with text at a level of difficulty comparable to a high school textbook. For example:

At (1), the delegates debated over the way to structure (2) of the new government. Large states wanted votes by population, and small states wanted equal representation. At last, after (3), it was agreed to divide the lawmaking body into two parts: a (4), which helps to protect the rights of the small states, and a (5), which allows larger states to have their votes fairly counted. These two groups vote on laws; in the case of a tie in the senate (6) casts the deciding vote. Another concern of the founders was the interpretation of laws. Therefore (7) was created to say what the Constitution means when there is confusion. In each question the nine (8) will vote and the majority will decide.

Though I sympathize with my weary student, my class is designed for American high school and university preparation, and thus it seems advisable to provide experience in engaging with texts at this level.

The cloze can take twenty or twenty-five minutes. I find having around fourteen blanks is challenging without being overlong.

Speak on visuals. The practice day closes on a speaking activity. Speaking seems underrepresented in my curriculum and I struggle to push Chinese students to do more of it. Some speaking is done in class discussion activities, but these are not an extremely large portion of the weekly schedule. This exercise helps to fill this shortfall. It is quite simple in conception: I place a visual from the weekly lecture on the projector, give the class approximately thirty seconds to review their organizers or discuss the image with their neighbors, then call on a student to tell me about it. What is happening in this picture? Why is this significant to our lesson? If answers are halting, I can encourage students by back-and-forth questioning. As with the above activities, this exercise serves as review while simultaneously focusing on a skill.

I spend about fifteen minutes a week on this activity. Larger classes might require more time to give all students the opportunity to speak. Since this activity is so simple, it can easily be used to fill gaps in teaching when lessons run short. It is also very useful for test review.

Sample Lesson

This chapter will show how the above activities are put into practice in a lesson from the weekly cycle, in this case, a class on the Washington Presidency. This is a difficult topic to teach on, in part because of Washington's somewhat inscrutable personality, and in part because this era sees the formation of American party-based politics, which, since it was something very new, occurred in a confused and uncertain way. The clash between the two parties of Federalists and Antifederalists, with Washington inclined towards the former's view but refusing to openly take sides, is an intricate but important topic that requires careful explanation and exploration.

I. The Preview Day. The first part of the class will be dedicated to closing the previous week on the Bill of Rights. Before students enter I will place on the projector Norman's Rockwell's painting of Freedom of Speech, using for music a compilation of the classical music of Aaron Copland, which to me always evokes a special Americana.

I will ask students to write their three essential learnings from the previous class. They know the routine well and will not need explanation. I will point out that because they are writing three items on a list of the ten amendments in the Bill of Rights, they should attempt to summarize the core ideas of these amendments. When the students are ready, I will ask three of them to read one item each. I am hoping to hear ideas like the following: "Several amendments in the Bill of Rights protect Americans from being unfairly sent to prison by the government."

As students are writing, I will put on the board the events which they should enter into their timeline. This was not a particularly event-based class, so there are not many to be added. I will use: *The Federalist Papers are Written; the Constitution in Passed; the Bill of Rights is Added to*

the Constitution. Dates for each of these are already printed on the students' organizers. Students take out their timelines, make an addition for Class 19 at the bottom, and plot the dates relative to previous classes. Students who finish this first will then take out their textbooks and begin reviewing for the reading check.

When the last student puts away his or her timeline, I tell the students that we are moving into week 20, then stop the music. I change the picture on the projector to an image of George Washington with the number "1" printed at the bottom. (The White House website has pictures like this for all of the presidents, and I will make use of each one as we move through the course give the transition from president to president a sense of progression and consistency.) I then change the music to a more period-appropriate compilation of colonial flute and fiddle songs.

For five minutes students review the material they read over the weekend. They will take notes on hard-to-remember names like "Alexander Hamilton" and difficult words like "treasury" which they will find useful in writing their summary. When this time is done, I tell the students to put away their reading and begin writing.

Students write for ten to fifteen minutes. The text they have read will have related a brief outline of the manner in which Washington assumed the presidency and the prominence of Hamilton and Jefferson in his administration. If the students can give a sense of this in their summary, I will consider that the groundwork has been laid for constructing the framework of the lesson.

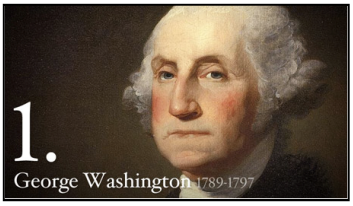
At the end of this time I will collect the summaries, which serve as homework for the previous Friday. While the students were writing, I put on the board the preview discussion question for the week: "What effect is there on a country if the government has many parties?" I briefly explain that a party is a group of people in the government with the same ideas. I remind them

that China has one party, while America has two that are powerful. Most likely the students are getting a better sense of the word from looking it up in personal e-dictionaries as I speak than from my explanation (more on this later), but this is fine. I stop the music to allow five minutes or so of discussion, then call on two students from different groups to share what conclusions they arrived at. I expect to hear something about how parties can cause dissension or inefficiency. I want students to consider that parties can also have positive effects, and if I hear none I will ask them to consider for the week ahead how parties could be of benefit to people.

On the first day of the week, students are always given research homework. (Homework will be discussed in greater detail in the next chapter.) Tonight they should look up Alexander Hamilton and summarize significant facts about him.

II. The Lecture Day. I will have a new image from my lecture on the projector as class begins, and be playing from the same music throughout the week. Before class begins I will pass out the weekly note organizer for Week 20 to each student. (This can be seen at the end of this paper.) I will clear the board and write at the top: "Week 20: The Washington Presidency." Throughout this class I will be constructing a steadily growing list on the whiteboard distinguishing the two political parties discussed in this lecture. This list will be key to this week's lesson.

When the period begins, I stop the music and begin my lecture. Below I will show the images used in Class 20, along with the descriptions I speak to make their significance clear. What is key to using these visuals is that each serves as a prompt for my memory, reminding me of a few significant facts that flow together from one visual to another. Thus, I do not need to use notes or memorize a lecture structure, because *the visuals inherently contain the narrative.*



1. We've spent a lot of time with George Washington in this class, but we haven't spoken much about him as a person. This can be really hard to do, because Washington is such a famous, respected man that it can be hard to see what kind of person he truly was. He also didn't like to show his feelings, which made it hard to know what he was thinking. Let's try to get a sense of who he was.

2. Probably the most famous story about him isn't even true. It says that Washington as a boy was given an axe, which he loved to use to chop down trees. One tree he tried to chop down was his father's favorite cherry tree. When his father learned about this, he asked Washington who had done it. Washington said he couldn't lie, and told his father he was responsible. Unfortunately, this story was made up, but it shows something about Washington: people believed that he was always honest.

3. As we saw earlier, Washington first became famous when he was a young man as a leader in the French and Indian War. We saw how he delivered a message to the French and fought the first battle in that war. Then he was defeated, and he needed to work to make people trust him again.

4. Washington was from a good family, but he made most of his money by marrying well. His wife was named Martha, and she was a wealthy woman with much land. They had a good marriage, though they never had children. It is interesting that the man called "The Father of the Country" never had children himself.

5. His home was at a site in Virginia called Mount Vernon, where he lived in a beautiful plantation house.

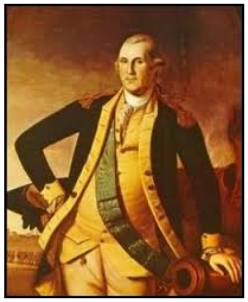
6. You can still go to Mount Vernon and see it today. It's a famous place to visit in Virginia.

7. Of course, because this was a plantation, there were many farms on his land worked by slaves. Washington had hundreds of slaves. It can be difficult to understand how a man who said he believed in freedom could own slaves. You can decide for yourself if Washington was dishonest, or just a complicated person.

8. Another famous story is about Washington's teeth. He lost his teeth early and it's said he replaced them with wooden teeth. Actually, this story isn't true either. He had false teeth, but they were made from animal bones.

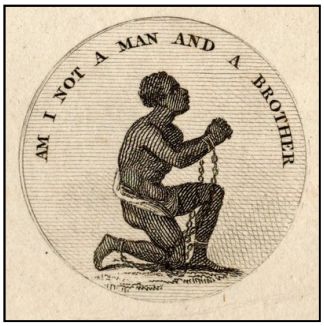
9. Earlier, we saw Benjamin Franklin on the one hundred dollar bill, the largest piece of American money. Washington's face is on the smallest American paper money: the one dollar bill.

10. He's also on the quarter, the coin that's worth 25 cents. On the other side of the quarter, we see the bald eagle, which we talked about in the class on American symbols.



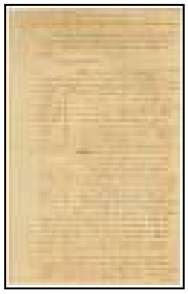
11. As we saw, Washington was popular and respected enough that he was chosen to lead the Continental Army at the Second Continental Congress. When the war was over, Washington wanted to return to his old life. Many people thought he could be the leader of the country--even a king. But Washington really wasn't interested in being powerful, and so he returned to Mount Vernon. His old enemy, King George, heard about this, and said that Washington was an amazing man for giving up so much power.

12. But when the Constitution was passed, a president had to be chosen, and Washington was the only man whom everyone respected. Everyone knew it had to be him. And so, although he didn't really want to do it, he agreed to serve the country again. He became the first president, with John Adams as the first vice-president.

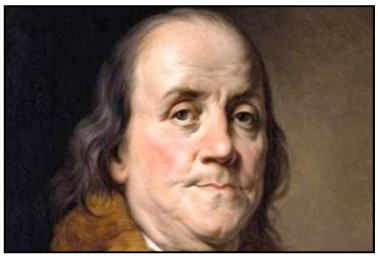


13. One of the first issues Washington and the other members of the American government had to deal with was about slavery. This was a problem that nobody really knew how to solve.

14. The story goes like this. A group of Quakers came to congress one day. If you remember from the lesson on the 13 Colonies, Quakers are a religious group who are against war and slavery.

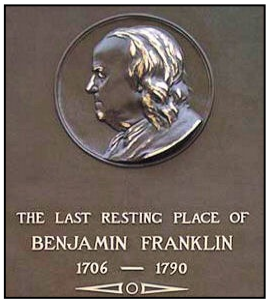


15. They came with a *petition*--a paper asking for a change that many people agreed with. The petition requested that congress vote to end slavery, because slavery was against American values. Of course, many people in congress thought there was no reason to listen to these Quakers, until they learned who was supporting them...



16. ...Benjamin Franklin himself. Franklin was very old now, and he had decided that before he died, he wanted to work to stop slavery. Of course, everyone listened to Franklin. After Washington, he was the most respected man in America. Washington himself felt that slavery should end someday. But very few people were ready to end it now, especially people from the south. It made people too angry to talk about--so angry that it might destroy the country.

17. And so Washington and his allies supported an agreement that America wouldn't change anything about slavery for 18 years. Until 1808, they wouldn't even discuss it. It was just too dangerous. In the end, this meant that slavery would continue until 1865--for another 75 years.



18. This was the last great thing that Franklin did. A few months later he died at age 84. He was the first of the founding fathers to die, and he is still one of the most respected Americans in history.

At this point I will point out to the students that the argument over slavery shows a growing division in the American government. I then place on the board the following heading and items:

WASHINGTON AND HIS ALLIES	**PEOPLE OPPOSED TO WASHINGTON**
Want slavery to end very slowly	*Want slavery to continue*

I next elicit from the class which people in the country were likely to support an eventual end to slavery and which were not, adding the following items to the list:

Supported more by northerners	*Supported more by southerners*
Supported more by industry	*Supported more by farmers*

This list will continue to grow as the lecture proceeds.

19. One of the most important supporters of Washington in the new government was the Secretary of the Treasury, Alexander Hamilton. We met him before. He fought in the Battle of Yorktown and helped write the Federalist Papers. He had been born on an island in the Caribbean, and his family wasn't as wealthy or educated as the other founding fathers, so he often felt he had to prove himself to them.

20. He was very clever and hard-working, but he could be rude and he often did whatever he wanted. This made many people dislike him. Jefferson, Adams, and Madison all hated him. In fact, a good thing to remember in this class is that almost everyone hates Hamilton. We'll see what happens later because of this. There was one person who liked him, however: Washington. Hamilton was Washington's assistant in the Revolution, and the two men were very close. In some ways, Hamilton was like the son Washington didn't have.

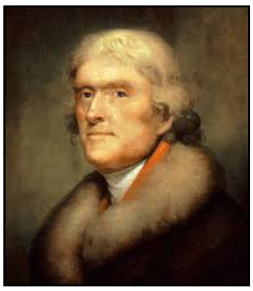
21. Hamilton's face is on the ten dollar bill, even though he was never a president. This shows that people believed his ideas were very important for the new country.

22. As Secretary of the Treasury, it was Hamilton's job to try to make the economy work. He was smart enough to see that the new country's economy had lots of problems. His idea to fix this was simple--he would create a national bank that would have power over America's economy. This would do several things...

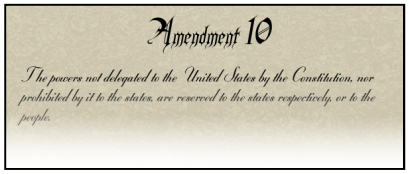
23. It would help to pay back the money that the states had borrowed to pay for the expensive revolution.

24. It would help to make American money the same everywhere. You might remember that every state had different kinds of money. Imagine if you couldn't use Shanghai money in Beijing. It would make the economy very disorganized.

25. The bank would also be used to help support businesses and industry. This made it more popular in the north, but less so in the south.



26. Washington agreed that the bank was a good idea, but one person was especially against it: Thomas Jefferson. Jefferson and his supporters didn't like it because it would help industry, not farming.

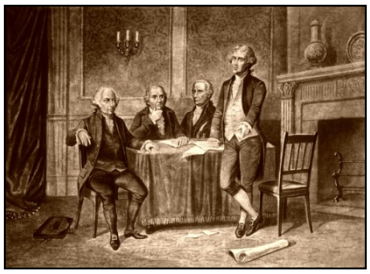


27. And they also felt it went against the 10th amendment, which we talked about last week. This says that the government can only do what the Constitution lets it do--and Jefferson didn't think the Constitution gave the government any power to make a bank. That wasn't part of its job, and it might make the government too powerful. More and more, Jefferson and his allies began to go against the ideas of Washington and his supporters. And since Washington didn't like to get into arguments with people, he often let Hamilton speak for him and the people who shared his beliefs.

Here I add to the list describing Washington and his opposition the following items:

Support a national bank *Think the bank is against the Constitution*

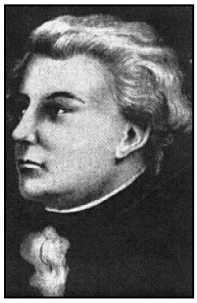
Spoken for by Hamilton *Spoken for by Jefferson*



28. Then something unusual took place. One night, Jefferson and Hamilton were together at a dinner party, and they began to talk. As it happened, they both had something the other wanted. Hamilton wanted his bank. What did Jefferson want?

29. At the time there was another argument going on: where should America's capital be? Remember, Washington D.C. didn't exist yet, and the government was meeting in many different cities. Everyone wanted to build a new capital, but where? People in the south wanted it in the south, and people in the north wanted it in the north.

30. This was the deal that Hamilton and Jefferson made at the party: Hamilton would get the bank, and Jefferson would get a capital in the south. Virginia and Maryland would each give up a little land and the new city would be built in between them, on the Potomac River. The land would be called the District of Columbia, and the city would be named after Washington. It wouldn't be part of any state.



31. A French architect, Pierre L'Enfant, designed the new city. It took many years to build, and much of it was built by slaves.

32. Of course today it is one of the most important cities in America, with many world-famous sights and museums.

33. Alexander Hamilton wasn't done making trouble, though. Let's talk about another event that has to do with an important product made and sold by many Americans: whiskey, a popular alcoholic drink. The country needed money, especially for its new capital, and Hamilton's idea was to push a tax on making whiskey.

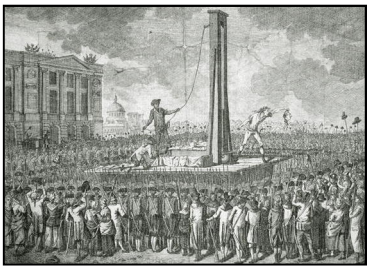
34. Many people who made their living selling whiskey became angry about this. Remember, this was a country that had many economic problems, and they had gotten used to protesting for their rights. A large group of people in Pennsylvania got together and started a small rebellion--destroying things and causing trouble.

35. Washington quickly rode with soldiers to put down the rebellion--the only president ever to lead men into battle while president. When the people heard he was coming, they quickly ran away. The little rebellion was over quickly. But it had the effect of dividing the country more.

36. Jefferson's party was uncomfortable with this event. It seemed like the bad old days--a leader named George was taxing the people too much, and trying to stop them from protesting what he did. Would Washington have sent soldiers to stop the Boston Tea Party? But Hamilton's party saw no problem with the tax, and didn't understand why people were angry. It wasn't like the people had no choice. The tax had been passed by a government elected by the people. If the people didn't like it, they could always vote for new leaders to stop it.

37. Meanwhile another event was occurring across the ocean which caused new arguments in America. This was the revolution in France.

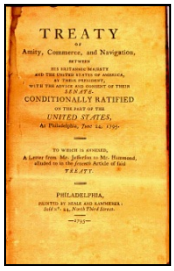
38. Like the Americans, the French were rebelling against a king, Louis XVI, whom they felt took away their rights. Remember that the French had supported America during their revolution against Britain.. For this reason, Jefferson and his supporters, who hated kings and really believed that the people had the right to be free from their government, felt that America should support the French.



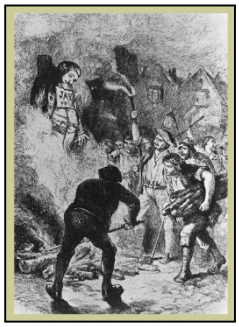
39. But Washington and his followers worried the revolution was going too far--especially when the French finally cut off the heads of the king and queen. For Washington, this was too much. The American revolution had changed a lot, but they hadn't killed King George!

40. This revolution led to a long war between England and France. America had to decide who to support. Jefferson, of course, thought America should help France. England was their old enemy, and France was their old friend.

41. But Washington felt it was safer to keep England happy, and so he sent John Jay to London to negotiate. You might remember that John Jay helped negotiated the Treaty of Paris. He also wrote some of the Federalist papers.



42. Jay made an agreement that America would not support France in this war, and that it would be friendly to England. This was called the Jay Treaty, and it made many Americans very angry.



43. Some people even made dolls of John Jay so they could burn them. Jefferson and his friends didn't do that, but they strongly disagreed with Washington's decision.

By this point I have added more items to our list:

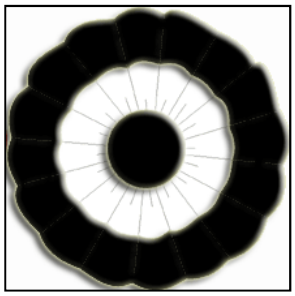
Support the Whiskey Tax	*Uncomfortable with federal taxes*
Support using force against the Whiskey Rebellion	*Uncomfortable with stopping protests with an army*
Feel the French Revolution went too far	*Support the ideals of the French Revolution*
Support the Jay Treaty	*Against the Jay Treaty*

Now I cross out the headings at the top of the list:

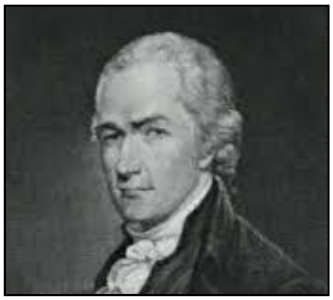
~~**WASHINGTON AND HIS ALLIES**~~ ~~**PEOPLE OPPOSED TO WASHINGTON**~~

and write, above these, new headings:

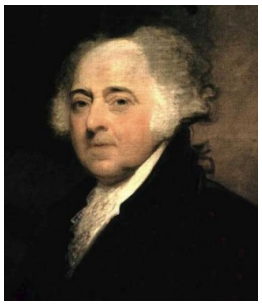
FEDERALISTS **ANTIFEDERALISTS**



44. And so as you can see, the government had really divided into two parties with two totally different sets of beliefs. After a while, these parties began to get names. The ones who, like Washington, supported a stronger federal government, were called the Federalists, and they used this symbol to identify themselves.

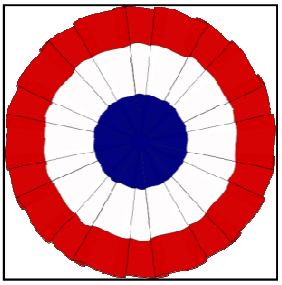


45. They were led by Alexander Hamilton.



46. Other important supporters were the vice-president, John Adams...

47. ...and of course, John Jay, who had been the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court before negotiating the Jay Treaty.

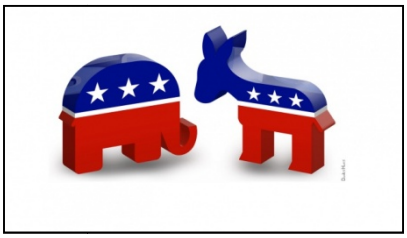


48. The other party, which was against a strong government, was the Antifederalists. They used a symbol similar to the Federalists, but with more color.

49. Jefferson, as we know, was their leader.

50. James Madison, the Father of the Constitution and Jefferson's close friend, was another important Antifederalist.

51. So was Patrick Henry, who still believed, "Give me liberty, or give me death."



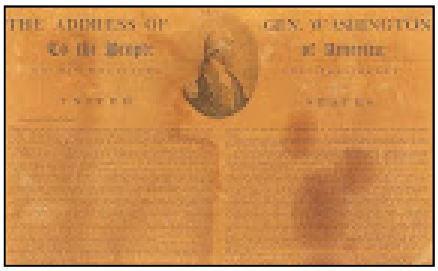
52. In a short time, then, the new American government had divided into two parties, and it would never really come together again. For the rest of America's history until today, there would be two parties in the government. And though those parties would change names and ideas, they are really still divided over the same thing. One party usually prefers a government with more powers, the other usually prefers a government with fewer powers. The Democrats and Republicans of today are in many ways similar to the Federalists and Antifederalists of Washington's time.

Here I will add to the list:

Want a more powerful federal government *Want a less powerful federal government*

53. But where was Washington in all this? How did he feel about parties? In fact, he hated them. He felt that fighting in the government would make the country weaker. Although he agreed more with the Federalist side, he never openly supported it. He always refused to be part of any party.

54. Washington was tired and his health was getting poorer. He had now been president for eight years. He knew he would be elected for president again if he ran a third time, but he felt that to do this any longer would make one man too powerful. Again, he chose to give up power. The example that he set was followed for 150 years. There has only been one president who had the job for more than eight years.



55. So he wrote a speech to tell America that he was leaving, and to give them some advice. It was called the Farewell Address. He never actually spoke this address--it was printed in newspapers instead. The Farewell Address has become very famous. In it, he made two main points. The first was about foreign wars. He said America was too young and weak to go to war with England or France. That would destroy the country, and so America must stay out of their war. We'll see if the next president, John Adams, takes his advice. The second point he made was about parties. They were bad for America, he said--there shouldn't be any.

56. He went home to live on his farm again. For a year he lived a quiet, peaceful life. Then one day he stayed out too late on a wet day and became sick. Shortly later, he died at Mount Vernon.

57. People all across America were strongly affected by his death. At his funeral, a friend famously said that Washington was "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." It was later learned that he had arranged to have all his slaves freed when he died.

58. Washington can be a hard man to understand. He didn't say what he was thinking very often. He was easy to respect, but hard to love. He seemed very distant to many people. But no one doubts that he is one of the most important and admired Americans in history. After his death, people in congress wanted to show respect to his memory by building a monument. Some disagreed with this. Don't people usually build monuments for kings? Washington wasn't a king. But in the end, they voted to build the monument anyway. It still stands in the city that is named after him.

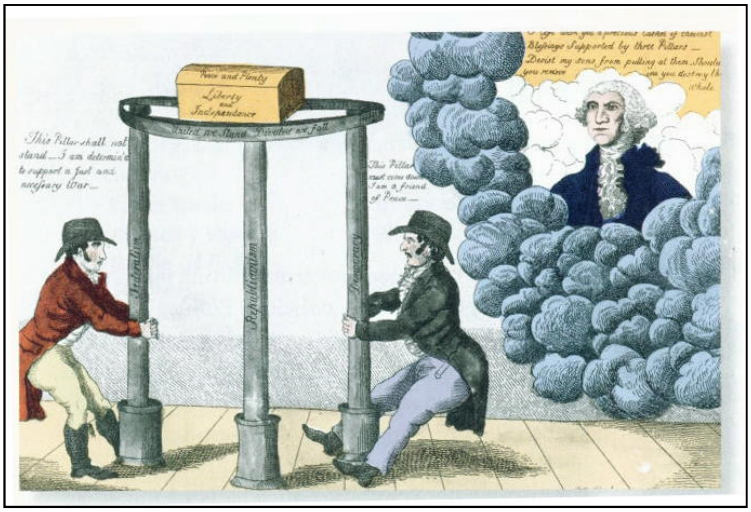
If the lecture runs long, I will finish the last portion on the synthesis day. Homework will be to write sentences describing each of the topics on the note organizer.

Note that I made no use of text in any of these visuals. I will usually only use text if the text itself is the purpose of the visual--for example, a famous quotation. It is my strong belief that people rarely read much text in visual presentations, and that ESL learners are even less likely to do so. I also prefer to emphasize listening practice over reading in my lectures, and to minimize rote copying of written information. Thus, the lecture is merely a slideshow, and not a Power Point presentation with numerous lists and bullet points. I do, however, make use of the *whiteboard* to display text during a lecture, such as was done for the central list introduced in this class. I believe that the act of physically writing something on the board emphasizes the significance of text rather more than having it pre-typed, and I imagine that my students consider that if the teacher is going to such trouble to point something out, then it must be especially relevant and worth noting. Writing during class also emphasizes that I know my own material and that I am not simply cribbing it. This in turn suggests that I am genuinely interested in the topic and that my students should be too.

III. The Synthesis Day. We will begin with assembling a mixed-up chart, shown below, since this is a nice kinesthetic activity for a warm-up. The chart is a fairly simple review of the list introduced in class the day earlier. Students will work in groups to put the papers together and I will come around to each table to check their progress. If there are errors, I will tell students how many there are and return in a few minutes to see if they have been corrected. (In a chart with more options for placement than two columns, I would simply set aside the incorrect papers and ask students to reconsider these.)

FEDERALIST BELIEFS	ANTIFEDERALIST BELIEFS
Wants stronger federal governments	Wants stronger state governments
Desires a government bank	Believes central bank goes against the 10th amendment
Feels the French Revolution went too far	Supports the ideals of the French Revolution
Supports the Jay Treaty with England	Feels America should support France instead of England
Supported the Whiskey Tax	Uncomfortable with federal taxes
Believed in firmly suppressing the Whiskey Rebellion	Uncomfortable with using force to put down protests

When this is complete, I will make use of the first political cartoon in the class. It dates from 1800, a year after Washington's death.



I will point out to the students that two men are fighting over a shaky construction on which is balanced a golden box labeled with the words "Liberty and Independence", and that Washington, now in heaven, is looking down from above and telling them not to pull at the pillars, which are labeled "Federalism", "Republicanism", and "Democracy". In groups, students will discuss the

significance of these various symbols. Who are the fighting men, and what is the cartoon saying about Washington's view of them, and of the nature of democracy as a whole? I will give a few minutes for discussion, then ask a few students to share their thoughts.

I will then ask students if they agree with the cartoon's (and Washington's) view of political parties. Are they truly a threat to the country? Students will consider this question by discussing in groups any advantages or disadvantages which occur to them of a system with multiple parties, listing these on a piece of paper. I will write "Advantages" and "Disadvantages" on the whiteboard and after a few minutes ask some students to come up and write an item or two from their lists. My goal here is to elicit the basic contradiction of parties: that they can cause dissension, but that they also provide a means for competing ideas to be introduced into political debate.

In a brief follow-up discussion I will make use of an analogy: if I wanted advice about living in China, would I get better results if I asked a single student or the entire class? What are the advantages of seeking out multiple points of view? I will finally suggest that a core American value is the belief that the people are wise enough to consider good and bad ideas which are presented to them and to choose the correct ones over time.

This is a good example of how it is possible in this setting to indirectly criticize the Chinese government without ever naming it. This is possible, since, as mentioned before, Chinese tend to be patriotic but not ideological, which means that one can question the idea but not the country. In this exercise, I am gently pushing students to formulate their own personal critique of the one-party system, but all within the safe context of considering political ideas far removed in space and time from modern China. It has never been quite clear to me to what extent what I am doing

is transparent to the students--whether it is acknowledged and quietly tolerated, or if the larger implications of this sort of discussion are mostly invisible to them.

We will close the class by writing in our journals. I will give students the following prompt:

The year is 1797 and Washington has written his farewell address. What was your American's experience during the eight years of his presidency, and how does he or she feel about Washington leaving? Does he or she support the Federalists or the Antifederalists, or agree with Washington's message that parties are dangerous? What are his or her thoughts or concerns for the future?

I will put on background music and students will write quietly for the last twenty minutes. It is my hope that this time will give the students the opportunity to mentally parse their ideas about Washington's significance, and about the positives and negatives of a multi-party system.

Homework will be to write a response to the heading question on the Class 20 note organizer: "How did parties begin to form when Washington was president?"

IV. The Practice Day. The practice day will follow its usual three-part structure. Because this lesson showed a clear narrative of events, we will begin with the ordering activity, in which students write events from memory on blank post-its, then line up in the sequence in which they occurred. Here is a sample of ten events which might be selected by students:

1. *Washington was elected as president, even though he would have preferred to stay at home.*

2. *The government argued about slavery, and made an agreement not to change it for eighteen years.*

3. *Alexander Hamilton tried to create a national bank to organize the economy, but Jefferson thought this was against the Constitution.*

4. *Hamilton and Jefferson made an agreement that Jefferson would support the bank if Hamilton would support Washington D.C. being built in the south.*

5. *Hamilton needed more money for the government, so he pushed for a tax on whiskey, which started a small rebellion.*

6. *Washington led the army to stop the Whiskey Rebellion, and the protestors quickly ran away. This made Jefferson and his supporters unhappy.*

7. *The French Revolution began, but Washington felt it went too far. He preferred to support England instead of France.*

8. *Washington sent John Jay to make an agreement to support England. This caused a lot of unhappiness in America.*

9. *More and more, Americans began to break into two parties: Federalists and Antifederalists. One wanted a stronger federal government, and the other didn't.*

10. *Washington was president for eight years then decided he wanted to return home. He wrote a final speech to the people telling them that they shouldn't get into foreign wars and that parties were dangerous to America.*

If the majority of my students are able to repeat this kind of basic narrative about the week's lesson, I would certainly consider the class a strong success.

With the warm-up done, we move to the cloze, which will take up the largest part of the practice day. The text of the cloze for today is:

(1) were the first American party to form which supported a stronger central government. Their views were usually shared by (2), though he refused to take a part in it and later expressed his discomfort with such organizations in (3). The party's most visible leader was (4), who, as (5), wished to create (6) in order to centralize the economy. His idea was opposed by (7), leader of the (8), who disliked giving the federal government this added power. The two eventually made a bargain in which Hamilton got his bank and agreed to support the creation of (9) in the American south. This was not their only disagreement. Antifederalists felt uncomfortable with the way Washington forcefully suppressed (10), and, because they believed in limited governments run by the people, supported (11). Washington, however, who sided with England in the war which resulted from this event, sent (12) to negotiate (13), which caused him to lose popularity. Lastly, most Antifederalists were strongly opposed to (14), as many of them were southerners and felt the government had no right to make changes to their way of life.

Students will answer these questions by referring to the terms on their note organizer. This is another good time for background music to make the task a little livelier. When most students are finished, I will give pens to two of the students and they will come up to the front one by one to place the answers on the whiteboard. If there are errors left up at the end of this process I will

note how many there are for the class to consider and fix, but as I mentioned earlier, usually there will not be since the group tends to be self-correcting without my needing to intervene.

We will use the remaining time for students to speak on the visuals from the lecture. I might choose the picture of Washington and the cherry tree as an easy opener, calling on a student and asking him or her to describe what it depicts. We will then move on to more difficult images: Hamilton and Jefferson at the dinner party; Washington putting down the Whiskey Rebellion; the effigy of John Jay being set on fire; the symbols of the Federalists and Antifederalists.

Note that my participation on this day was almost wholly minimal. The only time it was even necessary for me to speak was when I called on students during the final activity, or if I needed to address errors. I have done nothing directly in this class to instruct students aside from providing the structure--the post-its, the cloze, the visuals--for the group to engage in communal or individual review and practice. The week has thus hopefully concluded with the students having developed some degree of independence and fluency.

Homework will be reading for the Monday check on Class 21 on the Adams and Jefferson presidencies. On this day we will transition from one class to the next as usual. I will ask students to state the three most significant ideas they learned about the Washington presidency, then have them place several of the events described in this lecture on their timelines. I will put up a picture of John Adams on the projector, change the music, and the weekly cycle will begin again.

Homework and Assessment

Of the four goals for this curriculum described earlier--language improvement, historical knowledge, critical analysis development, and understanding of personal values--it is the first which is the most difficult to assess.

While I strongly believe that this curriculum promotes language improvement, this is all done indirectly and the course is not structured in such a way to formally measure it. Anecdotally, I am able to perceive a massive difference in the level of student work between the beginning and end of the year, but since the class is being taught in conjunction with numerous other English classes which are also providing benefits, and because I am not teaching specific testable language points aside from some limited historical-based vocabulary, it is hard to directly connect the language improvements I observe to my curriculum. Here, it is perhaps better to look at the *objectives* I described for this goal, which are that students will engage in a weekly cycle in which they use listening to understand a lecture, then respond to this by reading, writing, and speaking. These objectives are met by the inherent structure of the class, and it seems to me self-evident that this constant drumbeat of constant English language practice with difficult and abstruse topics must naturally lead to steady language improvement. However, such improvement is not directly measurable in a history course without also giving formal assessments on English ability, which does not seem practical given the already dense nature of the class, especially since my students have another dedicated TESOL class in which to do this. Thus, it must to some degree be taken on faith, albeit a faith advised by common sense.

The remaining three goals are easier to assess, and I do so primarily by means of nightly

homework. Like the weekly curriculum, these four weekly assignments are consistent in their structure. They serve two purposes in addition to assessment: preview and internalization.

I. Homework. The first two homework assignments turned in each week are for preview. I consider this homework to be part of the encounter phase and feel it is useful for students to briefly acquaint themselves with individuals, events, and concepts which they will later be interacting with during the week in greater depth. In my own personal experience, I have personally found that I resist learning about topics less when I have already engaged with them prior to class instruction; there is something in doing this that makes the lesson seem rather more personal and connected to something outside of the school setting. ("Oh, Woodrow Wilson, I know him!")

The last two homework assignments of the week are for assessment and internalization, and occur on lecture and synthesis days. On these days students summarize what they have learned, which helps them to compartmentalize their learning while giving me a sense of how much has been understood.

I will briefly describe each of these four assignments below.

Preview Reading. This is the primary interaction students have with the textbook in an otherwise listening-based course. It is given on the last day of the week. Students are asked to read three to five pages of text over the weekend and are then responsible for summarizing it in class on the following Monday. This is a somewhat blunt method on my part to enforce reading, which Chinese students will fiercely struggle against unless it is absolutely mandated by specific

grading incentives (or unless I am standing over their shoulder watching them do it). If students summarize in an inadequate way that suggests they have not read thoroughly, I require them to rewrite it later.

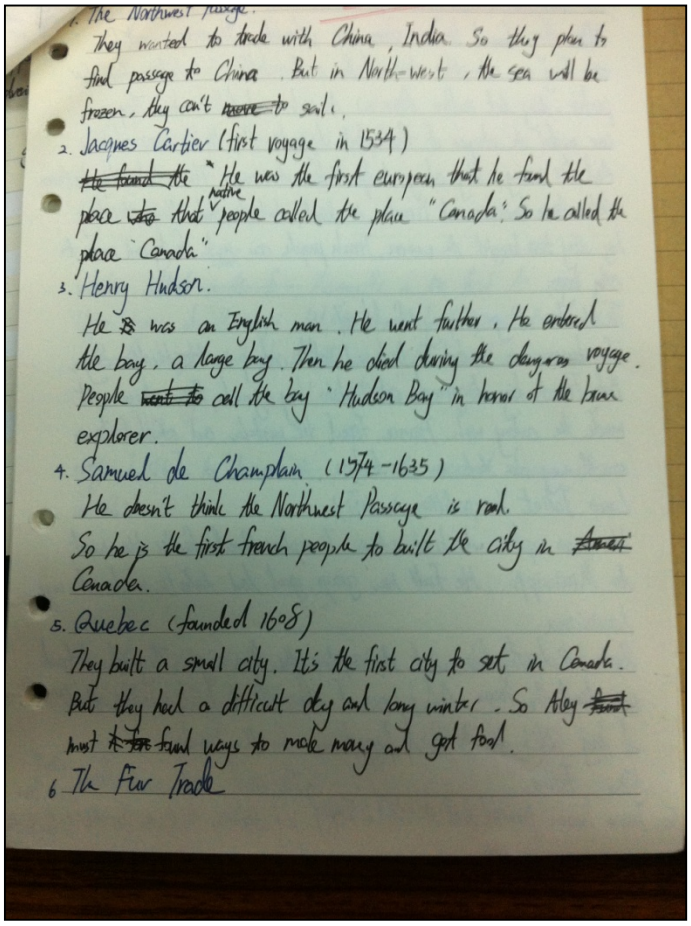
5W Research. This is the assignment given on day for preview, and in addition to this purpose, it has the further goals of helping to develop reading and research skills. For this homework, I will give the name of a significant person to be discussed in the next class and ask students to summarize this person using the five "W" questions. For example, for the lesson on the Jefferson presidency, I might ask students to research Sacagawea, and students would then tell who she was, where and when she lived, what she is best known for, and why she was important to history. (In my larger classes I would assign multiple figures to research to avoid student copying off of each other.) There is something of a blank spot in my curriculum in terms of having students do research papers, which are clearly significant in American education but which seem difficult to work into the course which is already so regularly structured. This assignment tries in a small way to fill that gap, though whether it does so adequately is debatable. In practice, student work on this assignment invariably seems to come to down to reading the first paragraph of the relevant Wikipedia entry, which is not a useless endeavor but is not precisely research. I have experimented with asking for multiple sources and having students cite these in standard research paper style, but this often amounts to students doing the exact same Wikipedia research, writing the address for the Wikipedia page, then simply writing the addresses of the next pages that pop up in a Google search on Sacagawea. Ideally this homework should help impress upon students who certain figures were and why they were relevant, giving them the responsibility to determine these facts actively instead of through passive absorption,

and I think to some degree it does serve this purpose, but it has also had a tendency to become a little perfunctory. I am still considering ways to improve this assignment.

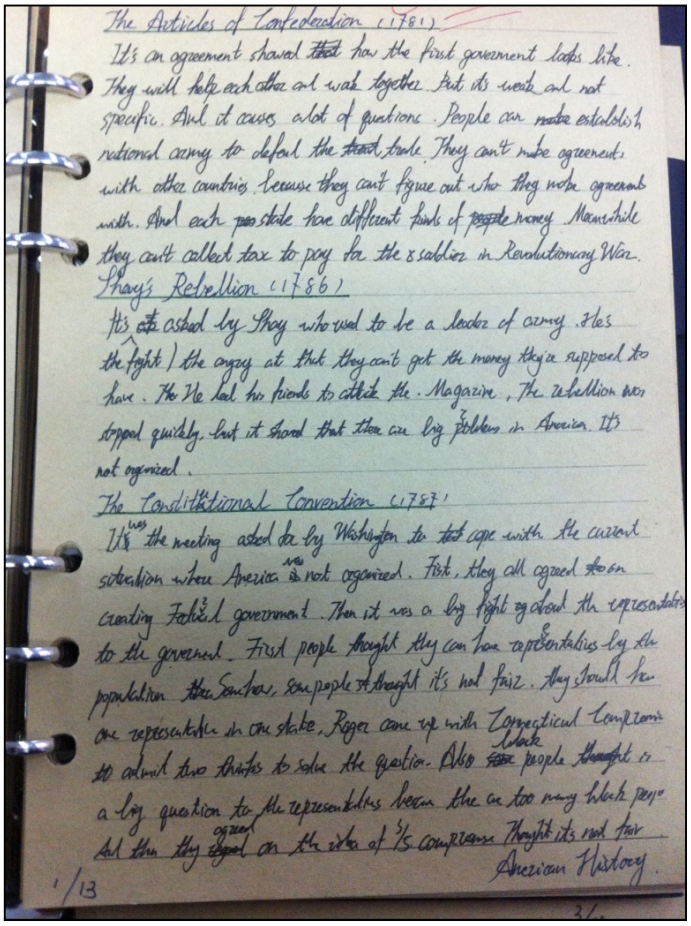
Sentence Writing. This is easily the most important of the four assignments in terms of its benefits for student internalization and teacher assessment. Having completed the lecture day, students will then write summaries of each of the topics listed on their note organizers in a few sentences to demonstrate their understanding of the content: who was Alexander Hamilton, and what was the Jay Treaty? This is enormously useful for both of students and teacher because it allows the former to set out simply but explicitly what they learned on that day, and it allows the latter to see if the students learned it. If there are misconceptions or topics that students seem hazy about, I can immediately address these issues in the following class. It is important in a curriculum with such density of information that I am constantly aware whether students are struggling, thus allowing me to promptly adjust my instruction as needed.

In no other component of my curriculum do I see such clear development in student ability as I do in this homework. I continue to term the assignment "sentence writing" simply because, in the beginning of my class development, concerned that the difficulty of the course would be overwhelming, I expected my students to do little more than write a one-sentence summary of each topic, *e.g.* "The Arawaks were the first group of Native Americans met by Christopher Columbus." This is still what I initially request at the start of the year, and I am quite clear on what sort of sentence must be written: it must tell *what* the topic is and *why* it is relevant. What is fascinating to me, however, is that each year, consistently and without my prompting, students over time begin to expand what they write into large full-scale summaries instead of single-sentence descriptions. This seems to occur naturally as students develop comfort with using

English to speak about history, and the differences between earlier and later homework assignments, even over just a few months, can be quite striking.



1. The Northwest Passage.
They wanted to trade with China, India. So they plan to find passage to China. But in North-west, the sea will be frozen, they can't ~~move~~ to sail.
2. Jacques Cartier (first voyage in 1534)
~~He found the~~ He was the first europen that he found the place ~~who~~ that native people called the place "Canada". So he called the place "Canada".
3. Henry Hudson.
He ~~is~~ was an English man. He went further. He ordered the boy, a large bay. Then he died during the dangerous voyage. People ~~want to~~ call the bay "Hudson Bay" in honor of the brave explorer.
4. Samuel de Champlain (1574-1635)
He doesn't think the Northwest Passage is real.
So he is the first french people to built the city in ~~French~~ Canada.
5. Quebec (founded 1608)
They built a small city. It's the first city to set in Canada. But they had a difficult dry and long winter. So they ~~French~~ must ~~to~~ found ways to make many and get food.
6. The Fur Trade



The Articles of Confederation (1781)
It's an agreement showed ~~that~~ how the first government looks like. They will help each other and walk together. But its weak and not specific. And it causes a lot of questions. People can make establish national army to defend the inland trade. They can't make agreements with other countries because they can't figure out who they make agreements with. And each pass state have different kinds of ~~people~~ money. Meanwhile they can't collect tax to pay for the ~~s~~ soldiers in Revolutionary War.
Shay's Rebellion (1786)
It's ~~a~~ the asked by Shay who used to be a leader of army. He's the fight) the angry at that they can't get the money they're supposed to have. He He had two friends to attack the. Magazine, The rebellion was stopped quickly. But it showed that there are big problems in America. It's not organized.
The Constitutional Convention (1787)
It's ~~was~~ the meeting asked be by Washington to ~~that~~ cope with the current situation when America ~~is~~ was not organized. First, they all agreed to on creating Federal government. Then it was a big fight ~~a~~ about the representatives to the government. First people thought they can have representatives by the population three Senators, ~~some~~ people ~~a~~ thought it's not fair. they should be one representative in one state. Roger came up with Connecticut Compromise to solved two parties to solve the question. Also ~~some~~ black people thought is a big question to the representatives because there are too many black people. And then they agreed on the idea of 3/5 compromise. Thought it's not fair.
American History.
1/13

This assignment is thus the most useful method I have developed of assessing the degree to which students understand history and are able to express this understanding.

Heading Question Response. Having explored the class specifically and factually on the lecture day, the students will explore it more broadly and thematically on the synthesis day. Since the synthesis day has hopefully helped students to organize their thoughts on these themes, the homework for the night will be to write a half-page answer to the heading question at the top of

the note organizer which expresses the larger idea of the lecture. Examples of such questions include:

How did Native Americans and English colonists interact?

How did the founding fathers develop their ideas about American values?

In what ways did Americans oppose slavery?

What made America into the greatest industrial nation of the late 1800s?

How did John F. Kennedy affect the politics and culture of America?

I have noticed that students tend to answer these questions in two ways. Some simply summarize every event in the lecture, on the reasonable assumption that this will approximately answer the question. Others, with a better grasp of critical analysis, sort events into logical categories without necessarily using chronological ordering, note causes and effects, and compose what is essentially a brief essay with a thesis. Though it is difficult to make this level of work a requirement with ESL students, I do try to encourage students to work towards this sort of analysis by means of my comments on their returned homework.

This assignment is the most useful means by which I assess student critical thinking skills, both in terms of historical understanding and of analysis of their personal values.

I have always believed that daily homework produces steady improvements in language ability as students practice and self-assess, and so I operate on the principle that in this case, quantity trumps quality. Accordingly, I work to maximize homework return by doing several things: I

grade homework pass/fail, I allow students to redo inadequate homework for full credit, I allow late homework to be handed in at any time without penalty, and I have homework count for 50% of the final grade. This last incentivizes homework return because it means that even the lowest-level students in my class are almost certain to pass the course if they simply persevere and turn in every assignment, even if the tests are overwhelming for them. It also means that students have the ability to change a failing grade to a passing one at any point in the term if they can simply find the time to make up missing work. This may be a rather generous grading policy, but I consider that it is a necessary response in a content setting to the fact that the necessary skill to excel in the class--language fluency--is one that students are not able to equally acquire despite equal effort. It seems unfair to prohibitively penalize hard-working students who simply lack an ear for English, particularly when language acquisition is not the primary purpose of the course.

II. Testing. Where the weekly homework return allows me to assess student *comprehension*, the quarter and term tests allow me to assess student *retention*. My personal inclination is to minimize testing in my course, but it is heavily emphasized in Chinese instruction, with some schools setting aside several days exclusively for test preparation. At one school in which I worked, students were taken into another room to do all class tests, even quizzes, and monitored against cheating by roaming assistants wearing identifying badges, as well as by running video cameras. (I myself had recourse to check this camera footage when a student on a test produced answers that seemed improbably articulate--it was later revealed that he had simply memorized the first lines of the Wikipedia article on the term in question prior to taking the exam.)

Since I must give fairly substantial tests, I have developed two underlying principles for their structure. First, the emphasis in these tests is on description as opposed to identification, which is

to say that students should be able to write extensively about what they have learned. I see little purpose in multiple-choice tests: why dilute my ability to accurately assess student retention by adding in the random factor of guesswork? (I may, however, provide the terms used in matching exercises or clozes, which are harder to simply guess on, because students have such trouble recalling western names in this course--more on this later.) The second principle underlying my testing is that it should resemble the activities performed in class as much as possible. Thus, the bulk of the test will be sentence and theme writing, chart construction, clozes, ordering and matching exercises, and map work, all exercises used during the weekly cycle.

I have given an example of a test used in my curriculum in the section for materials at the end of this paper.

III. Feedback. Assessment naturally goes both ways, and it is useful for me to receive feedback on my own teaching. Chinese schools rarely seem to have any system in place for this, and for the most part the staff are unable to effectively evaluate foreign teachers. This seems to me to be due to lack of language ability, unfamiliarity with western teaching methodology, and a general resistance in Chinese business culture to making progressive changes. Because they tend to be more personally involved in their students' lives than western teachers, however, the staff invariably has a very good sense of the "pulse" of the class, being quite aware of whether students are bored or baffled, and this informal kind of evaluation can be helpful.

Since Chinese students tend to be naturally passive, they are unlikely to independently proffer their opinions on the course, and so systems of feedback must be clearly structured by the teacher to be effective. I have occasionally received useful ideas from class discussions, though

these tend to be from the more gregarious students. Having students fill out evaluation forms is probably the most effective means of receiving input, and I try on these forms to make explicit the structure of my class so that students can consider it when evaluating what is working and what is not. I have included an example of this form at the end of this paper.

Feedback from my second and third year students was positive, and many mentioned in particular that they appreciated the regularity of the weekly cycle. A few noted an overemphasis on remembering battles, something I am probably guilty of since I personally feel the military aspects of history are often very narratively compelling. This may not appeal to all students, however. For the most part, feedback has been useful in my course design simply for confirming that the class seems to be generally on track. I am always pleasantly surprised each time I request feedback to find that students rarely express any feelings of being overwhelmed by the difficulty of the content.

Common Issues

In this chapter I would briefly like to touch on some fundamental concerns and questions met with in teaching in this context, and how they might be addressed. These will include issues with low language ability, student interaction, plagiarism, and retention.

I. Issues with Low Language Ability. This is obviously a key concern. As I have stated before, I consider that it is quite possible to teach about difficult concepts in simple language, and so this has been less of a problem than I was initially concerned it would be when I was beginning as a content teacher. Indeed, the precise opposite can be a problem--midway through my second year, during a class feedback session, numerous students actually requested that I teach them using more *difficult* language! This was a very instructive moment for me. Up to that point I had been erring very much on the side of clarity and comprehension, and while the students' other English content classes often presented material that was too difficult for them, my own classes, conversely, had become too easy, as I overcorrected in response to the problems that I observed. This event made clear to me what a fine balance content-based teaching must straddle.

One useful point to note is that students who appear overwhelmed may not be so simply due to ignorance of the language, *i.e.* vocabulary and grammar structures. On my first day this year teaching World History in an identical manner to my U.S. History class, the small class of students was totally unresponsive to the lecture, taking no notes and answering no questions. I have given hundreds of successful lectures in this style and did not think that these students were significantly low, so it seemed unlikely to me that the material was too difficult. I felt it advisable to repeat the lecture in a second class, more slowly, but the lack of student

participation persisted. The next day I considered the vocabulary I had used, and gave a short quiz on the harder words, such as "animal", "organized" and "hunt". I was concerned that I had really been given students who were completely inappropriate for admission to an international school, but for the most part they knew these words and were able to write sentences using them. When I pointed this out to them--that they were perfectly prepared to understand my words with the vocabulary they already possessed--there seemed to be an easing of tension. The next lecture, which I gave in an identical style and which covered more topics than the first, went better, and by the third, the class felt firmly in its flow. I think this story is telling because it shows that student unresponsiveness may not be due so much to limited second language ability as to the unfamiliarity of processing so much content in this language. This was one of those rare occasions in which I needed to do nothing very differently when presented with student difficulties but be patient, set simple expectations, and wait for them to gain confidence. I will certainly consider how to ease the students in a little more gently in the future, but in general it seems to me that this is a curriculum which benefits immensely from time. It asks simple, manageable tasks of students using repeated activities that have a regular rhythm. Students may initially balk at its unfamiliarity, but soon they will begin to respond, then improve.

That said, confidence alone will not take students to where they need to be. Given the realities of Chinese international schools, there will be students who are simply not at an appropriate level to understand any form of content without a great deal of assistance.

I attempt to address this in various ways. I have discussed how using visuals helps to fill in gaps in knowledge of vocabulary, and I believe this has a significant effect. Similarly, the course structure itself is designed to respond to difficulties in comprehension, as the students first encounter topics on a lecture day, recast them in homework, then synthesize and practice these

same topics before moving on. Another point I would like to make is about e-dictionaries. There may be mixed opinions on use of these in standard TESOL classes, but they are absolutely essential to my own course. In a class in which an entire spoken lecture is being presented, it is vital that students be able to ascertain the meaning of words quickly without my needing to fill in individual gaps in knowledge. To be sure, I am always considering what language I should use for maximum comprehension when speaking, and the ability to parse numerous synonyms on the fly and choose one that students know is useful here. (For example, I use the word "clever" in instruction in China far more than I ever have when speaking normally in English, simply because Chinese students seem to recognize this word best as a synonym for "intelligent".) However, when I reach a point in the lecture where I am concerned that students may not know a key word that I cannot find an alternative for, it is very useful to be able to call attention to it for students to look up without having to break the flow of the lecture. For example, in relating Washington's and Hamilton's relationship, I would describe Hamilton as Washington's "assistant" in the revolution, a term which will get me a lot farther than saying "chief staff aide". Even "assistant", however, is a word which I would be concerned about students recognizing. Thus, when speaking the sentence, "Hamilton was Washington's *assistant* in the war, and after that they became good friends", I would quickly write down the problematic word on the board, emphasizing it both in speech and in writing. Just seeing it written may jar some students' recognition, while others can, if necessary, type it into their e-dictionaries, possibly gaining an understanding of the full sentence which eluded them before. Certainly there will also be times in which I stop the lecture briefly to explain a term that I doubt anyone would know ("The siege of Boston began that April. Can anyone tell me what a siege is?"), but I cannot do this with all vocabulary, especially since it is impossible for me to really know what words students can

understand. Having students use e-dictionaries is thus a way of leveling the language ability needed to understand lecture.

Ultimately, however, it is interaction with other students that will best address lack of comprehension, and this can be both a blessing and a curse, as will be seen.

II. Issues with Student Interaction. When I explain the structure of the Chinese school day to American friends and family, I am usually met with disbelief. For my current students, this day extends for over fourteen hours, (minus meals and breaks), starting at 7:00 A.M. for study hall, and ending at 9:30 P.M., also for study hall. They remain in the same classroom throughout, with the same group of students. They are thus in constant communication with this group, and have well over three hours together to do schoolwork each day.

It is therefore only natural that high-level students will begin instructing low-level students in what was missed in class. They have very little else to do, and since understanding of my lessons is necessary to complete the homework and to do well on the tests, the low-level students have every incentive to spend time trying to gain some level of understanding on what they missed.

Knowing that this kind of secondary teaching will occur to some degree is essential to building a curriculum in China. It is perhaps helpful for keeping me humble, since I am forced to recognize that it is very possible that a fair number of students do not fully understand the content I am teaching in class and that they are only receiving the information through intermediaries. While in general I can get a sense of how well students understand the lectures by looking at the notes on their organizers, this only gives me a rough idea, as some stronger students choose not to

write a lot of notes, and some weaker students are good at copying phrases without fully understanding their significance.

As stated before, this student teaching is very much a double-edged sword. It can be enormously helpful for low-level students, in particular for the otherwise nearly unreachable students at the lowest levels of skill who were placed into international schooling for very questionable reasons, but also for those students who are rather higher who simply miss many things here and there. Moreover, as I am most assuredly not able to spend hours with my students in the evening going over my classes in Chinese, I am pleased that students have the opportunity to do this with their peers. In addition, there is something deeply appealing to me in the notion that my students are spending a good deal of time after class to talk about what I taught them--this is perhaps the dream of every dedicated teacher!

On the other hand, when students are not being primarily taught by myself, various negative effects can ensue. First, this secondary teaching short circuits my ability to assess the effectiveness of my own teaching. Most homework I receive shows real comprehension on the part of my students--but is this because the class as a whole understood what I taught, or because of what a few very high-level students understood? Would the homework be so strong if I were teaching without the advantage of unofficial student aides, as would likely be the case in another country? It is hard to know. One might argue that this is a difference which makes no difference--the goal was for the students to learn, so why should it matter precisely how this was facilitated? This is certainly a point, but it seems a shaky foundation to build a class on. Peer teaching may also have the result of filtering out ideas that I felt were significant, or introducing inaccuracies. (When a strong student misunderstands something in class, the resulting misconception tends to spread, sometimes in ways that are faintly amusing. For example, homework returns last year

showed that a significant portion of my class was briefly under the impression that Henry VIII secured his divorce by attacking Rome and killing the pope.) A further point is that students who are dependent on Chinese explanations of lecture from peers will naturally lag behind in language development. Lastly, I feel retention must suffer when the primary learning is removed from the visuals and dramatization that is at the heart of the course.

Ultimately, it is not very fruitful to debate whether this form of student interaction is positive or negative. It is simply a part of the context here, something which every content teacher in China should be aware of as they consider the manner in which their students learn.

This is a good point to raise a related question: to what extent is it advisable to allow Chinese students to speak in their own language in class activities? This is of course a much-discussed topic in TESOL, and there are arguments on all sides. For myself, I allow students to use Chinese as they wish. Part of this is pragmatic--I find I cannot monitor second language use very effectively, especially in large classes. Another part is practical--if I wish students to hold complex discussions on abstract topics of content, I must make sure they are able to do this without lack of language ability or feelings of embarrassment holding them back. A third part is purely sympathetic--this is a challenging class which often requires students to take risks, and I see no reason to further undermine their sense of personal security by removing the comfort factor of their native language. A fourth and final reason is methodological. I have always maintained that students learn best by first practicing with assistance, then by attempting to make use of their new learning with increasing independence. Exploring ideas in groups in Chinese, then either reporting these ideas verbally to me or writing about them for homework in English, would seem to be an excellent example of putting this concept into practice.

III. Issues with Plagiarism. As with comprehension, this is also not such a problem here as I had previously worried it might be. In fact, I received more plagiarism in China as a standard TESOL teacher than as a content teacher, possibly because working with content in a foreign language is sufficiently difficult that if a student understands it conceptually well enough to plagiarize it, it might just be easier to do the work.

It is well known that plagiarism in China does not have the same cultural stigma that it possesses in America, and in a culture that tends to prioritize demonstrating knowledge of the right answers over building analytical skills, students often do not always really understand what the objection to plagiarism is, and are only dimly aware of the significant consequences it might entail in their American schooling.

I have found that firmly refusing to tolerate even a hint of plagiarism will stamp it out fairly quickly. Simply giving a zero on any plagiarized homework but allowing students to re-do it properly for credit at a later time will make my intentions clear, and will incentivize learning to do it correctly. Students will likely make tentative attempts to plagiarize at the beginning of the year, but a strong response from the teacher can eliminate this early, though it may still crop up occasionally. On one occasion, one very low student, given homework to research an assigned historical figure, simply reproduced the first paragraph of the Wikipedia entry on Peter Minuit. This would be unremarkable except that he had inadvertently looked the name up on the Malaysian version of the site, and being apparently too apathetic to note that what he was copying was not English, he provided me with an extended biography of Peter Minuit in Malay. This shows something of the clumsiness of such plagiarism. It is neither subtle nor particularly devious, and can be addressed with firm correction.

More commonly than plagiarizing internet sources, students will try to plagiarize each other, and the teacher must be careful to catch this and deal out appropriate consequences where it is found.

IV. Issues with Retention. Do students retain historical information that they are taught? If so, what precisely do they retain? If they generally do not retain information, does that undermine the value of this course? These are hard questions to answer, but they are essential ones for teachers in this context to consider.

In the simplest sense of the term, my students tend to retain facts fairly well through the year. Their midterms show that they are able to recall topics introduced several months ago, especially with the note organizers assisting their review. When giving the extremely challenging SAT U.S. History Exam to my first-year class, many of them very gamely answered difficult questions on topics introduced at the year's beginning. It seems to me that, internally within the course, retention is strong.

It is worth noting here that Chinese students have extreme difficulty in recalling western names, both of people and places. I have struggled to find a solution to this. The problem does seem to lie more in production than reception; that is, if I ask what Benedict Arnold is famous for, I am far more likely to get a response than if I relate what Benedict Arnold is famous for and then ask who I am referring to. The Chinese and western naming systems are so dissimilar that the two cultures often seem mutually unable to mentally process examples of the other. Similarly, although my students intellectually seem to understand how western names are ordered, they often seem to have trouble thinking in these terms. Repeated explanations on the proper way to refer to historical figures do not stop students from referring to Washington as "George", and a

name like "Francis Scott Key" seemingly results in half a dozen different variations as to how this figure is alluded to in homework. Probably the solution to these problems is to treat the names like I would vocabulary for drill in standard TESOL, but I am not certain this is the best use of class time. In the end, it seems to me far more important that students know the historical significance of people or places than their names, facts which can quickly be researched if necessary.

But do students indeed retain understanding of this broader historical significance? This is a fundamental question, and it seems to me to answer it that one must first ask what retention precisely is. I do not believe that most of my students will remember, say, the events of the War of 1812. I imagine that even my highest students from previous years could not tell me the significance of the Battle of Lake Erie now, though I have no doubt they knew it when we were discussing it. Does this then mean that there was nothing gained in teaching this topic? It seems to me that this is emphatically not the case, for two main reasons: first, because history instruction serves as a foundation for future learning, and secondly, because history is larger conceptually than a focus on individual people and events.

The metaphor I have always used for teaching content is that of ascending a spiral staircase. Merely making one circuit of this staircase does not take one to the goal. The core must be circled many times, but this does not mean that the first circuit was without value or yielded no progress. For example, I have many times in this paper argued for the importance of teaching clear periodization. If, in the entirety of my course, I do nothing aside from convey a vague sense of the shape, feel, and outline of American history, I believe this is not an insignificant accomplishment, and perhaps an appropriate goal to set for the first circuit around the spiral of historical knowledge. Hopefully--to change the metaphor--when students next encounter facts or

concepts that were first introduced in this course, there will be far more fertile ground for these to take root.

Recently a student from my courses two years ago, now attending university in America, wrote to me, telling me she had a project on the social effects of music. Responding to a suggestion that she write on Woodstock, she told me that she remembered this topic from my class, but not the precise details. She then asked if I might point her to some resources for further study. This seems to me an example of how retention is supposed to work. She came in with an awareness of the topic--one very far removed from her own culture--and was able to concur that it was a significant moment worth writing about and researching further. My guess is that the part about Woodstock that she did retain was that it was somehow--in a way she could not quite define explicitly--connected to the social changes of the 1960s, and that these ideas would have increasingly returned to her recollection as she researched further. Moreover, I believe that these ideas would be far easier to grasp on encountering them the second time around. This may seem a highly subtle result to be taken from a year of education, but I believe that it is in such ways that people truly learn.

I have spoken on how my weekly cycle is an attempt to move from encounter to internalization to fluency. Yet it may be, that in the broader scope of learning history as a subject, the entire course is merely an encounter phase--and that the students' subsequent interactions with historical facts and ideas are part of an extended, even lifelong, internalization. Does anyone, in the end, truly achieve fluency in a content subject, the way one achieves fluency in a language?

What about the students who will not interact much with historical study in the future? Was their time wasted if they can no longer remember specific details of instruction? It seems to me that this is not the case because the study of history transcends its own facts. The details of history,

though they can be a goal in and of themselves, are also steps towards a larger goal that both encompasses and surmounts these details.

To use an example from another field: if a math student were given the problem in class of multiplying 815 by 920, and then was later unable to recall this answer, we would not say that he or she had failed to learn math because we understand that math is about a process, not about the retention of specific examples of the process. Similarly, we would not say that the student's time had been wasted by multiplying these numbers in class, that in doing so the student was merely learning something rote that would soon be forgotten, because we recognize that understanding the process necessitated that the student be exposed to it.

History operates under a similar principle. By repeated immersion in events that show the vast range of past human behavior--social, political, economic, cultural, religious, militaristic, ideological--students will glimpse the patterns in these behaviors, will gain a sense of which behaviors played relevant roles in past historical periods and which do so today, and will ultimately understand their own behaviors, and what it means to be part of the human story. When set against this, recalling precisely and permanently what happened at the Battle of Lake Erie--while not in itself an unworthy goal--seems of lesser significance.

Materials

This section contains the following materials referred to in this paper:

The note organizer for the week on the Washington presidency

A worksheet for designing character journals

A worksheet for simplifying the Free Silver movement

An example of a midterm test

The student feedback form

Samples of student feedback

Class 20

<u>The Washington Presidency</u>

How did parties begin to form when Washington was president?

George Washington (in office 1789-1797)

The Petition to End Slavery (1790)

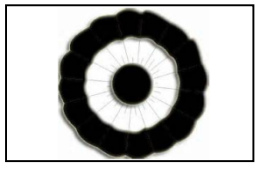
Alexander Hamilton (1757-1804)

The First Bank of the United States (1791-1811)

Washington, D.C. (founded 1790)

The Whiskey Rebellion (1794)

The Jay Treaty (1794)



Federalists (and Anti-Federalists)

The Farewell Address (1797)

You are an American

You live in the English colonies during the mid-1700s. Who are you? Tell about…

Your home colony: (choose from the 13)

Your origin: (English, Native American, African-American, other?)

Your name:

Your age:

Your family:

Your profession:

Your home: (town or country?)

Your religious affiliation: (Puritan, Quaker, Church of England, Catholic, other?)

Your reason for being in the New World:

What is a normal day for you like? What do you want in life? What worries you?

Understanding the Free Silver Movement

1. Which is more common, gold or apples?

2. Therefore, which is worth more? Why?

3. If you wanted to buy a car, how many gold coins do you think it would cost? How many apples?

4. If China changed the currency from apples, so that now it used gold coins, would the cost of a car (the amount of "money" it takes to buy it) *inflate* (get bigger) or *deflate* (get smaller)?

5. If China changed the currency from gold coins, so that now it used apples, would the cost of a car (the amount of "money" it takes to buy it) *inflate* or *deflate*?

6. Therefore, using a *more common, less valuable* currency causes all prices to _____

7. Do the math:

MONTHLY BUDGET FOR FARMERS, USING GOLD

Money *Earned* from Selling Crops	**10.00**
***Cost* of Food and Living Expenses**	**4.00**
***Cost* of Loans Owed to Bank**	**6.00**

MONEY SAVED BY FARMERS EACH MONTH ___

8. Now pretend *gold dollars are being replaced with silver dollars*. Because silver is a more common material than gold, is the dollar now *more* or *less valuable*?

9. This means that now the amount of dollars *earned* selling food, and the amount of *costs* in food and living expenses, will both ... *inflate* or *deflate*?

10. However, will the number of dollars you must pay in *old loan agreements* change if gold is suddenly replaced with silver? Why or why not?

11. Do the math, and complete the chart for gold and silver. (Do *all* these things inflate using silver?)

MONTHLY BUDGET FOR FARMERS

	USING GOLD	USING SILVER (inflation = 20%)
Money *Earned* from Selling Crops	10.00	____
Cost of Food and Living Expenses	4.00	____
Cost of Loans Owed to Bank	6.00	____
MONEY SAVED BY FARMERS EACH MONTH	____	____

12. In your own words, why did farmers in America in the late 1800s want to use silver instead of gold?

Name_____

Midterm Exam

Part I (-1733)

1. Describe these topics and their importance. (2 points each)

The Appalachians

The Eastern Woodland Indians

The Mongolian Peace

Ferdinand and Isabella

Conquistadors

Samuel de Champlain

Louisiana

Henry VIII

Sir Walter Raleigh

The Virginia Company

Pilgrims

Pocahontas

Squanto

Maryland

New York

2. Give a brief history of European colonization of the Americans. Talk about the Spanish, French, and English. Tell how their first colonies began, where and when they colonized, who came to America, and their reasons for colonizing. (10 points)

Part II (1733-1783)

1. Write the name of the American Founding Father in the blank. (7 points)

A. He was a writer, an artist, and a scientist. He told the colonists they must all join together or die. He helped to bring the French into the war against Britain.

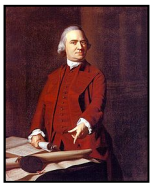
_____

B. He was a famous speaker who strongly disliked the Stamp Act. He believed only elected leaders should pass taxes. He is known for saying, "Give me liberty or give me death!"

_____

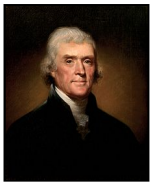
C. He was the leader of the army of America during the war with the British. As a young man, he was known for fighting in the French and Indian War.

_____



D. He was one of the two men who arranged the Boston Tea Party. He is known for having made his money by brewing beer. His cousin was the second president of the United States.

_____



E. He was a rich tobacco planter from Virginia. He was the man who wrote the Declaration of Independence. He later became the third president of the United States.

_____

F. He helped organize the Boston Tea Party. He was chosen to be president of the Second Continental Congress. He was the first man to sign the Declaration of Independence

_____

G. He was a lawyer from Boston who helped organize the revolution. He suggested who should lead the army and write the Declaration. Later he became the second president.

_____

2. Match the idea to its source. (8 points)

John Locke _____

The Divine Right of Kings _____

Magna Carta _____

The Iroquois Confederacy _____

Thomas Hobbes _____

The English Bill of Rights _____

Roman Republic _____

Montesquieu _____

A. Government decisions should be made by representatives elected by the people.

B. The king does not have total power. There are some things he cannot do.

C. If a government is not protecting its people's rights, the people have the right to change the government.

D. The king should have less power than the people's representatives.

E. Governments are formed to protect people's rights, not because God chooses people to be leaders.

F. A government divided into many parts is better, because each part will have power over the others.

G. Societies are governed by men chosen by God.

H. A government made of many smaller states can work well if they agree to give some power to a central government.

3. Draw a very simple map of America below. Label the following places: *The Great Plains, the Mississippi River, the Appalachian Mountains, the Rocky Mountains, Quebec, Louisiana, San Salvador, Jamestown, Plymouth, Boston, Philadelphia.* (12 points)

4. Number these events in the order in which they happened. (10 points)

The Second Continental Congress	**~~The French and Indian War~~**	**The Intolerable Acts**
The Boston Tea Party	**The French Alliance**	**The Battles of Saratoga**
The First Continental Congress	**~~The Treaty of Paris~~**	**The Battles of Lexington and Concord**
The Declaration of Independence	**The Battle of Yorktown**	**The Proclamation of 1763**

Because of (1), the king passed (2). This made colonists become angry, which finally led to (3). The king responded by passing (4). As a result, Americans held (5), and shortly later, British and Americans clashed at (6). After this, at (7), Americans decided they must proclaim (8). The king then ordered his armies to move, leading to (9). The result of this was Americans successfully negotiated (10). With this help, they were able to trap the British at (11), which led to British recognition of American independence with (12).

1. The French and Indian War	**2.**
3.	**4.**
5.	**6.**
7.	**8.**
9.	**10.**
11.	**12. The Treaty of Paris**

5. Complete the famous words of the Declaration of Independence. (5 points)

We hold these _____ *to be self-evident, that all*

_____*, that they are*

endowed by their creator with certain unalienable _____*, that among these are*

_____*,* _____*, and the pursuit of*

_____,

6. In the Declaration of Independence, Thomas Jefferson explains why a country has the right to make a new government. Tell in detail what his argument is, and where his ideas came from. (3 points)

7. For what political, economic, and/or cultural reasons did Americans declare independence from Britain? Write a short paragraph, discussing at least five causes or events. *Be specific and give details.* (10 points)

Class Feedback

Day 1: PREVIEW

Write three most significant ideas.

PURPOSE: To help you summarize and remember the biggest ideas from the last class.

Fill in timeline.

PURPOSE: To help you understand when events happened compared to other events, and to help you remember events you learned about last week.

Reading summary.

PURPOSE: To help you practice you reading skills, and to introduce you to the big ideas in the next class.

Preview question - EXAMPLE: ("What happens when a government has many parties?")

PURPOSE: To prepare the class to think about the big themes of the week before the lecture.

HOMEWORK: 5W Research

PURPOSE: To introduce important people from the next class, and to help you practice researching.

1. **How is Day 1? Do you feel it is helpful? Why or why not? Are all the activities useful? Do you some work especially well? Should some be changed or improved?**

Day 2: LECTURE

Listen to lecture and take notes.

PURPOSE: To give you the main facts about the lesson, and to let you practice your listening and note-taking skills.

HOMEWORK: Write sentences.

PURPOSE: To summarize the information about events and people you learned in this class, and to help your writing skills.

2. **How is Day 2? Do you feel it is helpful? Why or why not? Are all the activities useful? Do some work especially well? Should some be changed or improved?**

Day 3: SYNTHESIS

Put together lists of papers in groups - EXAMPLE: ("Ideas of Federalists and Antifederalists")

PURPOSE: To help you understand the big ideas of the lesson by making lists or charts in a group.

Respond to quotes

PURPOSE: To let you read the original words said by famous people and to let you practice thinking about their meaning in groups

Tell me three things…

PURPOSE: To help you understand the big ideas of the lesson by summarizing them in group discussions.

Journals

PURPOSE: To give you a way to summarize history that is more personal, and to make you imagine the feelings of a person from historical times.

Map work

PURPOSE: To help you see where events occurred, and to improve your geography skills.

HOMEWORK: Answer heading question

PURPOSE: To help you summarize the big ideas of the lesson, and to help you practice writing.

3. **How is Day 3? Do you feel it is helpful? Why or why not? Are all the activities useful? Do some work especially well? Should some be changed or improved?**

Day 4: PRACTICE

Order events as a group (Write ten events)

PURPOSE: To help you remember the order of historical events for lessons that had many of these, and to give you practice writing.

Match ideas as a group (Write about events then place on blackboard)

PURPOSE: To help you remember the meaning of historical ideas for lessons that had many of these, and to give you practice writing.

Fill in the Cloze

PURPOSE: To review the most important historical terms in the class and to give you practice reading.

Speak about Pictures

PURPOSE: To review the most important historical events in the lass and to give you practice speaking.

HOMEWORK: Reading.

PURPOSE: To give you practice reading and prepare you for the ideas of the next class.

4. **How is Day 4? Do you feel it is helpful? Why or why not? Are all the activities useful? Do some work especially well? Should some be changed or improved**?

Do you feel that you are remembering most of the topics we study in history? If not, what is making it difficult?

Do you feel you are understanding the bigger ideas of history? (Why things happened, what their effects were...) If not, what problems are you having?

Do you think the history classes are improving your ability to use English? If not, what would help more? If so, what is helping?

Any other comments, ideas, suggestions?

Fill in the Cloze

PURPOSE: To review the most important historical terms in the class and to give you practice reading.

Speak about Pictures

PURPOSE: To review the most important historical events in the lass and to give you practice speaking.

HOMEWORK: Reading.

PURPOSE: To give you practice reading and prepare you for the ideas of the next class.

4. **How is Day 4? Do you feel it is helpful? Why or why not? Are all the activities useful? What works well? Should some be changed or improved?**

Yes it is. This day I think I can remeber all the things from that class and hard to forget. Though I don't like the Cloze. But it really help me remember things. All the things in class was. Really nothing need to prove.

Do you feel that you are remembering most of the topics we study in history? If not, what is making it difficult?

Yes, mostly everythings I can remember.

Do you feel you are understanding the bigger ideas of history? (Why things happened, what their effects were) If not, what problems are you having?

Yes, I can. Your class is logical and regular.

Do you think the history classes are improving your ability to use English? If not, what would help? If so, what is helping?

Yes, I think it actually help me about the hearing of English. Because we should learn everything by hear your words.

Any other comments, ideas, suggestions?

Nothing.

Fill in the Cloze

PURPOSE: To review the most important historical terms in the class and to give you practice reading.

Speak about Pictures

PURPOSE: To review the most important historical events in the lass and to give you practice speaking.

HOMEWORK: Reading.

PURPOSE: To give you practice reading and prepare you for the ideas of the next class.

4. **How is Day 4? Do you feel it is helpful? Why or why not? Are all the activities useful? What works well? Should some be changed or improved?**

Yes, ~~the~~ ~~a~~ ~~go~~ this day's class depends more on ~~on~~ ourselfves, these activities is useful ~~to~~ for us to remember. ~~Also~~

I think we should few times to read ~~on~~ the note again.

Have

Do you feel that you are remembering most of the topics we study in history? If not, what is making it difficult?

Yes. But ~~x~~ (some details a story) (I may forget). like the dinner party in American history. I may not ~~can~~ catch the words very fast.

Do you feel you are understanding the bigger ideas of history? (Why things happened, what their effects were) If not, what problems are you having?

Yes.

Do you think the history classes are improving your ability to use English? If not, what would help? If so, what is helping?

Yes. Every class I can listen the English lecture. Now I get used to do(ing) it. And I can study more words from the lecture. I have more time to write.

Any other comments, ideas, suggestions?

May not.

peak about Pictures

URPOSE: To review the most important historical events in the lass and to give you practice speaking.

OMEWORK: Reading.

URPOSE: To give you practice reading and prepare you for the ideas of the next class.

1. **How is Day 4? Do you feel it is helpful? Why or why not? Are all the activities useful? What works well? Should some be changed or improved?**

I think it is helpful because after the last class, we may forget some important knowledge, but review can help me remmber it.

Do you feel that you are remembering most of the topics we study in history? If not, what is making it difficult?

Yes, but I haven't remmbered when these topics happened. because I always will remmber wrong time.

Do you feel you are understanding the bigger ideas of history? (Why things happened, what their effects were) If not, what problems are you having?

No, I only understand what things happened, I can not think too much about effects. I always ~~is~~ have many omissio

Do you think the history classes are improving your ability to use English? If not, what would help? If so, what is helping?

Yes, I can learn ~~mo~~ more words from history. And it help me write essay easily.

Any other comments, ideas, suggestions?

Nothing

Speak about Pictures

PURPOSE: To review the most important historical events in the lass and to give you practice speaking.

HOMEWORK: Reading.

PURPOSE: To give you practice reading and prepare you for the ideas of the next class.

4. **How is Day 4? Do you feel it is helpful? Why or why not? Are all the activities useful? What works well? Should some be changed or improved?**

Yes, I think it is helpful. It can help me to review the lecture.

Do you feel that you are remembering most of the topics we study in history? If not, what is making it difficult?

Yes. I think I can remember most of the topics, but the names of the wars, the people, the events are quiet difficult to remember.

Do you feel you are understanding the bigger ideas of history? (Why things happened, what their effects were) If not, what problems are you having?

I think I can rember the effects but I cannot remember when the events happened well.

Do you think the history classes are improving your ability to use English? If not, what would help? If s what is helping?

Yes, I think it can help me organize English words better.

Any other comments, ideas, suggestions?