Table of Contents Volume 2 Number 1 Winter-Spring, 2002

N.C.S.S. statement on the responsibility of Social Studies Educators by Adrian Davis, President, NCSS .... 2
A Shared History, A Shared Tragedy .................................................................................................................. 3
Are We Teaching “Greek Myths” in the Global History Curriculum? by Alan Singer .............................. 4
Teachers Respond to Teaching “Greek Myths” ........................................................................................................ 10
High School-level Activity: Editorial Board Meeting for a Textbook Publisher by Daniel J. McNamara .... 12

Teaching Ireland in the Curriculum
  Demythologizing Subject Matter by David Cowell ....................................................................................... 13
  Review of the New York State Great Irish Famine Curriculum Guide by Kevin Sheehan .......................... 17
  Teaching About The Great Irish Famine: A Response by Maureen Murphy .................................................. 19
  Teaching Writing with Documents by Jeannette Balantic and Andrea Libresco ........................................... 21
  High School Classroom Activity: Teaching About the French Revolution - A Play by Michael Pezone ..... 24

Elementary-level Activities
  Using Personal Family Documents in Document Based Instruction by Errol Putman ............................ 27
  Bridging Differences of Time, Place and Culture by Judith Y. Singer ......................................................... 29
  Celebrating African American History - A Play by Cecelia Goodman ......................................................... 32
  Using Geography to Integrate Science and Social Studies by Henry Dircks ................................................. 34
  A Science Teacher Looks at Social Studies: How Does Geography Shape History? by S. Maxwell Hines .. 37
  Eighth Grade Study-Travel Trip to Washington, D.C. by Ronald Morris and Jean McNeely .................... 39
  Web Site Directory On Economic Globalization by Kenneth W. Leman ......................................................... 40

Special Theme Section: 19th Century Canals and the Growth of New York and New Jersey
  A Tale of Two (New Jersey) Canals by Howard Green ................................................................................. 43
  Middle-Level Activity: The Towpath Canals of New Jersey by Linda Barth ............................................. 45
  Erie Canal: New York’s Gift to the Nation, Review by Ellen Santora ............................................................. 49
  Erie Canal: New York’s Gift to the Nation, excerpts by F. Daniel Larkin and Lesson Activities .................... 51
  The Genesee Valley Canal by Dean June .......................................................................................................... 67
  Introducing the Authors ................................................................................................................................. 68

Call for Contributions (Inside back cover)
The horrific events of September 11, 2001, have made a profound impression on us collectively as a nation, but also personally and professionally. These events have threatened to endanger our traditional sources of meaning, energy, and achievement in the United States. Historically, Americans have found meaning in work, family, community, and shared faith. We have always drawn upon collective resources to do what we could not do alone. Let us not forget that such tragic events have traditionally served to strengthen, not sever, our idealism, unity, and commitment to democracy.

While we mourn nationally, we also mourn personally. One of our members, Joe Ferguson and his colleague from the National Geographic Society, Ann Judge, leading a study trip with three teachers and three students to California, were on the American Airlines flight that collided into the Pentagon. As we learn more about the victims, we keep in our thoughts and prayers all who have been personally affected by the tragedy.

But however we grieve, we can begin to look on the events of September 11 as a significant opportunity to touch and improve the future. As social studies educators, we need to reinforce the ideals of tolerance, equity, and social justice against a backlash of antidemocratic sentiments and hostile divisions. Such a task is neither easy nor clear-cut, but as teachers, it is a challenge we find every day in our classrooms. In the wake of such loss, devastation, and confusion, we owe it to our students to rise to that challenge again.
A Shared History, A Shared Tragedy

Sometimes the shared history of New Jersey and New York has been contentious. However, in times of local and national emergencies, the states have transcended political differences to act together. The World Trade Center, while located in New York City, was a symbol of their ability to cooperate. It was built by the Port Authority of New York and New Jersey, an interstate agency organized in 1921 to promote economic development in the region. Because of the events of September 11, 2001, it is now the final resting place for thousands of residents of both states. The following statements, issued by the leaders of each state, need to be understood as expressions of pain and hope issued at a particular moment in time. However, they also need to be read critically as historical documents.

Statement from Governor George E. Pataki, September 11, 2001

“Today, we join together as a State and a nation to pray for the victims who were lost on one of the darkest days in American history. We pray for the children who will go to bed this evening without their mothers and fathers, for the mothers and fathers who’ve lost the children they loved, and for the husbands and wives who will return to empty homes. We pray for the firefighters, police officers and rescue workers who tragically died while committing extraordinary acts of heroism. We pray, also, for this great nation of ours, a nation that is free, a nation that is strong, a nation that is united in grief. For we know that the freedom we cherish as Americans which hundreds of thousands of Americans paid for with their lives exposes us to the wicked, murderous, cowardly forces of hate. The forces of evil that committed this atrocity against humankind have caused pain that will last for generations, pain that has claimed the lives of innocent men, women and children. But evil never prevails. Freedom, despite its vulnerabilities to that evil, always will.”

Statement by Acting Governor Donald T. DiFrancesco, Friday, September 14, 2001

“Those responsible for the cowardly acts of terrorism last Tuesday acted out of an ugly and blind hatred for our nation and our people. The attack launched on our soil was aimed not only at our citizens, but at our values and principles. Those who perpetrated this unspeakable act do not hold in their hearts the same values that lead us to fight every day for principles of freedom, democracy and equality for all the peoples of this world. New Jersey has suffered a tremendous loss. Many of those missing call New Jersey home. The victims of this act and their families have not only my deepest sympathies, but also my commitment that we will do all that we can to help you get through this unimaginably difficult time. . . . At this time of great despair and loss, Americans are showing what makes us different, what makes us the greatest nation on earth. Our nation was founded on the very principles for which we have been attacked. And our response has been not to waver or wonder, it has been to strengthen our resolve and demonstrate that we are more committed than ever to the very values and beliefs that make us ‘one nation, under God, with liberty and justice for all.’ We are Americans and we will not be deterred. As our nation responds to the attack, every New Jerseyan must remember that while defending America is critical, it is equally as important that we protect and promote Americanism. Violence against our innocent neighbors will only divide us and strip us of the very values, ideals and principles that define what it means to be an American.”

Questions and an Activity

1. Governor George Pataki describes September 11, 2001 as “one of the darkest days in American history.” Do you agree? Explain your views.
2. What message does Governor Pataki offer to the public in the quote “But evil never prevails. Freedom, despite its vulnerabilities to that evil, always will”? Do you agree? Explain your views.
3. Governor DiFrancesco wants people to “remember that while defending America is critical, it is equally as important that we protect and promote Americanism. Violence against our innocent neighbors will only divide us and strip us of the very values, ideals and principles that define what it means to be an American.” Do you agree? Explain your views.
4. Governor DiFrancesco claims that “Those who perpetrated this unspeakable act do not hold in their hearts the same values that lead us to fight every day for principles of freedom, democracy and equality for all the peoples of this world.” Do you agree? Explain your views.

5. Write your own statement responding to the events of September 11, 2001.

Are We Teaching “Greek Myths” In The Global History Curriculum?

by Alan Singer, editor, Social Science Docket

Our goal is to have every issue of Social Science Docket include an essay on a key social studies concept or controversy in order to stimulate responses from readers and debate in the New Jersey and New York Councils for the Social Studies. This essay focuses on our understanding of the ancient Mediterranean world and examines whether the “Grand Narrative” of Western Civilization at the core of the Global History curriculum is promoting a mythologized past. Prior to publication, the essay was circulated among social studies teachers at local meetings, through council newsletters and via e-mail. Teachers were asked to respond to the essay, discuss how they teach about the ancient Mediterranean world, particularly Greece, and how they encourage students to think critically about historical interpretation. Selected responses are included at the end of the article.


In order to achieve New York and New Jersey social studies curriculum standards students will:

- define culture and civilization, explaining how they developed and changed over time. Investigate the various components of cultures and civilizations including social customs, norms, values and traditions; political systems; economic systems; religions and spiritual beliefs; and socialization or educational practices
- understand the broad patterns, relationships, and interactions of cultures and civilizations during particular eras and across eras
- understand how to develop and use maps and other graphic representations to display geographic issues, problems and questions
- develop and test generalizations and conclusions and pose analytical questions based on the results of geographic inquiry.
- understand the development and connectedness of Western civilization and other civilizations and cultures in many areas of the world and over time
- analyze historic events from around the world by examining accounts written from different perspectives
- understand the broad patterns, relationships, and interactions of cultures and civilizations during particular eras and across eras
- analyze changing and competing interpretations of issues, events and developments throughout world history.
- identify historical problems, pose analytical questions or hypotheses, research analytical questions or test hypotheses, formulate conclusions or generalizations, raise new questions or issues for further investigation
- interpret and analyze documents and artifacts related to significant developments and events in world history
- plan and organize historical research projects related to regional or global interdependence

In March, 2001, The New York Times (Broad, 2001: F1) reported that a submerged robot, searching the bottom of the Mediterranean Sea off of the island of Cyprus, found the remains of an ancient Greek vessel. The research team identified it as a Hellenistic trader carrying a shipment of wine between Rhodes and Alexandria. They estimate that it sank 2,300 years ago in the era of Alexander the Great.

The discovery supports the idea that in the ancient world the Mediterranean Sea was a giant highway for transporting products, peoples and cultures from one site to another. This supported the process of cultural diffusion and contributed to the growth of early empires. In “The Odyssey,” Homer claimed that the Greek hero Odysseus sailed a similar route from Crete to North Africa. That voyage would have taken place about 1300 B.C. The Greeks were not the only prolific sailors of this era. During the thousand-year period before the consolidation of the Mediterranean world under Roman rule, the Phoenicians regularly sailed...
between the Middle East and Carthage in present day Tunisia, and as far as Spain.

This find is of major historical significance because the isle of Rhodes is about 200 miles north of the wreck, near the coast of present day Turkey. Alexandria, Egypt is an additional 200 miles south of the wreck in North Africa. The trip necessitated navigating across open water away from the sight of land.

The research team is continuing to search the region, hoping to uncover a Minoan shipwreck. The Minoans were seafarers who ruled an empire in the eastern Mediterranean and Aegenean Seas from the island of Crete between 2,500 and 1,200 B.C. This period is known as the Bronze Age because it predates the manufacture of iron tools and weapons in the Mediterranean region. No Minoan ship from this period has ever been recovered.

The subheading of The Times article was “Accidental Find Lends New Credence to Greek Tales of Sailing Feats.” This statement is the crux of the issue that I address in this essay. Do social studies teachers present history “backwards” when our starting point is Greek accomplishments? If the Mediterranean was truly a highway in this period, then the likelihood is that it was dominated by the era’s military, economic and cultural superpowers, Egypt on the Nile River and Sumeria or Babylon in Mesopotamia (the Fertile Crescent). Greece, at best, would have been a peripheral trading partner. If Greece was at the margins and Egypt and Mesopotamia were at the center of cultural and technological advancement in this period, are social studies teachers presenting “Greek myth” as history when we attribute the origin of “Western Civilization” to ancient Greece?

### The Nile and Fertile Crescent

The significance of the Nile and Fertile Crescent civilizations in early human cultural development and the power of cultural diffusion are well established. To cite a recent example, Jared Diamond (1997, see a review of Guns, Germs and Steel on page xx), shows that agricultural and animal husbandry emerge in the Fertile Crescent, and spread to the Nile River Valley, over 10,000 years ago (8,500 B.C.). Eventually this “food package,” and a sedentary way of life based on it, spread throughout the Mediterranean world. Diamond traces a similar route for the spread of writing systems. Starting about 5,000 years ago (3,200 B.C.), they develop in Mesopotamia and Egypt (later, but independently, in China, 1,300 B.C. and Meso-America, 600 B.C.), and diffuse across the globe. Other cultural developments in the ancient Mediterranean world followed a similar pattern of dispersion. Pottery first appears in the Nile Valley and Mesopotamia about 7000 B.C.; metallurgy about 4,000 B.C.; formal governments about 3,700 B.C.; and iron tools about 900 B.C. Since the historical record makes it virtually impossible to decide whether a development first emerged in Egypt or Mesopotamia, they are considered as a single point of origin.

Given the early achievements of Mesopotamia and Egypt, why the unbalanced focus on ancient Greece in history textbooks and social studies classrooms?

There are three general answers to this question. Historians and teachers often focus on ancient Greece because they perceive Greek civilization as fundamentally different from the civilizations that preceded it or existed at the same time (as somehow more “western”), and they believe these differences produced the modern world as we know it. Historian Peter Burke (1998: 2) calls this view the “Grand

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Timeline of the Ancient Mediterranean World, 5000 B.C. - 500 B.C.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5000-4000 Egyptian develop 360 day calendar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4000-3500 Sumerians (Mesopotamia) develop writing; Copper, silver and gold work by Egyptians and Sumerians; Cretan ships sail Mediterranean.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3500-3000 Egypt develops numerals, plowing and fertilizing of fields; Sumeria develops wheels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3000-2500 Pyramids and the Great Sphinx built in Egypt; Sumerians develop metal coins; initial settlement of Crete.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2500-2000 Pharaohs rule Egyptian empire; Egypt develops philosophy and the first libraries, discovers use of papyrus; earliest Egyptian mummies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-1500 Egypt controls Crete and the Aegean Islands, develops symbolic alphabet; Greeks migrate from Caspian Sea region to eastern Mediterranean; Hammurabi reunites Babylon (Mesopotamia) and develops legal code; Palace of Minos is built on Crete.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1500-1000 Beginning of the Iron Age; Egyptian empire extends to the Euphrates; Moses and Israelites</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
depart from Egypt; Destruction of Troy; First Greek alphabet; High point of Cretan-Mycenaean culture.

1000-500

Periodic emergence of semi-unified Greece under leadership of Athens or Sparta; Spread of Greek settlement and culture across the Mediterranean; initial settlement at Rome; Persian empire (Mesopotamia) defeats Egypt, dominates the Middle East, but fails to conquer Greek cities.
Narrative’ of the rise of Western civilization: a triumphalist account of Western achievement from the Greeks onwards in which the Renaissance is a link in the chain which includes the Reformation, the Scientific Revolution, the Enlightenment, the Industrial Revolution, and so on.” Within this framework, Houghton Mifflin’s high school text, History of the World (1990), reports that “The earliest civilizations that grew up on the Greek islands developed a unique culture. Although these people were conquered by foreign invaders, many of their traditions endured. Greek ideas would come to have a powerful influence on the politics, thought, and art of Europe and the Western Hemisphere. For this reason, Greece is known as the “cradle of Western civilization” (71).

Can We Document Continuity?

But is there sufficient evidence to document historical continuity from ancient Greece to the modern era? Diane Ravitch and Abigail Thernstrom (1992) edited a collection called The Democracy Reader that includes classic and modern speeches, essays, poems, declarations and documents on freedom and human rights. In this book, Ravitch and Thernstrom try to support a thesis championed by Harvard sociologist Orlando Patterson (1991), who argues that we can trace the history of democratic ideals as an essential component of western philosophy from ancient Greece to the modern world. But an examination of the table of contents raises an interesting problem. The book contains no documents for the 1500-year period between Aristotle’s The Politics (written circa 320 B.C.) and Thomas Aquinas’ Summa Theologia (written about 1250 A.D.). Even if the ancient Greek city-states possessed a system with recognizably democratic elements, it is exceedingly difficult to establish a direct political or intellectual connection between societies separated by over 1,500 years of history. In fact, Greek texts were largely unknown in Europe prior to the Crusades, and only survived because they were preserved by Arab scholars.

A second explanation for the unbalanced focus on ancient Greece is that modern societies can see themselves in their art, literature, philosophy and ideologies. Classical Greek sculpture appears realistic rather than symbolic or exotic. Socrates and Plato sound as if they could be giving interviews on C-SPAN. Athens seems the model for democratic society, while martial Sparta reminds some of 20th century totalitarian societies or Star Trek’s Klingon Empire. Even their Gods, with soap opera like battles and love affairs, remind us of our own passions and conflicts.

But are we reading more into their culture and history than actually can be supported by the historical record? Are we seeing what is there, or what we want to see? Let me offer two examples that illustrate what I mean. The first is an example of seeing what is not there - an ancient philosopher championing modern democratic values. The second is an example of ignoring what is clearly there - a different attitude toward sexual mores.

The popular conception is that Socrates was a Greek philosopher and teacher persecuted, and then executed, by an authoritarian government for questioning leaders and pursuing the search for truth. Unfortunately, the historical record is not so clear cut. In The Trial of Socrates (1988), I. F. Stone concluded that Socrates was actually involved in an attempt by the oligarchy to undermine efforts to broaden representation in Athenian government.

A second issue, rarely addressed because of our culture’s homophobia, is the Greek attitude toward same-sex sexual relationships. According to M. I. Finley (1963: 123-125), Aristotle believed that true friendship was only possible between equals, hence impossible between men and women. Bisexuality was common, especially among the upper class, where men and women were expected to seek both physical and spiritual companionship from people of the same gender. Sexual relations between adult men and younger boys was a feature of military elites in Sparta and Thebes and among the nobility in Athens. This aspect of ancient Greek culture is missing from most high school textbooks.

### Population of Athens during the Age of Pericles, 450 B.C.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total population (estimated)</th>
<th>450,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adult male citizens with ability to vote</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disenfranchised citizens (women, children and some men)</td>
<td>80,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We will probably never know for certain the skin color Egyptian influence on Greek culture and development. takes us away from the more important issue of Egyptians were “Black Africans” because I believe it (Lefkowitz, 1992: 440). Most of the major historical and archeological journals place in history, have been challenged by essays in order to strip people of African anc. has been hidden by mainstream “white” institutions in most of the major historical and archeological journals (Lefkowitz, 1992: 440-460; Pounder, 1992: 461-464; Lefkowitz and Rogers, 1996).

I want to side-step the debate over whether ancient Egyptians were “Black Africans” because I believe it takes us away from the more important issue of Egyptian influence on Greek culture and development. We will probably never know for certain the skin color or genetic heritage of ancient Egyptians. Their art is largely symbolic and I suspect the colors used to portray people were selected from pigments available to artists, not because of the skin color of subjects. Most likely, since ancient Egypt was a crossroads civilization, it was a genetically and culturally blended society with diverse people who probably did not place the same significance on race as we do in the United States today.

Much of the debate over the relationship between Egypt, Mesopotamia and Greece is in response to the work of Martin Bernal (1987; 1991; 2001), who has published two volumes of a proposed three volume collection called Black Athena: The Afroasiatic Roots of Classical Civilization. Bernal marshals extensive evidence to present a detailed case for Egyptian and Semitic (Middle Eastern) contributions to Greek culture during the Bronze Age (prior to 1100 B.C.) based on an examination of religion, art, mythology, language and artifacts. Among other things, he provides powerful arguments for the origins of the Hercules legend and the Sphinx in ancient Egypt.

The ancient world is not my area of expertise as either a teacher or historian, so I cannot evaluate Bernal’s documentation. What I find most interesting are the concessions made by his opponents. Among his more vocal critics, Molly Myerwitz Levine (1992; 1996) accepts some of Bernal’s claims about Bronze Age influence, but argues that they are not at the core of what we identify as classical Greece - its art, politics and philosophy.

Contributions of Ancient Egypt

In an essay titled, “Did Egypt shape the glory that was Greece?” John Coleman, a classicists from Cornell University, presents an alternative historical scenario to Bernal’s and concludes that “recognizing that Greek civilization was influenced from abroad and made use of previous advances in mathematics and science, . . . is a far cry from asserting that it had ‘Afroasiatic roots’” (Coleman, 1996: 281). Coleman claims that all scholars recognize the contributions of Egypt and the Middle East to the ancient Greek world, especially to Minoan or Crete civilization, and argues that the dispute with Bernal is primarily a matter of degree.

According to Coleman’s narrative, cultural contact between the Aegean and Egypt started in the early Bronze Age, around 2100 B.C., as a result of migration.
and trade. Crete needed to import tin, a major ingredient in the manufacture of bronze, which was lacking in the Aegean world. The widespread diffusion of pottery from 2100 to 1725 B.C. shows increasing contacts between Greece and Egypt. During this period, Minoan culture, which was shaped by its contacts with Egypt, exerted a powerful influence on the developing mainland Greek societies. Later, with the decline of Crete, Mycenaean (or mainland Greek societies) took over the trade connections with Egypt. We know less about Greece between 1100 and 750 B.C., but after 750 B.C. Greek soldiers were used as mercenaries in Egypt and, according to Coleman, there is a “flood of influence on all Greek arts and crafts from Egypt” (296). These conclusions are supported by an exhibit I visited, “Crete-Egypt: Three Millennia of Cultural Interactions” at the Herakleion Archaeological Museum in Crete. It contains 527 artifacts that demonstrate interaction between the two Mediterranean peoples. Some of the exhibit can be viewed at the museum’s website (www.culture.gr/2/21/211/21123m/e211wm01.html).

Exhibit from “Crete-Egypt: Three Millennia of Cultural Interactions” at the Herakleion Archeological Museum in Crete.

I find Coleman’s statement balanced and reasonable, and believe it establishes a significant relationship that was ignored before the Bernal work. It is in sharp contrast to what is currently taught in secondary schools. Houghton Mifflin’s *History of the World* (1990) section on Minoan civilization reports that they were “seafaring traders, exporting wine, honey, and olive oil to Egypt, Asia Minor, Syria and Greece” (71), but ignores any Egyptian influence on Crete or Greece. After the collapse of Crete, Egypt plays no further role in Greek history until it is conquered by Alexander the Great. The chapter on ancient Egypt (34-42), reports that Egypt traded with other civilizations in the Mediterranean region including Crete, but does not identify the Greek world or discuss any cultural exchange between the two civilizations. The spread of Greek culture through Alexander’s conquest of the Mediterranean world, known as Hellenization, is presented as a major accomplishment of ancient Greece that stimulated trade, science, philosophy and cultural diffusion. But should conquest and forced assimilation into the Greek world be presented uncritically? Would similar conquests and assimilations be viewed that way if they took place today? The much celebrated Hebrew revolt under the Maccabees (the story of Hannukah) about 170 B.C. was a response to efforts by Greek rulers to enforce Greek culture, law and religion in ancient Israel (Johnson, 1987: 102-107).

**European Renaissance**

The celebration of ancient Greece’s role within the “Grand Narrative” of the Western world is reinforced in standard interpretations of the European Renaissance, which define the era as a rebirth of classical Greek and Roman civilization (Thompson, 1996). According to Burke (1998), “the major innovators of the Renaissance presented - and often perceived - their inventions and discoveries as a return to ancient traditions after the long parenthesis of what they were the first to call the ‘Middle’ Ages” (2). Houghton Mifflin’s text credits Italian humanists, especially Petrach of Florence, with reading ancient texts and “rediscovering knowledge that had been lost or forgotten” (327).

But even if Renaissance innovators believed that social change was a result of the rediscovery of ancient traditions, that does not mean that it actually happened that way. In *Worldly Goods, A New History of the Renaissance* (1996:12), Jardine presents a materialist interpretation of the period, arguing that the celebrated culture of the European Renaissance was the result of a “competitive urge to acquire” stimulated by the growth
of trade, cities and a new affluent, secular, elite. She believes that “Early Renaissance works of art which today we admire for their sheer representational virtuosity were part of a vigorously developing world market in luxury commodities” (19).
But why would this increasing affluent, secular, world claim spiritual and intellectual decent from classical Mediterranean civilizations? The answer is related to the power of religious authority in that era. The Roman Catholic Church was threatened by competing religions and new world views, and brutally resisted change. Framing new ideas and discoveries as a rebirth of knowledge from classical Greco-Roman and Biblical eras was necessary for survival. In Florence, where the European Renaissance first emerged, major religious authorities initially attacked the study of “pagan authors” as an impediment to salvation and humanists were forced to defend the texts as compatible with church teachings (Burke, 1998: 31-32). In the end, Church and secular authorities preferred to credit Aristotle and Ptolemy with the origin of civilization, rather than acknowledging the role of contemporary Moslems and Jews.

Debates over ideas during the European Renaissance were not just intellectual exercises. In the early 13th century, Pope Innocent III launched a Crusade to crush heresy in southern France that resulted in the slaughter of tens of thousands of people (O’Shea, 2000). After warring against its Islamic population, Spain’s Roman Catholic monarchs expelled Jews and in 1477 established the Inquisition. Under Torquemada, the third Grand Inquisitioner, over 2,000 people were burned at the stake for suspicion of rejecting Catholic religious orthodoxy (Thompson, 1996: 509). Noted Renaissance artists and scholars were not immune from suspicion or attack. In 1516, Leonardo Da Vinci, whose actions and work were frequently impious, and who made no pretense of connection with classical antiquity, fled the Italian peninsula and sought sanctuary from King Francis I of France (Thompson, 1996: 147-158). In 1633, Galileo was tried for heresy by the Holy Office of the Inquisition in Rome for challenging the Ptolemaic system and asserting that the Earth traveled around the Sun (Sobel, 1999: 273-278).

Where does this leave social studies teachers? We need to re-conceptualize both the “grand narrative” of Western Civilization presented in global history and the way we teach social studies. Instead of presenting the past as a series of facts and truths to be memorized and celebrated, teachers should engage students in a critical examination of different explanations of the past and present. The Global History curriculum can be organized so students explore essential historical questions (Wiggins and McTighe, 1998: 28-32; Singer, 1999: 28-31), including: What were the origins of Western Civilization? Was there only one origin? Was Athens or any ancient society democratic? Does conquest make a leader (Alexander) great? What are the costs of cultural diffusion and assimilation? How does democracy emerge? How do societies change? Why do societies accept and promote myths about their past?

References:
Teachers Respond to Teaching “Greek Myths”

Social studies teachers were asked to respond to the following questions. Answers have been edited.

1. What are your reactions to the ideas expressed in the essay? Be as detailed as possible.
2. How do you teach about the ancient Mediterranean world in your classroom?

Ken Kaufman, Brooklyn School for Global Studies, Brooklyn, NY

As a high school student in 1974, I was taught about the classic beauty of Greek art, that Socrates was the world’s first philosopher, that Athens invented democracy, and that “Western Civilization” was born in Ancient Greece. I do not remember learning about developments in the “Stone Age” or “Bronze Age” or of contributions from other early civilizations. But that is not how I teach today. The curriculum guide issued by the New York City High School Division has students in ninth grade Global History classes explore prehistoric people, the development of agriculture and metallurgy, and all of the great river valley civilizations. There is still a disparity between the course and our textbooks, however that will change as they are replaced. I agree with many of the issues raised in this article, but I feel they are being addressed in New York City.

Nicole Theo, Islip Middle School, Islip, NY

In my classes, I present ancient Greek civilization, especially Athens, as truly different from other early societies. While citizenship was limited, the ability of citizens to participate in governance is a major development in human history. The founders of the United States were Europeans who traced their cultural and intellectual ancestry back through Rome to Greece. It was their starting point when they approved the Declaration of Independence and created the Constitution. Does world history start with ancient Greece? Of course not. Does ancient Greece have a special role in the history of western civilization and the United States? Definitely.

Stephanie Morris, Hempstead, NY

The “we” in the statement, “Are We Teaching Greek Myths?”, must be identified. It refers to people teaching from a Eurocentric worldview based on lies, misconceptions and propaganda. This essay is commendable because it questions standards and traditions in education and curriculum that have been accepted for hundreds of years in American education. It reveals systemic racism and a cultural trail of deceit embedded within the standard curriculum. Young teachers, especially, but more seasoned teachers as well, must be fortified “to fight the power” that has hidden the truth about history. This essay is a start.

Dean Bacigalupo, Lincoln Orens School, Island Park, NY

In my experience, there is an over reliance on the text as an instructional tool. For example, the text informs us that after the fall of Rome learning stopped and Europe fell into the “Dark Ages.” Any teacher with a critical mind can challenge this statement by using Gothic architecture, mosaics, narrative poetry (The Canterbury Tales), passion plays, or philosophical meditations (Thomas Aquinas, Maimonides) as evidence. Most do not; so students continue to view Europe during the Middle Ages as a savage and lost world awaiting a Renaissance so culture could be reborn.

When I teach Global History, I have students read primary source documents comparing life in Athens and Sparta. At the end of the study, students debate whether equality, liberty, and freedom exist in each polis. According to the text, Athens was free and Sparta was not. But the authors of the text never considered how women or slaves in these societies felt about their social positions. My students did. Curiously, the New York State Regents exam shared the biases of the textbook. When my students refused to identify Athens as a free society, they were marked wrong. A critical approach to learning can empower
students. A change in assessment is needed if we are going to empower teachers.

Robert Storch, former chair, West Hempstead MS/HS, West Hempstead, NY

I applaud this effort to present a conceptualized and inquiry-based approach to the teaching of social studies that stimulates historical debate. It continues to be disheartening to me that “critical examination,” student engagement and “exploration of essential historical questions” remain a minor part of the curricular repertoire. My experiences as a public high school teacher along with my college instruction strongly support my position that the negative attitudes of students toward the Social Studies, as well as their lack of appreciation for its significance, are in large part due to lecture-based presentations which relegate the learner to a passive role as bystander. This certainly does not serve the goals of social studies education to develop intelligent citizens and life-long learners ready and willing to confront and deliberate the critical issues with which we are faced.

Michelle Maniscalco, Syosset High School, Syosset, New York

It is not a surprise that Europeans claim total credit for “Western Civilization,” nor is it a surprise that other cultures want recognition as well. We all interpret history from our own perspective. It would be unfair to dismiss the contributions that Greece did make to Western Civilization, just as it is unjust to ignore the contributions of Mesopotamia and Egypt.

Social studies curricula overflow with content and requirements. I constantly struggle with what to include, exclude or glaze over. I am forced to pick, choose and minimize various historical eras. I readily admit that I simplify and exclude certain historical events. I also confess that my biases influence what I choose to teach. Part of the problem is the way New York State has organized the ninth and tenth grade curricula. In its desire to be less Eurocentric, the course was renamed Global History. However, the organizing theme remains the history of the West and all over societies are measured against it.

At the end of the tenth grade curriculum I rip through countries and regions at a rapid rate in an attempt to prepare students for assessment tests. My goal becomes completing the curriculum not giving students the opportunity to study, think and compare. We must find ways to make social studies more than a forum for lectures and facts. If our students do not learn to think critically about the past and present, then we fail them as teachers. Thinking critically does not merely include analyzing documents, but also the circumstances, the author and the audience. All of this must be included in the curriculum and it will require time.

<table>
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<th>2002 New Jersey Studies Teaching Awards</th>
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<td>The New Jersey Studies Academic Alliance is seeking nominations for its third annual Teaching Awards. These awards recognize innovation and creativity in teaching New Jersey studies. Three awards will be presented in 2002, one to an elementary school teacher, one to a secondary school teacher, and one to a college teacher. Nominations for the award may come from anyone who has knowledge of the candidate's work and should include a letter supporting the candidate; or, a candidate may self-nominate. In the latter case, the submission should include a letter of support from a supervisor or teaching colleague. Nominees for this award should be teaching in a New Jersey school at the time of nomination. The nomination should describe the plan, showing objectives and materials, and include evidence of how student performances were assessed. The plan should demonstrate the creative use of materials or methods in the classroom. Some examples are given below, but the nomination is not limited to them.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Oral history projects</td>
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<td>2. Use of primary sources by students (including: historic sites, artifacts, written or printed sources, etc.)</td>
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<td>3. Three-dimensional projects</td>
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<td>4. Projects which study the diversity of the state</td>
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<td>5. Interdisciplinary programs, especially those which go beyond social studies (these may be collaborative efforts between disciplines or beyond the school environment).</td>
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<td>6. Development of technology programs for the classroom.</td>
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<td>The nomination should also show how the project addresses the New Jersey core curriculum standards.</td>
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Social Science Docket 14 Winter-Spring 2002
Nominees must be willing to share the plan with other teachers, Nominations must be submitted by February 20, 2002 to Dr. Marc Mappen, New Jersey Studies Academic Alliance Teaching Award Committee, c/o New Jersey Historical Commission, PO Box 305, Trenton, NJ 08625-0305. The certificates will be presented at the New Jersey History Issues Conference in March 2002. The New Jersey Studies Academic Alliance may distribute the winning project through printed or electronic media.
Editorial Board Meeting for a Textbook Publisher

Objective: To decide if information about Emperor Hadrian’s romantic relationship with another man—Antinous—should be included in the next edition of your high school Global History textbook.

Instructions: Conduct a well-balanced and reasonable discussion with your fellow editorial board members about the topic of this meeting. It is your task to decide whether or not your company, one of the nation’s largest textbook publishers, should make the information about Hadrian’s same-sex relationship with Antinous available to high school students. The historical evidence supporting this is strong. You will need to weigh the positive aspects of doing so against the possible negative aspects. For instance, including the information about Hadrian and Antinous would make your textbook more historically accurate. On the other hand, it might result in a homophobic response from either school districts or parents. Before you begin your discussion, answer the questions below. Then discuss with your teammates what your company should do. Next, take a vote of your editorial board to establish your decision. Finally, write a 100 word description of your editorial board discussion. Include feelings that came up as you were expressing your ideas and listening to others.

1. What are reasons why the next edition of your textbook should include information regarding Hadrian’s relationship with Antinous?

_____________________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________

2. What are reasons why the next edition of your textbook should not include information regarding Hadrian’s relationship with Antinous?

_____________________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________

3. Of the reasons for and against the inclusion of information regarding Hadrian’s relationship with Antinous in the next edition your textbook, which are the strongest and which are the weakest?

Strongest: ________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________

Weakest: ________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________________________

4. Voting Results of Your Editorial Board:_____________________________________________________
5. 100 word description of your impressions of your editorial board discussion and decision, and your feelings during the discussion.
Teaching Ireland In The Curriculum

Dr. David Cowell presented a version of the first essay at the March, 2001 “Ireland and America: Past, Present and Future” conference at Drew University, Madison, New Jersey. While Dr. Cowell is primarily discussing demythologizing the teaching of history in the college classroom, the issues he addresses are pertinent for K-12 social studies teachers and his comments on Irish history continue a discussion on the teaching of Ireland begun in the Winter-Spring, 2001 issue of this magazine. In the second article, Kevin Sheehan reviews the now completed New York State Great Irish Famine Curriculum Guide. The articles are followed by a response from Dr. Maureen Murphy, Executive Director of the New York State Great Irish Famine curriculum project. Some sample lessons from the guide are included in the theme section on 19th century canals and the growth of New York and New Jersey.

Demythologizing Subject Matter

by David A. Cowell

“Have we in our entanglement with history locked ourselves into a hall of mirrors so grotesque that we can no longer distinguish the realities of what has happened in this island from the myths we chose to weave about certain events?” - F.S.L. Lyons, 1978.

Unlocking the hall of mirrors is a particularly necessary task for the Social Studies, especially when teaching about Ireland. Ireland’s retold past is as much a problem for understanding for the Irish people themselves as an obstacle to learning for the American and American-Irish students.

It is not Ireland’s past that is the problem, although its multilayered aspect is often hard for Americans to grasp, it is in its retelling where there is an impediment to their learning. Most students enter secondary school with a collection of historical myths about the meaning of Irish history learned in schools in a formal way or through our shared Irish American cultural life. In the differences between the methods of the historian and the myth maker lies the problem.

History’s logic is often written as an “adductive process,” the historian piecing together an understanding from an appreciation of the context of the period and a sampling of historic events by combining those facts in differing ways until a “fit” is obtained, an amalgamation of details to create and or suggest patterns, causation, thought processes, shared perceptions and resultant actions (Fischer, 1970: xv). Whether consciously and manifestly or latently and unconsciously expressed, the historians thought process is written there for the student to examine. The student is invited to rethink, and perhaps accept or reject the historian’s argument.

The myth making process, however, is not student friendly in the same way. Myth makers are not constructing or reconstructing events but rather making a statement about the meaning of events. Historical facts are often enwrapped in the myth making but they are there to add veracity to the meaning, which is the real goal of the myth maker. In the hands of the myth maker the historical facts become part of a package of relatedness, seamless, with beginnings and endings, compressing large aggregate phenomena into discrete understandings. And in so doing they are an especial threat to the young scholar.

Students do not think of themselves as researchers, but rather as retrievers of information. They sense themselves as immersed in a sea of truths and facts that only need to be gathered for them to understand them. Questions are thrown to them and they bring back the answers in the form in which, by in large, they find them. The mental transition from being a student retriever to an active researcher is something we all have done, but often as part of advanced preparation. Students have first to grasp and develop an awareness of what being an observant scholar means, sense what skills it takes, and confront what it means to be used by others to advance their cause or argument. The packaged, seamless myths invite no such development as observers.

Developing research and critical skills requires practice. By profession, scholars and teachers are
trained observers. We know how and when to take notes, we can form questions to get the answers we seek, we are in the habit of preparation, and we store data systematically. Student do not. To us, understanding context is presumed, the relatedness of the parts to the whole and to each others is sought, and focusing our thoughts is an obsession. To students, it is all new and sometimes overwhelming. But a myth is a prepackaged whole. It gives no clues about when to take notes, to form questions, what questions do continue to exist, that questioning and uncertainty are part of the process, and what data should be stored and under what categories. The meaning is already clear, preformed and presented without doubts or equivocations.

Students also do not understand the complete intellectual process. To them, being a researcher involves a number of discrete tasks to be done when prompted; they rarely understand the whole process altogether - ideas to design to preparation to experience, to reporting and recording, to organization and writing, to submission and defense. Students see their retrieved facts as completed objects, not as tools to be used in a thought process, a thought process designed to advance our understandings. When the answer is simple, known and accepted, what more is there to be researched, learned or thought about?

But learn they must, and to do that the teacher must of necessity become a myth buster. Now correcting other people’s work is not always fun, but destroying other people’s myths is downright dangerous, even if well intended. The holders of myths like their myths; they work for their holders. But myths do not work for training critical thinkers.

**The Great Hunger in Ireland**

Let us take a look at a great Irish myth - the Great Hunger of the Famine - as an example of a learning opportunity. As the students have often learned, the Great Hunger began with the potato blight in 1845 and ended in 1851 with the death of 800,000 to 1 million Irish and the expulsion and flight of an additional million Irish people, all accompanied by a callous disregard and administrative failure on the part of the English government (and people). A humiliating event the Irish should never remember and the English should never forget.

Now without in any way disputing the numbers or minimizing the tragic and horrible deaths, losses, and sufferings, or in any way justifying English behaviors, let us examine the myth as a student would receive it. First, the student would learn that the Great Hunger has a beginning - 1845, the potato blight - and an end - 1851, death and emigration. The Great Hunger was an event, a fact complete in time and space. A horrible fact. Affecting innocent people. Something that happened once in history, was real, true and tragic. However, before the Great Hunger there was what? And after it, no hunger? No dying? The inference is clear: only English callousness and administrative failure. Is it not? And if English callousness and administrative failure followed, did they not also precede?
dispute about some of the facts but that the Great Hunger was not an event, but a series of events, that in human affairs sometimes the whole of an experience can be greater than the sum of its parts, that events occur in a context which, unlike their laboratory experiments, have no beginning and no end, that the context or environment shapes the events and is shaped by the events, and, finally, that there are larger or at least other lessons to be learned from these events. The myth suggests none of these possibilities. Nor does the myth invite them to think about what they can learn other than its meaning and that the meaning is a fact.

Let us sample some of the context of the Great Hunger to demonstrate this point. In 1841 the Irish population numbered 8,175,000, a multitude that doubled the population of 60 years before (4,019,000 in 1785), and had grown by a third in the one generation since 1821. This rapid population growth was achieved without the health benefits of the Industrial and Agricultural revolutions which encouraged population growth in Europe at the same time - no improved sanitation, fresh water, inexpensive clothing, better and cheaper food, and life saving and infant saving vaccinations. By 1824 British authorities were already acknowledging that one third of the Irish population were paupers and English cities were swamped with Irish immigrants seeking a living, working at such low wages that British workers were demonstrating against the loss of jobs and lowering wages. By the beginning of the 19th century the average Irishman was consuming between 8-10 pounds of potatoes daily, often half cooked to take longer to digest. He seldom ate bread, eggs or meat but instead sold his grain, pigs and eggs for cash. Self-sufficiency in rural agriculture was the widespread basis of the social organization, not agricultural laboring for products to sell to the Irish and overseas markets. Farm innovations such as crop rotation kept grain and potato yields as high as the rest of Europe as all available and marginal land was brought under cultivation, often by subdivision of larger holdings, replacing cash crops with rental incomes. Productivity per capita was, however, declining and with it so were rural wages. Abundant and cheap rural labor was turning over Irish fields with spades rather than encouraging the investment in plows, drills, harrows and farm technology as was happening elsewhere.

Decompressing the Myth

As we decompress the myth, we are opening for the student a world of intellectual and research possibilities. Why was the Irish population growing in spite of the high death rate? Had such rates been achieved under those conditions elsewhere? What was pauperism? How is pauperism measured? Who was counting and why? At what rate were the Irish emigrating before the famine? What impact did existing Irish emigrant communities have on the destination of famine Irish? Was there a pull as well as a push, an attraction as well as a necessity? Were the same sub-groups in Ireland emigrating at the same rate and to the same places? Were there sub-groups? What was the role of British policy in all this? The point here is not to answer these questions. The point here is to indicate that such questions are possible and that their answers would help our understanding of the famine, broaden and deepen it, and that students today can contribute by their research and thought to all of our understandings of the Great Hunger.

For another example, examine the myth’s most enduring and central lesson - the callous disregard and administrative failure of the British government and people alike. A theme thought later to be essential to Irish national identity. The course of British policy and the views of British policy makers during the famine are well documented except, I might suggest, in their Irish dimension. The myth suggests, nay even identifies as the essential meaning, that British policy was a product of British effort. The British parliament, of historic fact, included 105 members elected in Ireland and a number of peers in the Lords, people offering their votes and voices to the Britishness of the policies. What were they contributing?

To avoid using figures who can be easily dismissed by stereotyping, in this case, by use of terms such as landlords, or squires, or Anglo-Irish or even Ascendancy, let us choose Daniel O’Connell, himself, the Great Liberator. O’Connell was an old man by the time of the Great Hunger, last appearing at Westminster in 1847. He had, however, played, surely, a significant role in shaping British policy in Ireland - supporting the 1830-32 Reform Bill, Catholic Emancipation, the Catholic Relief Act, the Catholic Association movements and agitation, and the creation of the national schools and Queen’s Universities. He also played another role, that of the Great Whig, the first lieutenant of Jeremy Bentham. As a Whig and Utilitarian, O’Connell committed his Irish followers to a laissez-faire, free trade policy and thus attacked the
slum and trades workers of Dublin who were attempting to form unions, favored English industrialization and neglected interference in the market mechanisms of Irish agriculture. He led the support for the Corn Laws and opened agricultural free trade within the British Isles putting Irish agriculture in competition with the United States and Canada. His support for the national schools, the non-denominational schools, effectively ended Gaelic speaking and writing (only 10% of the population in 1851 could speak Gaelic and fewer than 1000 could read or write the language). In breaking the power of the Anglican Church of Ireland by ending the “tithe tax” and transferring to the general treasury all the charitable funds entrusted to the Church of Ireland to run the welfare services and relief efforts, O’Connell and his followers championed a real estate tax. When Prime Minister Peel (a Tory) at the recommendation of the Irish Poor Law Commission wanted to reform the Irish poor laws in 1838 replacing them with public works and projects to improve the Irish economy and infrastructure, as well as governmentally financed emigration throughout the Empire, O’Connell led the opposition on the very Whig and laissez-faire grounds that public works would change the markets for labor and cheap labor in Ireland and was an economic advantage for Irish industry (McCaffrey, 1979:53).

The purpose of this essay is not to sully the reputation of Daniel O’Connell or lesson his achievements in mobilizing Irish and Irish Catholic political forces. The purpose is to draw attention to the Irish contributions to the laws shaped British policy in Ireland at the time of the Great Hunger. O’Connell and the Irish Whigs had supported the welfare and pauper policies in place at the time of the Great Hunger, supported the free trade and corn law policies that depressed the prices of Irish agriculture, placed responsibility for relief in the hands of local governments that were dependent upon a single tax source, the land tax, and protected landlord property. Sadly the Irish Whigs joined with the Tories to vote down the Peel administration, which was meeting the first blight with food distribution at subsidized rates, initiating massive private relief efforts through the British Association, and public works projects. The next government was a Whig government, leaving the second and third blights to be met by local work houses and local relief while not interfering with the markets for grain or engaging in market distorting subsidies for food. Moreover, they put the encumbered lands on sale to the free market, beginning the process of communal clearances. The Irish Whig MP’s had all supported all those policies.

And now to return to the opening themes - that the Great Hunger had a beginning and an end. By decompressing the myth, we have already shown there was much in the Irish environment before the Great Hunger to threaten the population. Clearly the policies and practices, the agricultural situation and growing population problems began long before the potato blight arrived. Just as clearly the Great Hunger shaped events long after 1851. Ireland’s population never recovered, as it did after the same magnitude famine in 1740-41 (10% of the population died) and as did all the other famine afflicted populations of 1845-46 in France, Germany, Poland, Spain, and England. “What is peculiar, therefore, was not the famine, but the long-term response of Irish society to the short term calamity” (Lee, 1984:1). Irish population would fall steadily until the late 20th century and Irish emigration became an institutionalized social practice, as did late marriages, a changing rural class structure, declining marriage and birth rates, and a static death rate. In a real sense, the famine or Great Hunger is affecting Ireland (and the United States) still, and perhaps will until the myth is finally broken and the famine’s effects and causes are opened to another generation of scholars and researchers.

References
Review of the New York State Great Irish Famine Curriculum Guide
by Kevin Sheehan

When asked to review the (over) 1,000 page long New York State Great Irish Famine Curriculum Guide, I approached the task with some trepidation. Many of us have heard enthusiastic presentations about the guide at social studies conference during the last three years and have seen previews in national, state and local N.C.S.S. publications. Honestly, the thought, of living up to the expectations of this zealous group, somewhat frightened me.

When I received the curriculum, my fears were not assuaged. Its size and weight were too formidable for an over-scheduled administrator. Naturally, I did what we often crucify our students for, I procrastinated. When time finally left me no option, I opened the cover. What happened next was most similar to the experience that I had when I first cracked open a Harry Potter novel. I was drawn into another world.

The world I was drawn into was the world of Irish history. It was a world that was presented in a way that touched my soul, my intellect and my imagination. The large curriculum, which had once seemed so ominous, revealed Irish history through its economics, its politics, its art, its stories, its songs and most of all, its people. As I painlessly moved from lesson to lesson, Irish history came alive through all my senses. This was more than a story of The Great Famine. The curriculum was a look into the soul of the Irish people themselves.

Addressing State Standards
We have all accepted the STANDARDS created by our state department’s of education and national professional organizations. Standards are hard to be against, but equally hard to put your finger on. They are somewhat like motherhood and apple pie. This, however, is the first document that I have seen integrate the Standards in such a coherent package. The curriculum, as does Harry Potter, draws you in. You read a lesson, make your own personal connections, and then immediately you find yourself drawn to the next lesson. As you find yourself sliding through these lessons in Irish history, you also find the Standards blending into one another. The result of all of this blending is that you gradually feel the event come to life. The history of Ireland, the Famine and the Standards finally make perfect sense.

Of course, you cannot examine a people or a historical event without looking through the lens of geography, government, economics and history. You cannot fully comprehend an event without knowing what came before and what came after. This curriculum starts with the geography and the history and of early Ireland (IRELAND BEFORE THE FAMINE). It moves into a detailed discussion of pre-famine Ireland, which must be in place if we are to understand the Great Famine. As it deals with the famine, it does so through the vehicle of an essential question (WAS THE IRISH FAMINE AN ACT OF NATURE?). It then moves to post Famine Ireland and emigration. The curriculum takes us to New York and the United States with the emigrants so that you can fully feel the impact of the Famine. (HOW DID THE IRISH FAMINE CHANGE IRELAND AND THE WORLD?) The curriculum concludes by examining the legacy of the Great Famine and famine in our world today. (WHAT IS THE LEGACY OF THE GREAT IRISH FAMINE?) It does all of this with a range of reading levels making the curriculum appropriate for any grade level. You can create your own journey through Irish history by carefully selecting appropriate lessons.

Providing Historical Context
Each lesson is organized in a manner that would please even the most discerning supervisor. A lesson begins with a Background section, which sets the historical context and direction of the lesson. If you had little time and wanted to obtain a feel for the history of Ireland, you could obtain it by merely reading the Backgrounds for each lesson. Every lesson specifies the resources needed, often pointing the way to additional outside sources. What makes this curriculum so invaluable is that it - hands you the resources. This is nowhere more valuable than in the elementary classroom where teachers rarely have the
The real power of the curriculum is the fact that essential questions drive all of the lessons, rather than conclusions. The magic of this document is that these questions demand that students function as historians. As a supervisor clinging to the Grant Wiggins concept of essential questions in the face of increased state testing, I found this aspect of the curriculum one which has the power to impact not only what we teach, but how we teach.

The Student Learning Outcomes of each lesson plan spell out what is supposed to happen in the lesson and lead you right into a Standards Addressed section, which points out, in print, specific ELA and social studies standards. This section makes the connection that too many of us, in both disciplines, seem to have missed in our classrooms. In black and white, the curriculum proves that the specific Standards, from our often all too distinct disciplines, can happily co-exist in the same lesson.

The lesson plan then stretches us into greater consideration of the Dimensions of Learning or skills that we are addressing. After these basic components, the lesson plan moves to sections on Assessment Options, Teacher Reflection, and Additional Learning Experiences. These lesson plans look far more thoughtful than the ones that I once busily crafted late on Sunday nights. The beauty of this curriculum is that it puts into the hands of teachers a resource is that is not only user friendly, but one which has the power to elevate our teaching to another plane.

Examining Broader Questions

The real question is how we are going to integrate this curriculum into our over-stuffed and over-scheduled day. Each of us must answer that question for ourselves in our respective educational assignments. In order to relate how I would proceed, I will share with you lessons that I loved and directions that I believe are immediately useful in my world. I loved the DBQ asking students to determine if the Great Famine was an act of genocide. (The Great Irish Famine: An Act of Genocide?) The documents in this DBQ begin with the definition of genocide as provided by the United Nations in 1951 and then set the stage for the question with documents on Nazi Germany, the Armenian Massacre, the slave trade, and the population decrease of the Native American people from Central Mexico after the arrival of the Europeans. The final documents are naturally centered around the Great Famine. Students must find their own answer to this question, as in history and life. The caveat, of course, is that they must provide evidence to back up their position.

All, too often, when present we present a world disaster of horrendous proportions, we tend to leave out stories of human heroism in the face of that disaster. This curriculum will introduce you to the actions of the Quakers, Choctaw Indians and countless individuals whose acts of heroism in the face of the Famine will inspire students. It is vital that we present these stories so that students do not feel a sense of powerlessness in the face of what may seem to be an unfair or unfeeling world. Just as we learned of the named and nameless heroes in the wake of the World Trade Center tragedy, we learn of Irish heroes in the face of starvation. For me, personally, this must be a part of any course on world history. We must share with students a world of hope and empowerment in the face of tragedy and crisis. We must inspire students with the belief that they can make a difference.

Others will find their own places in this curriculum. It might be in the lil of a lesson on the music and song of the Irish, the growing of a potato, the power of mathematical analysis through statistics, geographic determinism, or the countless lessons centered on social history of the Irish people. For me, the beauty of this massive and once frightening document is that you are free to take those pieces that inspire you.

As a last thought, we often create Academic Intervention Services for our most needy students, which tend to squeeze the life out of our discipline. We give these students more of what they hate in the first place, drill and skill and large doses of memorization. What if the basis of an AIS intervention plan, was a mini-course with this curriculum taught with a skills approach. It seems to me we could do still do the drill and skill and mix in an in-depth study of a world event. What an interesting way to build mini-courses back into our over-scheduled days. This could give birth to a whole new way of thinking about support classes.

I urge you to lay your hands on this work. Once you crack the binder, you will find a new and exciting world opening up, a world that make Harry Potter’s fictional universe look ordinary in comparison.
David Cowell’s essay “Demythologizing Subject Matter: Teaching Ireland In The Curriculum” discusses the difference between the methods of the historian and the maker of myth. The historian pieces together the facts of an event to create the relationship between cause and effect, an understanding of the perceptions that surround the event and an appreciation of the results of that event. The historian provides the primary sources that inform the interpretation; readers of history are able to trace the historian’s argument. The myth maker is content with making statements about the meaning of an historical event. They are less concerned with analysis than with conveying their received truth. The difference between the methods of the historian and the myth maker affects the teaching of history. Cowell argues that students should be taught to think like historians rather than to be receivers of historical myths. He offers the example of the Great Irish Famine to demonstrate how to teach students about the complexity of an historical event by interrogating the sources.

The New York Great Irish Famine Curriculum (2001) embraces a pedagogy that is consistent with Cowell’s model. The 150-lesson curriculum is organized around four basic questions: How did the Columbian Exchange and British Colonialism contribute to the conditions that resulted in the Great Irish Famine? Was the Great Irish Famine an Act of Nature? How did the Great Irish Famine change Ireland and the World? What is the Legacy of the Great Irish Famine? The lessons are interdisciplinary, interactive and project-based with opportunities for students to write in a variety of literary forms about the Great Irish Famine.

Our lessons are designed to engage students in reading and evaluating primary source materials: texts, newspaper accounts, maps, charts, statistics, speeches, songs, poems, film and videotapes. Students are encouraged to form their own judgments and to cite their sources for those judgments. The curriculum provides a wide variety ways for students to share their judgments: speaking, listening, reading and writing.

For example, students debate their conclusions in democratic dialogues; they respond to texts written about historical events; they write their own texts in response to their readings; they create dramatic monologues and plays; they answer document-based questions.

Teachers and students respond enthusiastically to the Great Irish Famine Curriculum’s learning experiences; however, the famine myth makers have criticized it for not delivering an indictment of the British government. They would have preferred and accusatory narrative charging that government with genocide. Instead of students mastering myth maker’s scripts, they are expected to demonstrate that they understand that the Great Irish Famine is not a seamless story, that it is complex and that it requires thoughtful analysis. Our hope is that students not only learn about the Great Irish Famine but that they appreciate the way it enlarges their understanding of the issues of hunger and homelessness.

Kevin Sheehan’s review likened the curriculum guide to opening a Harry Potter novel. We are delighted with the metaphor because it suggests that both texts engage young people and their teachers. We are also gratified with his assessment that the guide demonstrates how teachers can use content-rich material to teach to the New York State Learning standards. Like Sheehan, we think the curriculum and the standards complement one another.

Sheehan explores ways that teachers can fit the Great Irish Famine curriculum into an already jam-packed schedule. He suggests finding lessons that speak to student and teacher interests. That is a good idea. The curriculum is not meant to be prescriptive; it offers 150 lessons as platforms for teachers to use to develop appropriate learning experiences for their students. Lessons on human tragedy, debates on official responses, and an examination of the role of rescuers can provide teachers with material to help their students understand other crises in the past and present.

Copies of the New York State Great Irish Famine Curriculum Guide are available from the New York State Education Department, Publications Sales Desk, 3rd Floor, Education Building, Albany, NY 12234. $15.00 per copy includes shipping and handling costs. Checks and purchase orders are accepted.
payable to the State Education Department. For further information, contact Mary Daley, (518) 474-8773; or mdaley@mail.nysed.gov.
Teaching Writing with Documents
By Jeannette Balantic and Andrea S. Libresco

English teachers have always known this essential truth: good writers get lots of practice. Social Studies teachers who have assigned an eight-document DBQ at the end of the first unit in ninth grade have learned this lesson the hard way. The writing process is just that, a process that evolves over a lifetime. Of course, we don’t have our students for a lifetime; we have them for a year or two. But the principle is the same: A journey of a lifetime begins with a single step. The first step in teaching students how to write a DBQ begins with a single document. And the first use of a document does not include a writing assignment; it begins with the teaching of analytical skills.

It is important to expose students to documents early and often in the Global History and Geography curriculum. The earliest documents to use with ninth grade students might include maps, cave paintings, images of architectural structures, and works of art. Visual images are an ideal way to introduce students to the process of document analysis. Students like art -- they’re intrigued and engaged by it; they notice details and raise questions about the work and its creation. Art, then, provides students with their first opportunity to do a close analysis of visual material, and becomes a springboard to an analysis of written documents. Ultimately, students must transfer the skills of observation they have acquired in “reading” a piece of art to actual reading of a text document.

One of the first text documents all students read is Hammurabi’s Code; it is, therefore, a logical place in the curriculum for students to use their newly acquired analytical skills and transfer them to their own writing. Students can work in groups with excerpts of the code to “translate” the laws into their own words. The layout of the page should allow students room to take notes and make comments in the margins, in essence, to interact with the text. It is useful to provide students with combination highlighter/pens; if students use only highlighters, they tend to highlight everything rather than take thoughtful notes. Once students have done their initial analysis, the teacher can model active reading techniques by using a transparency of the document students have just read to allow a comparison of their note-taking to the teacher’s.

Students are now ready to take a crack at their first document-based essay question using a single document.

Hammurabi’s Code established a fair system of government. Prove or disprove this statement.

Students are directed to write the introduction to this essay for homework. The next day, the teacher should question students about their approach in responding to the question. It turns out that many students have no approach in responding to essay questions, no strategy for analysis. At this point, then, it is necessary to teach students how to analyze an essay question; again, the transparency is a useful tool to model this skill. Students tend to classify parts of the Code as “good” or “bad;” however, the key term around which the question revolves is “fair.” Students must identify elements of a fair government prior to responding to the question. Students then need to return to Hammurabi’s Code and measure it against the criteria they have established for a fair government.

After analyzing the document and the question, students are ready to begin the writing process. It is possible to wait to give the thesis assignment until after the question had been analyzed; however, if students have already made an attempt on their own,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements in Hammurabi’s Code</th>
<th>Characteristics of a Fair Government</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classes not treated equally, 196 &amp; 198</td>
<td>Equal rights, prevents crime, protects citizens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides order, protects land and water, 53, 54, 22</td>
<td>Provides for common good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written for all to see</td>
<td>Clear laws</td>
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<tr>
<td>Harsh punishment, 230, 130, 195</td>
<td>Judges/trials, vote?/ freedom?</td>
</tr>
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</table>
they tend to be more invested in the process. Students return to their original introductions and revise based on the class’ analysis of the question. (It should be clear now why only the introduction was assigned; the rest of the paper depends on a strong, thoughtful, analytical introduction.) Have a few volunteers write their new introductions on transparencies so that they may be critiqued and edited by the class, reinforcing the idea that writing is an ongoing process.

This exercise allows the teacher to address a number of writing issues in student papers. First and foremost, students need to think about whether their introduction contains a thesis that actually takes a stand. Students’ first impulse is to straddle the fence and say that the Code was both fair and unfair; as the class works through the introduction, students can arrive at a more nuanced thesis that weighs the evidence and decides whether, on balance the Code was more fair or unfair. Once the thesis issue has been addressed, the class can clean up common problems like tense, choppy sentences and voice. Ultimately, the editing process should allow students to understand that the overall structure of their paper will flow from their thesis. Paragraph 2 will lay out the criteria, analyzing what a fair code of law would look like; paragraph 3 will discuss the unfair aspects of the code—no doubt, this is where students will address the classist nature of the Code; paragraph 4 will explain how the protection and punishment aspects were fair after all.

Now students use their revised introductions to complete their essays at home. It is worth noting that after the four students’ introductions have been edited in class, many more students choose to come after school for extra help with their own pieces. This process may seem time-consuming; in fact, it does use several periods to write the first document-based essay. However, the time invested in the writing process early on has enormous payoffs throughout the year.

The Hammurabi paper provides students with their first opportunity to write an essay based on a document. Starting with a single document allows the teacher to provide direct instruction on the writing process and allows students to develop a deep understanding of the content before they attempt to write a new type of essay. Essentially, we have introduced a new skill with content that students are competent in, enabling them to focus on their writing skills. In the next unit the teacher can build on the students’ work with documents and essay writing by increasing the number and variety of documents students analyze. Gradually, ninth grade students will be required to write thesis-based essays that use documents from multiple perspectives.

One of the critical steps in writing a DBQ comes before students even look at the documents. The questions require students to base their answers on the documents and their knowledge of social studies; in order to receive the highest possible score, students must integrate their outside knowledge with the information they acquire from the documents. Teachers encourage students to write down what they know prior to answering the question, but students frequently neglect this step. We need to build into our tests and essays a mechanism that encourages students to actually write down what they already know about the essay topic. A useful technique for this is a simple chart seen below in a DBQ about the Mongols.

The question above allows students a number of options when it comes to organizing their papers. Students in the class who struggle with writing tend to write thesis statements and organize their papers based on the positive and negative effects of Mongol rule. However, more sophisticated writers organize their papers based on the social, economic and political effects of Mongol rule.

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**Possible Thesis Statements**

1. Although the Mongols were destructive and barbaric, they promoted extensive trading and the spread of foreign ideas. [Teacher comments: Value-laden? Where? Were effects the same in all areas?]
2. Beginning around the 13th century, the Mongolian empire expanded across China, northern India and Russia. Life changed dramatically for the people of those lands after the Mongols took over. [Teacher comments: Dramatically -- in a positive or a negative way?]
Thesis number one addresses the positive and negative effects, but not the places, while thesis two addresses the places, but not the nature of the changes. The comments are intended to help students write a more comprehensive thesis. In the Hammurabi paper, we rewrote the thesis statements in class; now, we raise questions about the theses so students can rework their introductions on their own.

The writing process does not end when the essays are handed in. On the contrary, an excellent teaching opportunity presents itself in the grading of essays. On the essay following the Mongols, a debriefing session might begin with questioning students about the process they used to write their essays. Ask students whether they wrote their thesis first or gathered evidence first. You may be surprised at their answers. Ask students how they went about organizing their information; what structures did they reject and why? Why did they settle on their ultimate structure? What were its strengths and weaknesses? Students should also engage in a process of analyzing their writing. New York Teacher (2/23/00) had an article with suggestions for helping students write DBQs. One suggestion that was particularly helpful was to have students reread their own papers and “have them take three different-colored highlighters and mark the three “must-haves” in every document-based essay: the document references, the outside information that the student brings to the exam and the thesis, which should be part of every paragraph. The most complete essays show a balance of colors.” This process can be modeled on the overhead with a sample student paper. We often explain to students the elements that need to be present in their papers, but this activity allows students to see visually where their papers are lacking. On still another essay, grade the DBQs with the students. Students can help design the rubric and then identify which documents and external sources were used in the service of proving the thesis.

Clearly, teaching writing with documents is an ongoing and time-consuming process, but it need not be taken on only by high school social studies teachers. It is important to talk with our English colleagues. Social studies teachers and English teachers have a common goal to improve and develop writing that, in turn, will improve and develop thinking. Good writing is good writing in English and in social studies, yet we sometimes unknowingly work against one another. When social studies teachers require a thesis statement in an essay, our expectations should be the same as those of our colleagues in the English department. English and social studies teachers need to develop a common language for teaching about writing; of course, this means colleagues need common planning time to discuss the elements of good writing and examine students’ papers to identify exemplars. Ideally, English and social studies teachers should be able to work with students on a common assignment. The Hammurabi paper provides a perfect opportunity to do this early in the school year. It provides students with feedback from both teachers and can be a springboard for a discussion about writing between the two departments.

Just as it is important to talk across the disciplines to develop good writing, so it is imperative that teachers across grade levels talk to one another. As the new social studies tests are administered in the fifth and eighth grades, high school teachers need to talk with their middle and elementary school colleagues about what they expect in thesis statements and how students are taught to cite documents in their essays. Increased dialogue between schools and across grade levels will ensure that skills are built upon every year and that teachers can have a certain expectation with regard to what students should know and be able to do when they enter our classrooms. Most people are familiar with E.M. Forster’ counsel, “Only connect…”; not many know the line that follows. In Howard’s End, Forster continues, “Only connect the prose and the passion…” The more connections we as high school social studies teachers can make with our colleagues through articulation across grade levels and disciplines, the more connections our students will be able to make. Through continual attention to the process of writing based on documentary evidence, we hope our students will connect their learning of content, skills and values so that they are able to take
I have three goals when teaching about a complex series of events like the French Revolution: to “reduce” difficult history to a few fundamental themes and concepts; to help students become actively engaged in learning; and to promote public-speaking and literacy skills. This play presents, fairly it is hoped, several important issues, including the causes of revolution, conflict between social classes, and political violence. The performance involves all students, who find it both enjoyable and informative. Finally, the project culminates in a cooperative learning activity, in which groups of students rewrite the play in their own language, and then performed the new plays. Typically, the project spans 6 or 7 class periods, and has been a high point in my 10th grade Global History courses. The first day, the class reads the script together and discusses key questions. The second day, students perform the play in class.

**Key Questions**

1) What were the grievances (complaints) of the French people in 1789?
2) Why were the Jacobins unhappy with the National Assembly’s Constitution?
3) Why did the other kings of Europe want to undue the French Revolution?
4) Why did The Terror backfire against The Committee of Public Safety?
5) Why did the French people accept Napoleon as dictator?

**Historical Characters:** Necker, Turgot, Queen Marie Antoinette, King Louis XVI, De Mirabeau, Sieyes, Robespierre, Saint-Just, Danton, Marat.

**Scene One**

Narrator: Ladies and gentlemen, we are now to perform a play about the French Revolution, one of the most important and influential events of world history. The first scene takes place at Versailles, in the palace of the French king, Louis the 16th. The king is meeting with his wife, Queen Marie Antoinette, and two of his ministers, Turgot and Necker. The year is 1789, and they are discussing the economic crisis that France is suffering.

Necker: Your highness, my king, the royal finances are in terrible shape!

Turgot: Yes, my king, Monsieur Necker is right. The nation’s debts are rising higher and higher. We must cut expenses!

Necker: Turgot and I agree, my king. It is the only way to put the budget in order.

The Queen: This is preposterous!! Cut royal expenses!! Tax the king and queen!! Preposterous!!

The King: True, our finances are in terrible shape. My predecessor, Louis the 14th, dreadfully mismanaged our money. And our loans to the Americans, to help them in their fight against England, did not help matters.

Turgot: So true, your highness! We must tax the royal treasury and cut back on royal expenditures!

The Queen: How dare you! We are the king and queen of France! We rule in the name of God, and of his only-begotten son, Jesus Christ! How dare you tell us how we should spend the wealth that is our due!

Necker: My queen, I beg your pardon! But the people are very angry. There are many now who say that your life of luxury is a slap in the face to the French people!

The Queen: Outrageous! You forget yourself, sir! Such talk is treasonous!

The King: I will hear no more of this! I am the king! The people must accept their burdens without complaint! It is the will of God! Enough of such talk, I say!

**Scene Two**
Narrator: King Louis the 16th disregards his ministers’ advice. The French people, no longer willing to endure their suffering, call for a meeting of the French Parliament, known as the Estates-General, which has not met since the year 1614. Leaders such as Sieyes and de Mirabeau speak passionately. Their words are inspired by Enlightenment ideas and by the example of the recent and successful American Revolution.

De Mirabeau: Gentlemen, the French people can no longer suffer under unfair debts and taxes! And why should the people suffer, while the nobility continue to enjoy their special privileges?

Sieyes: Yes, good de Mirabeau! And the government continues to interfere with our businesses! Let us not forget the words of our great philosopher, Rousseau: “Man is born free, but everywhere he is in chains!”

De Mirabeau: Yes, nor let us not forget the great achievement of our brothers in America, who resisted tyranny and sent King George packing!

Sieyes: Indeed! Where would they have been without our support? If we can help the Americans gain their freedom, we can help ourselves to the same!

De Mirabeau: We must form a National Assembly, where the voice of the people can be heard!

Sieyes: Yes, and we must write a Constitution!

The People: Yes!!! A National Assembly!! A Constitution!!

**Scene Three**

Narrator: A National Assembly is formed and soon issues a famous document called the Declaration of the Rights of Man. In response, the King sends loyal soldiers into the city of Paris. The people, in anger, storm a fortress called the Bastille (every year, French people celebrate Bastille day as the first act of the French Revolution). Thousands of people march in protest to the palace at Versailles. The French Revolution has begun.

The People: Liberty!! Equality!! Fraternity!! Liberty!! Equality!! Fraternity!!

**Scene Four**

Narrator: By 1791, a new Constitution has been written, making France a limited monarchy. The King, and his royalist supports, are outraged by this limit on the King’s power. They begin plotting to restore the King’s full powers. The Constitution also creates a new legislature, but restricts the right to vote to middle and upper class men who own property. This angers some radical leaders called Jacobins, who want to extend democratic rights to everyone. Around the city of Paris, the Jacobins meet to discuss France’s future. Men such as Robespierre, Danton, Saint-Just, and Marat lead them.

Robespierre: Citizens! The king and queen are plotting against our revolution! We must be on our guard!

Saint-Just: Robespierre is right! There are rumors that Antoinette is communicating with the King of Prussia and the King of the Holy Roman Empire, asking them to invade France and overturn our revolution!!!

Danton: These are dangerous times! What is our National Assembly doing to protect our revolution?!

Marat: Good question, Danton! The Assembly members are nothing but a group of bourgeois and noble dogs! They do not care at all about the rights of the common people!

Saint-Just: Marat is right! See how they have denied the vote to all but men of property!

Marat: Disgraceful!!

Narrator: Just then, a messenger runs in with extremely important and troubling news!

Messenger: Citizens! I have amazing news! The king and his family have been arrested as they were trying to flee France to join our enemies! And there is more! King Leopold and King Frederich Wilhelm have threatened to invade France and restore absolute monarchy!!

Robespierre: It is counter-revolution!!

Danton: Our enemies are ready to pounce on us!!

Marat: The National Assembly will not protect the revolution!! We must abolish it!!

Saint-Just: We must form a National Convention!! A new government that represents the common people!!

Robespierre: We must write a new Constitution!! One that insures the rights of the people!!

Danton: We must abolish the monarchy!!

Marat: We must declare a republic!!

Saint-Just: Yes! A republic!!

Robespierre: The king cannot be allowed to organize his supporters! He must be put to death!!

Danton: We must declare war against our foreign enemies!!
Marat: Louis to the guillotine!!
The People: Death to the king!!! Long live the Republic!!!
Narrator: The King and Queen of France are led to the guillotine, and beheaded!

**Scene Five**

Narrator: It is 1792. The Jacobins form a National Convention, but real power is held by a group of 12 Jacobins on the Committee of Public Safety. Civil war soon breaks out between republicans and royalists. The new Republic of France creates a new calendar and the metric system of measurements, abolishes imprisonment for debt, and eliminates slavery in the French colonies. But at the same time, the Committee of Public Safety begins ordering the deaths of thousands of people whom it considers enemies of the Republic. This time of suspicion and mass murder is known as the Terror. The Terror increases in intensity after a noblewoman assassinates the popular leader, Marat. Soon the Committee’s leader, Robespierre, turns the violence upon Committee members themselves.

Robespierre: Saint-Just, my friend, the way in which Danton was speaking was outrageous! He clearly wishes to compromise with our enemies!
Saint-Just: Yes, Robespierre. He is calling for an end to the Terror! He might as well ask us to surrender to our enemies!
Robespierre: He is a great danger to the Revolution! If he is allowed to divide the Committee, our enemies will surely take advantage!
Saint-Just: He must be arrested!!
Robespierre: He must be put to death!!
Saint-Just: We have no choice!
Robespierre: Yes, justice and virtue demand no less!!
Narrator: Danton is led to the guillotine, and beheaded!

**Scene Six**

Narrator: By 1795, France is at war with the kingdoms of Europe. Soon, the French people turn against the Committee of Public Safety. Robespierre is arrested and guillotined! The next day, his friend Saint-Just is also beheaded! The National Convention creates a new Constitution, one even less democratic than the National Assembly’s Constitution. In response, a radical leader, Babeuf, tries to organize a democratic movement called the Conspiracy of Equals, but he too is arrested and killed! From 1795 to 1799, the people of France still suffer, as war against the royalist nations of Europe continues. By 1799, the French people long for a strong leader who will put an end to their suffering. A victorious general named Napoleon Bonaparte seizes power and becomes first consul of the Republic. In 1802, he is elected consul for life, and in 1804 he becomes Emperor of France. His armies win victory after victory until Napoleon controls most of Europe. But in 1812, Napoleon faces a new challenge:

Napoleon: My people, let us pause a moment to consider the great benefits our victories have brought to Europe. We have abolished feudal privileges and eliminated serfdom. We have created a system of more equal taxation. We have given every man the right to vote. We have guaranteed freedom of religion. But perhaps our greatest achievement is the code of laws we have put in place throughout Europe. I am honored that some people refer to these laws as the Napoleonic Code. We have created equality under the law, and guaranteed habeus corpus, the right to a fair trial, and the right to be represented by counsel. What’s more, under our code, a person is innocent until proven guilty. But, my loyal subjects, our enemies are still trying to undo the great achievements of the revolution. Our one-time friend, Russia, has now declared war against us. But with your support, I shall lead our armies into Russia and on to victory! We must put an end, once and for all, to those who wish to restore the tyranny of kings! Long live the French Empire!

Narrator: Napoleon leads his armies 500 miles into Russia, all the way to the city of Moscow. But all his army finds there is a burning city, set on fire by the Russians themselves so that its riches will not fall into French hands. Now Napoleon’s army, short of supplies, has to retreat hundreds of miles through a bitter Russian winter. A large part of Napoleon’s army dies from cold, starvation, and disease. As a result of this famous defeat, the European powers unite against Napoleon. In 1814, Napoleon is defeated and captured. In France, monarchy is restored, and Louis the 18th is made the new king. But despite this restoration of monarchy, the memory and example of the
French Revolution and its cry of “liberty, equality, fraternity” lives on to inspire democrats and revolutionaries throughout the 19th and 20th centuries.

The People: Liberty!! Equality!! Fraternity!! Liberty!! Equality!! Fraternity!!

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**Suggested Activities by Michelle Maniscalco, Syosset High School**

- Review the play. Analyze the plot and characters. What was the climax? Would the play be a success?
- Write mini-biographies of each of the characters in the play.
- Write obituaries for Louis XVI, Robespierre and Napoleon. How might history have been different if they had never lived?
Elementary-level Classroom Activity:

Using Personal Family Documents in Document-Based Instruction

By Errol Putman

Teaching with documents, long considered integral to good social studies instruction at the secondary level, will soon become commonplace at the elementary level as well. This change in instructional emphasis is the byproduct of a State Education Department (SED) initiative that mandates a document based question (DBQ) be included on the fifth grade state assessment test. Intended to improve the quality of social studies instruction for New York’s elementary students, this mandate will go into effect in Fall, 2001. The new state initiative requires elementary students engage in authentic exercises such as identifying, categorizing, and interpreting documents in a way that closely approximates the work of real historians. In effect, elementary students will join middle school and high school students in “doing history” as a required part of their social studies instruction. Elementary teachers currently in the classroom are now responsible for including document-based instruction in their social studies classes.

A strategy that can prepare elementary school teachers to provide document-based instruction is through the use of personal or family documents. I have successfully used this approach with social studies preservice teachers. The strategy is based on the assumption that if teachers explore documents related to something familiar to them, they will be more interested in the study of primary source material. I usually use several documents from my own personal and professional life. They include:

1. birth certificate
2. pictures from senior yearbook
3. high school diploma
4. undergraduate and graduate transcripts
5. first teacher contract
6. collection of award certificates from my years in public school teaching
7. newspaper article highlighting my retirement from public school teaching and coaching
8. photograph of myself and my two daughters
9. copies of four greeting cards sent to me by my daughters
10. newspaper article highlighting travel to Poland and Israel

We begin our discussion of document-based instruction with the Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary’s definition for the term “document.” Documents are: (a) evidence or proof (b) an original or official paper relied on as the basis, proof, or support of something, (c) something (as a photograph or a recording) that serves as evidence or proof, or (d) a material substance (as a coin or stone) having on it a representation of thoughts by means of some conventional mark or symbol. Next, we examine the documents and I ask students to use them and their prior knowledge to describe “the personal and professional life of Errol Putman.” The initial description is offered verbally, rather than in writing.

At this point, the class is divided into groups of three or four students. Each group receives a package with copies of all of the documents. They must respond to a list of scaffolding questions that accompany each document, and identify additional questions that could be added to the original list. I encourage them to view the documents as cumulative and to use the information provided by the initial documents to frame questions for those that follow.

Although the number of documents exceeds the number that would be used in an elementary school class, I find the process offers an effective introduction to document-based instruction and the design of document-based
questions. As a follow-up activity, students design document-based question based on documents from their own lives.
Sample Individual Documents and Questions

Document 1 Questions: birth certificate
1. Where was Errol born?
2. What was the date of Errol’s birth?
3. What was Errol’s mother’s name?
4. Where was Errol’s father born?
5. What other question(s) of fact might be asked about this document?

Document 2 Questions: first teaching contract
1. After graduating from college, how long did it take Errol to obtain his first teaching position?
2. On what date did Errol sign his first teaching contract?
3. With which school system did Errol sign his first contract?
4. What was the first annual salary Errol received as a teacher?
5. What other question(s) of fact might be asked about this document?

Document 3 Questions: photograph with daughters
1. Describe the group of people in the picture.
2. What do you learn about these people from the picture?
3. What other question(s) of fact might be asked about this document?

Document 4 Questions: collection of award certificates
1. Why were certificates awarded?
2. Who were the sponsors of the awards?
3. What were the dates on each individual awards?
4. What other question(s) of fact might be asked about these documents?

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Social Science Docket 37 Winter-Spring 2002
Elementary-level Classroom Activity:

**Bridging Differences of Time, Place, and Culture Using Children’s and Young Adult Literature**

by Judith Y. Singer

In the third, fourth, fifth and sixth grade social studies curriculum, New York State Standards focus on historical, geographical, and cultural similarities and differences in the world. Third graders focus on culture and geography as they learn about contemporary communities around the world. Fourth and fifth graders learn about local, state, and national history, and sixth graders add the study of culture to an exploration of global history and geography. Helping children bridge these differences requires creativity and imagination on the part of classroom teachers. Reading multicultural children’s and young adult literature can be an effective way to help both teachers and their students gain entry into these many worlds. Each of the works of fiction described below helps to create a context in which readers can travel to different historical eras and different parts of the world.

**United States History:**

*Immigrant Girl: Becky of Eldridge Street* by Brett Harvey (1987), illustrated by Deborah Kogan Ray. NY: Holiday House (Fourth grade). This story introduces the reader to immigrant life in the early part of the 20th century through the eyes of a Jewish immigrant girl named Becky Moscovitz. The Moscovitz family of nine live in a three-room flat on the Lower East Side of Manhattan. Becky describes the hubbub of the carts in Hester Street, selling everything from eggs to umbrellas. She tells us about her responsibilities to care for younger siblings and her humiliations as she struggles to learn to speak English correctly.

From her Aunt Sonia, Becky learns about sweatshops where the doors are locked so workers cannot get out during the day. In a fictional account of an actual historical event, Becky sits by Sonia’s side in a big hall at Cooper Square as workers call for a strike to protest unfair working conditions. This book provides wonderful detail for helping readers imagine life in New York City in 1910. Readers can identify a wealth of contrasts between life today and 100 years ago. After reading this book, students can discuss whether similar conditions exist today.

*Out of the Dust* by Karen Hesse (1997). NY: Scholastic Inc. (Fifth grade). This story takes place in the Oklahoma Panhandle during 1934 and 1935, at the height of the Great Depression. The book is narrated by a fourteen year old girl named Billie Jo. Written as a series of prose-poems, it is the story of poor farmers struggling to survive in the dust storms created in part by the excesses of production during World War I. A fire brings further tragedy to the close-knit family at the center of this story, causing Billie Jo to reflect on her teacher’s comment that the sorrow of the dust bowl did not come suddenly: “But now sorrow climbs up our front steps, big as Texas, and we didn’t even see it coming, even though it’s been making its way straight for us all along” (p. 84).

In this beautifully-written novel, Billie Jo brings us into the middle of a dust storm with her as she struggles to reach home. “Brown earth rained down from the sky. I could not catch my breath the way the dust pressed on my chest and wouldn’t stop. The dirt blew down so thick it scratched my eyes and stung my tender skin, it plugged my nose and filled inside my mouth” (143-144). This book helps readers reflect on the relationship between human beings and their environment and on their ability to survive under extreme conditions.

*Roll of Thunder, Hear My Cry* by Mildred Taylor (1976). NY: Puffin Books (3rd/4th grade). The narrator of this novel, Cassie Logan, gives the reader another view of the Great Depression, this time through the eyes of an African American girl growing up in Mississippi. In the segregated South, black people have few rights and are allowed little dignity by white people. While most blacks are tenant farmers, David Logan, Cassie’s father, owns
his own land, and he is determined to hold onto it. He goes to work for the railroads to help pay the mortgage and taxes on the farm, leaving the family to manage without his stabilizing force in the face of the persistent hostility from white neighbors.

When the book opens, Cassie and her brothers are on their way to school. As they walk through the red dust, her youngest brother, Little Man, going to school for the first time, is trying to keep his clothes clean when a school bus loaded with white children speeds by and covers them all with the red dust. Furiously dusting himself off, Little Man asks his older brother, “‘How’s come they didn’t even stop for us?’ ‘Cause they like to see us run and it ain’t our bus,’ Stacy said, balling his fists and jamming them tightly into his pockets. ‘Well, where’s our bus?’ demanded Little Man.” Stacy responds, “‘We ain’t got one.’” (pp. 13-14). Mildred Taylor, recounting her family stories, draws the reader into the Depression-era Deep South and affirms the dignity and courage of black people as they struggled against Southern racism.

*The Gold Cadillac* by Mildred Taylor (1998), illustrated by Michael Hays. NY: Puffin Books (3rd/4th grade). In this story, Mildred Taylor takes us to Toledo, Ohio in 1950, when black families were able to build some financial security for themselves in northern states, but while Jim Crow laws were still firmly entrenched in the South. ‘Lois’s father has purchased a “Brand-new 1950 Coupe deVille,” and her mother is inexplicably not happy about it, refusing to even take a ride in the new Cadillac. When her father decides to drive the new car to Mississippi to visit his parents, the uncles all try to reason with him, reminding him that “those white folks down south’ll lynch you soon’s look at you.” (p. 24). When he insists, ‘Lois’s mother announces she and the children will be going with him, while the relatives all decide they will go along, too, making a long caravan of cars to provide some protection for one another. On this ride to Mississippi, ‘Lois and her sister are first introduced to signs that say “White Only: Colored Not Allowed.” While the author has readers experience the fear and intimidation of Southern racism on this trip, she also affirms the strength and warmth of a black family supporting each other in a difficult and often dangerous world. As they read, students can trace the journey of ‘Lois’s family, from Toledo, Ohio to Memphis, Tennessee, to Mississippi and back again.

*Journey to Topaz* by Yoshiko Uchida (1985), illustrated by Donald Carrick. Berkeley: Creative Arts Book Company (4th/5th grade). On December 7, 1941, right after the Japanese bombing of the U. S. Naval base in Pearl Harbor, FBI agents appeared at eleven year-old Yuki’s door. They took her father away for questioning, together with other Japanese businessmen in San Francisco. All the men were then sent to a relocation camp in Montana for an unspecified period of time. Soon Yuki learned that all people of Japanese descent in California would be relocated to internment camps. The author chronicles the disbelief Yuki experiences as her own family and others try to dispose of their things before the evacuation date. On the day of the evacuation, Yuki and her family report to their Civil Control Station and wait to board one of the buses which will take them to the Tanoform Racetrack which will be their new home. “The buses, like giant vacuum cleaners, were sweeping up all the Japanese from the streets of the city. As Yuki waited to get into one, she noticed large groups of people gathered across the street to watch. She wondered what they were thinking. Were they relieved to see the Japanese go? Were they glad to be rid of them?” (p. 46). In recent years the United States government has apologized for the internment of Japanese-American citizens and has paid financial reparations for their losses. This book helps children discuss what happens when people act on prejudice.

**World History:**

*Morning Girl* by Michael Dorris (1994). NY: Hyperion Paperbacks. (4th/5th grade). Morning Girl is a young Taino girl who revels in the quiet of the early morning, before anyone else is awake. She speaks of how the day welcomed her and “brushed my hair with its breeze, greeted me with its songs. I raised my arms high and stretched. I let the rich scent of the large red flowers color my thoughts, and the perfume gave me an idea of how to use my special time” (p. 5). Morning Girl’s brother, Star Boy, who sees everything upside down from her, prefers the night.
Through their eyes and their sibling rivalry, readers are helped to imagine Taino life in the Caribbean of the late fifteenth century, just before the arrival of Columbus.

The author portrays a life that is close to nature. Homes are not built to withstand a tropical storm, but to be easy to rebuild afterwards. At the end of one such storm, Morning Girl reports, “No one had died. The storm had damaged nothing that could not be built again. Who needed a roof when the sun shone so friendly or when the stars glowed overhead, watching our sleep?” (p. 45). Readers can talk about the contrasts between their own lives and those of this Taino sister and brother.

**Number the Stars** by Lois Lowry (1989). NY: Dell Publishing (5th/6th Grade). It is 1943, and the Nazis have occupied Denmark. Ten year old Annemarie Johansen, her Jewish friend Ellen Rosen, and Annemarie’s little sister Kirsti are stopped and questioned by German soldiers as they walk home from school one day. A few weeks later, Annemarie’s mother sends her to buy a button from Mrs. Hirsh, but Mrs. Hirsh’s store is closed and padlocked, and it has a sign in German on it and a swastika. Ellen’s father comes to tell the Johansens that the Nazis have taken synagogue lists of all the Jews. He explains, “They plan to arrest all the Danish Jews. They plan to take them away. And we have been told that they may come tonight” (p. 36). When Ellen comes to stay with Annemarie’s family, posing as Annemarie’s sister, Annemarie wonders whether she will have the courage to protect her friend. In this story of how ordinary people struggled to save the Jews from the Nazis, Annemarie learns that she does have courage. This book exposes readers to the terrors of the Nazi regime in Europe, but it also affirms the work of the Danish resistance. When young readers learn the history of the Nazi holocaust, they also need to learn about the people who fought back.

**The Devil’s Arithmetic** by Jane Yolen (1988). NY: A Puffin Book (5th/6th grade. Hannah, the thirteen-year-old narrator of this book, does not want to attend the family’s annual Passover seder in the Bronx. During the meal, she reluctantly opens the door to welcome the prophet Elijah, a tradition observed by Jews around the world. She suddenly finds herself transported to a village in Poland in 1942. As Hannah slowly makes sense of her surroundings, she desperately tries to warn her family of the horrors to come. When German trucks approach a wedding celebration, she calls out, “They’re Nazis. Nazis! Do you understand? They kill people. They killed--kill--will kill Jews. Hundreds of them. Thousands of them. Six million of them! . . . We have to turn the wagons around.” (p. 65).

Hannah is transported in a crowded boxcar to Auschwitz, and through her eyes we experience the horrors of a Nazi death camp. In this painful story, Hannah returns to the present with a new understanding of the need to remember the past. She tells other children in the death camp, “You must remember, too, so that whoever of us survives this place will carry the message into that future. . . That we will survive. The Jews. That what happens here must never happen again” (p. 157). This book provokes readers to think about the implications of the Nazi Holocaust for young people living in the 21st century.

**Taste of Salt: A Story of Modern Haiti** by Frances Temple (1992). NY: Harper Trophy. (6th grade). It is 1991, and Djo is a member of a group of street boys adopted by Titid (Aristide). Djo describes his home when he was a small child. “Before we came to live here, before my father painted it so fine, this room was a stall for a motorcar. That is why it has no window, my mama explains, and why it is so small and tall” (p. 10). “My daddy is not home much, but when he does come home everything is one wonderful bamboche, fine nights full of guitar and radio, the smell of friend food” (p. 14).

Life is not wonderful for Djo for very long. His impoverished mother sends him out with his cousin Lally to find food in the streets. There Djo and Lally are beaten up and some people bring them to Titid’s church. Later, after a falling out with Titid, Djo leaves this sanctuary and is kidnapped by gunmen and forced to cut cane in the Dominican Republic. This story of violence, exploitation, and poverty in modern Haiti is also a story of the ability of people to survive and to resist oppression when they have a vision of something better. Aristide offers such a vision: “A house with a roof, water to drink, a good plate of rice and beans, a field to work in” (p.134).
Elementary-level Classroom Activity:

Celebrating African American History
by Cecelia Goodman

I teach a very diverse group of fifth graders at P. 197 in Brooklyn, New York. We wrote and performed this play as a concluding activity during Black History Month. It includes a chorus and dancers. The narration is divided up among a number of students. We invite your class to use our play or to write your own. The words to the songs are available in the book *Rise Up Singing* (Bethlehem, PA: Sing Out, 1992).

Narrator: Five hundred years ago on the continent of Africa great civilizations existed. There were centers of learning with rich and varied cultures. But things did not remain that way. In today’s program, we will look at the history of African Americans, from the time of slavery to the present. We hope that you will learn about some of these important events in our country’s history.

Dancers: Students perform an African Dance to the beat of a drum.

Narrator: When Europeans traveled to the Americas after 1492, they found a strange new land. New crops were planted and lots of workers were needed. Many Africans were taken from their homes and brought to this land as slaves. This was a very sad time in World history.

Chorus: *Kumbaya*

Narrator: Slaves sang about freedom all of the time but the masters did not know what they were singing about. They thought slaves were singing about heaven, but they were singing about becoming free.

Chorus: *Swing Low, Sweet Chariot*

Narrator: Africans never stopped trying to escape to freedom. Many rebelled against harsh conditions.

Nat Turner: My name is Nat Turner. I hated working from sun up to sun down six days a week. If we were sick or couldn’t work hard, we were beaten. We had no freedom. I was so unhappy, I created a plan to overthrow the plantations. Many slave masters died and many, many slaves were killed. Even though my plan failed, I am glad I tried to win freedom.

Gabriel Prosser: My name is Gabriel Prosser. I hated slavery because my family could be sold away at any time. I would never see them again. I too planned a major slave revolt. My plan was to capture Virginia. I was able to organize several thousand slaves and free Blacks. Our rebellion failed, but many people learned of the cruel treatment of slavery.

Narrator: Many slaves ran away to freedom. They followed the Big Dipper and the North Star to bring them to the North and Canada on the Underground Railroad. Harriet Tubman was a conductor on the Underground Railroad and freed hundreds of people. She was known as the “Black Moses.” “Follow the Drinking Gourd” was sung as a code to teach slaves how to escape to freedom.

Chorus: *Follow the Drinking Gourd*

Narrator: The end of slavery brought new opportunities. It was also a time of pain, particularly in the South. Blacks and whites were separated in all areas of life. Blacks lived in poor conditions. Yet despite great difficulties, many leaders emerged. We will now turn the clock back and interview some important people of this period.

Host: Good morning and welcome to the After Slavery Show. We will be speaking to several African American heroes to learn about their lives and their struggles. Our guests today are Frederick Douglass, Mary McLeod Bethune, Dr. Charles Drew and Ethel Waters.

Douglass: My name is Frederick Douglass. I was born a slave. I escaped in 1838. I worked with a white abolitionist named William Lloyd Garrison. An abolitionist is a person who fights against slavery. During the Civil War, I was an enlisted officer. I encouraged President Lincoln to make Emancipation an issue. Emancipation means freedom for all people.

Bethune: My name is Mary McLeod Bethune. In 1896, I founded a school for Black girls. In 1935, I founded the National Council of Negro Women. I was a special advisor on minority affairs to President Franklin D. Roosevelt. In 1940, I became the vice president of the NAACP.
Drew: My name is Dr. Charles Drew. I received a medical degree in 1933. I discovered a way to preserve blood plasma. In 1941, I became the first medical director of the American Red Cross Blood Bank. I helped all people regardless of their race. This was a time when there were separate black and white hospitals.

Waters: My name is Ethel Waters. I grew up very poor. I knew that I was talented. I knew that if I worked hard that my life could change. I began to sing Jazz and the Blues, to act in both plays and the movies. In 1950, I won the New York Drama Critics Award for my performance in the Broadway play “A Member of the Wedding”.

Host: Let’s have a round of applause for these wonderful guests.

Narrator: From the time after the Civil War until the 1950s the southern states had a system of Jim Crow laws. Blacks had to live life separated from whites. They could not eat at the same places, drink from the same water fountains, go to the same schools or vote. This caused great anger and led to the Civil Rights movement.

Parks: My name is Rosa Parks. I did not believe I should have to give up my sit on the bus to a white man just because he was white. One day when I refused to move to the back of the bus, the bus driver called the police and I was arrested. My protest started the Montgomery Bus boycott. Many people supported me and we began to fight against Jim Crow laws.

King: My name is Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. In 1963, I gave a speech in Washington DC in front of the Lincoln Monument. This is from the last part of my speech. “I have a dream that one day this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed: ‘We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal.’ And if America is to be a great nation this must become true. So let freedom ring. When we let freedom ring, when we let it ring from every village and every hamlet, from every state and every city, we will be able to speed up that day when all of God’s children, black men and white men, Jews and Gentiles, Protestants and Catholics, will be able to join hands and sing in the words of the old Negro spiritual, ‘Free at last! free at last! thank God Almighty, we are free at last!”

Bridges: My name is Ruby Bridges. I was the first Black child to attend an all-White school in Arkansas. White people were so upset about school integration that they threatened to hurt me. Soldiers had to bring me into the school. For a long time I was the only student in my school.


Poem: Then I Rise by Maya Angelou

Narrator: African descendants from all over the world have benefited from these struggles. Today we enjoy the gifts these diverse groups have given us. They reflect the different faces of African and American culture.

Dance: Students perform a Reggae Dance.

Narrator: We will close our celebration today by singing Lift Every Voice. This song was adopted as the unofficial Black National Anthem. Please stand and join us as we sing this song.

Chorus: Lift Every Voice
Using Geography to Integrate Science and Social Studies

by Henry Dircks

The focus of geography in secondary education is generally on the location of cities, states, countries, continents, natural resources, major land formations and bodies of water, international boundaries and interconnecting routes. One of its more important functions in the social studies curriculum is academic skill development through map-reading and design, and the creation and analysis of information on charts and graphs. Geography is also used to help students develop their ability to observe, organize, and analyze information presented in pictures, slides and on video.

The importance placed on geography in secondary education has had its peaks and valleys, and now seems to be rising. In the early national era, geography, not history, tended to be the main focus of what we would now call the social studies. In a physically-expanding, largely agrarian nation that was also dependent upon international trade, a subject that focused on map skills, international and domestic trade routes and land formations, had more concrete value than stories of great deeds by heroic figures from the past. However, as the study of history became associated with explanation and nation building during the 19th and 20th centuries, geography was eclipsed. In social studies classes, geography continued to provide students with information that teachers believed they needed to memorize, but curricula were organized around history.

In recent decades, two factors have contributed to a resurgence of geography within the social studies - a focus on global interdependence, including increased attention on the non-Western world, its contributions to world history and culture and its role in contemporary world affairs, and concern for the impacts of environmental issues like pollution, resource depletion, and global warming, on the quality of human life. Geography, while still generally taught within the context of history or current events, has become crucial for defining and comparing regions of the world, and for understanding the relationship between people and place, the migration of people plants and animals, the ways that the physical world influences human development, and the ways human development has changed the physical world. An example of an area where geography enriches our understanding of history is the study of the impact of post-Colombian exchange that, among other things, brought crops like sugar cane to the Americas and potatoes to Eurasia and Africa. Results of the introduction of potatoes into Ireland included concentration on one crop agriculture, a rapid increase in population from approximately 1.5 million people in 1760 to 9 million people in 1840, a devastating potato famine between 1845 and 1852, and the death or emigration of millions of people.

Geography also contributes to the interdisciplinary nature of the social studies by introducing understanding drawn from the natural and physical sciences about climate, agriculture, and the use of resources like air, water and land. These topics are particularly important when preparing students to participate in decision-making as active citizens.

Learning Activity: Ecological Disasters - Acts of Nature or People?

Materials: Water, Plastic Container, Sponge, Plastic Wrap, Tape, Pitcher, 1 lb. Weight

Motivation: The world is a changing place. The Sahara Desert is expanding into the Sahel region of Africa. Forests have disappeared in Northern India and Haiti. Flooding threatens human life and property along the Mississippi River. Are these changes caused by acts of nature or the actions of people? The activity that follows illustrates the importance of preserving marshlands to minimize the devastation caused by flooding.

Directions:
1. Place a dry sponge in the open plastic containers. This represents marshland.
2. Slowly pour in a measured amount of water. This represents spring floods caused by snow melting in the Mississippi River’s watershed area. The sponge absorbs the water.
3. Wring out the sponge and pour water back into the measuring pitcher.
4. Wrap the sponge with plastic wrap and secure the wrap with tape. Place the sponge in its position in the container, and place the 1 lb. weight on top of it. This represents man’s paving and development of the marshlands.

5. Slowly pour the same measured amount of water into the plastic container. The water should be displaced by the covered sponge and overflows the container. This represents flooding of the river system.

Questions:
1. Why did the water overflow the “banks” of the container?
2. How did the marshlands alleviate the effects of the melting snow and rain?
3. How do the actions of man contribute to flooding along rivers?

Learning Activity: How do monsoons work?

Materials: Large map of India, Cloth sheet (with words “Hot Air Over Subcontinent); Blue Latex Balloons (with words “Cool, Moist Air Over Ocean)

Motivation: Unlike rains which periodically move across our region, monsoons pour rains down upon the Indian subcontinent for months at a time. Why might the rains last for such a long period of time? Let students brainstorm possible scientific causes. This activity demonstrates the basic cause of the monsoon rains.

Directions:
1. Place large map of India on the floor. Place the cloth sheet over the subcontinent on the large map. Explain that during dry season in Indian year, the air over the subcontinent is heated. Ask: what happens to air that is heated? It rises.
2. Blow up the balloons and place them on either side of the sheet, roughly over the Bay of Bengal and Arabian Sea. Explain that this is moist air over the Indian Ocean region.
3. 4 volunteers should grasp corners of the sheet. On the count of 3, they should pull the sheet up quickly. Observe what happens to the balloons when the sheet is raised.

Questions:
1. What happens to the balloons? Why? (Rising air causes vacuum beneath it; moist air rushes in to fill vacuum)
2. How does this help explain how monsoons work?

Learning Activity: Why is there a hole in the Ozone Layer?

Materials: Graduated Cylinder, Food coloring, Water, Vegetable Oil, Liquid Detergent, Eyedroppers

Motivation: The ozone layer protects the world from the sun’s harmful ultraviolet radiation. Through the use of chlorofluorocarbons (CFC’s), people have depleted the fragile ozone layer and left a hole in the layer over the Antarctic. This activity demonstrates how the ozone layer protects our atmosphere and how it is endangered.

Directions:
1. Fill the graduated cylinder halfway with water. Explain that this represents the Earth’s atmosphere.
2. Pour a small amount of vegetable oil into the cylinder and allow it to collect and form a thin layer over the water. Explain that this represents the Ozone Layer.
3. Using the eyedropper, pour drops of food coloring onto oil layer. The layer should keep food coloring from entering the water. These drops represent the ultraviolet radiation that is reflected by the Ozone Layer.
4. Explain that liquid detergent represents CFC’s which man has released into atmosphere. With drops of food coloring suspended on layer of oil, pour a drop of detergent in cylinder. Detergent should break up oil and allow food coloring to seep into water, coloring it.

Questions:
1. What happened when the detergent was dropped onto the layer of oil?
2. How does the activity demonstrate the actions of the Ozone Layer and CFC’s?
3. Can this effect be reversed?

**Learning Activity: Global Warming - Does it really work?**

**Materials:** 2 Plastic Containers with Lids, Vinegar, 2 Scientific Thermometers, Baking Soda, 2 250-Watt Spotlights

**Motivation:** Scientists warn against rising levels of carbon dioxide and other gases in our atmosphere. The presence of these gases causes the average temperature worldwide to increase. These small increases may seem harmless, but their effects could be monumental. Have students brainstorm effects of increased temperature regarding the following topics: desertification, sea level, migration of people, wildlife and plant life, daily living by humans.

**Directions:**
1. Place two plastic containers side by side. In the bottom of both, place a half-inch of vinegar. On the sides of both, affix a thermometer. Put the lid on one container.
2. Into the other container, pour baking soda. Allow approximately 30 seconds for the baking soda and vinegar to react, and fill the container with CO₂. Then cover the container.
3. Place the two containers under the spotlights.
4. Allow approximately five minutes to pass. Have student observer record the temperatures in each container.

**Questions:**
1. How do the closed containers represent?
2. How did the two containers differ? How did this affect the demonstration? Why?
3. Does Global Warming really work? How does the demonstration prove it?

In his Pulitzer Prize winning work, *Guns, Germs, and Steel: The Fates of Human Societies*, Jared Diamond sets out to answer a simple question asked by a Papua New Guinean friend named Yali. “Why is it that you white people developed so much cargo and brought it to New Guinea, but we black people had little cargo of our own?”

In response to Yali, Diamond has written a 480 page book that uses insights from the fields of geography, geology and evolutionary biology to help explain the last 13,000 years of human history. His primary conclusion manages to be both simple and profound - the broad trends in the history of human societies since the last major Ice Age have far more to do with geographic conditions, climate and available resources than the actions of individuals or the cultural superiority and inferiority of groups. Diamond does not dispute that there are “individuals whose idiosyncrasies apparently influenced history” and that some groups were more successful than others. However, he argues that neither individual nor group actions explain the broad sweep of history and his goal, as a scientist, is to discover general, underlying principles.

Diamond makes a powerful case that because of accidents related to geography, the indigenous Eurasian people of the area known as the Fertile Crescent (or Mesopotamia) had a head start over other societies and that this advantage eventually contributed to European global dominance. These advantages included the east-west axis of the Eurasian continent that permitted the spread of agriculture and animal husbandry along lines of latitude. In Africa and the Americas, because of their north-south axis, animals and plants either had to adapt to new climate zones or make an unlikely leap over broad land areas.

The size of the Eurasian land mass meant that multiple river valley civilizations could share discoveries such as writing and technological advances, while in the Americas, Africa and Oceania agricultural societies developed in isolation. Sharing even extended to diseases. Because Europeans, Africans and Asians lived in more densely populated areas and in closer proximity to disease spreading animals, they emerged relatively unscathed from the Colombian exchange while native America civilizations were devastated.

Diamond emphasizes that many developments in human history happened a relatively few times, and that societies that could not learn from their neighbors were severely handicapped. He believes that agriculture developed independently eleven times, in four areas of the Americas, three areas of Africa, New Guinea, Mesopotamia and twice in China. Other locations, including the Nile, Indus and Ganges River civilizations and all of Europe probably initially learned of agriculture through cultural diffusion. Similarly, writing probably developed independently in four locations (Sumer, Mesoamerica, China and Egypt) and iron smelting in three (Asian Minor, West Africa and China).

As a scientist and an African American woman, I especially appreciated Diamond’s challenges to racial stereotyping and arguments about genetic superiority and inferiority. In sections on the domestication of plants and animals, he shows that Eurasians were fortunate to have settled in areas with most of the world’s large-seed grass species that could be used as food crops and mammals that were candidates for domestication. While Africa also had a large number of potential animal species, none of the large mammals were successfully domesticated. Diamond points that this history of failure includes four hundred years of unsuccessful attempts by European farmers and scientists.

I found this book a wonderful blending of social and natural science that effectively demonstrates how they impact on each other. It can easily be used by teachers to develop integrated curricula that consider the overarching themes on which human societies are based. Because Diamond’s writing and extensive maps and charts are accessible to non-specialists, social studies teachers and advanced students will enjoy reading the book and selections can be used in all global history classes.
THE SPREAD OF AGRICULTURAL, DOMESTICATED ANIMALS AND DISEASE

Where Agriculture Began (p. 126)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Crops</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fertile Crescent</td>
<td>wheat, barley, pea, lentil, olive, chickpea, flax, muskmelon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>millet, rice, soybean, hemp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mesoamerica</td>
<td>corn, beans, cotton, yucca, squash, jicama</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andes/Amazon</td>
<td>corn, lima, peanut, cotton, manioc, sweet potato, potato, squash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Africa/Sahel</td>
<td>sorghum, millet, rice, cowpea, groundnut, cotton, yam, watermelon, gourd, oil palm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>beans, cotton, flax, cucumber</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>teff, millet, coffee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern U.S.</td>
<td>grasses, artichoke, squash, sunflower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Guinea</td>
<td>sugar cane, yams, taro, banana</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Which region makes the greatest contribution to agriculture?
2. In your opinions, why does agriculture develop independently in so many areas of the globe?

Spread of Fertile Crescent Crops (p. 181)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Era</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>before 7000 BC</td>
<td>Fertile Crescent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7000 - 6000 BC</td>
<td>Asia Minor, Egypt, Crete, Greece, Caspian Sea, Persia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6000 - 5000 BC</td>
<td>Central Europe, Iberian and Italian Peninsulas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000 - 2500 BC</td>
<td>Northern and Western Europe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. How long does it take for agriculture to travel from the Fertile Crescent to Western Europe?
2. In your opinion, how did agriculture spread?

Distribution of Large Grass Species (p. 140)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>West Asia, Europe, North Africa</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Asia</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Americas</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Which region of the globe had the most large grass species?

Mammal Candidates for Domestication (p. 162)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Animals</th>
<th>Eurasi a</th>
<th>Afric a</th>
<th>Americ a</th>
<th>Australia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Domesticated</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Domesticated</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Which region of the globe had the most potential mammals for domestication?
2. Which region of the globe had the greatest success with domesticating mammals?
3. Why is the domestication of animals considered a major achievement in human history?

Origin of Large Domestic Animals (p. 167)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Dates</th>
<th>Locations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dog</td>
<td>10,000 BC</td>
<td>SW Asia, China, North America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheep</td>
<td>8,000 BC</td>
<td>SW Asia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goat</td>
<td>8,000 BC</td>
<td>SW Asia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pig</td>
<td>8,000 BC</td>
<td>SW Asia, China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cow</td>
<td>6,000 BC</td>
<td>SW Asia, India, North Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse</td>
<td>4,000 BC</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donkey</td>
<td>4,000 BC</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water Buffalo</td>
<td>4,000 BC</td>
<td>China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Llama</td>
<td>3,500 BC</td>
<td>Andes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camel</td>
<td>2,500 BC</td>
<td>Central Asia, Arabia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Which animals were domesticated in Southwest Asia?
2. What is the value of each of these animals?
3. In your opinion, why were dogs and cows domesticated in more than one area?

Deadly Gifts from Our Animal Friends (p. 207)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Diseases</th>
<th>Animals with Closely Related Diseases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Measles</td>
<td>Cattle (rinderpest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuberculosis</td>
<td>Cattle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Pox</td>
<td>Cattle (cowpox)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flu</td>
<td>Pigs and Ducks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pertussis</td>
<td>Pigs and Dogs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Falciparum Malaria</td>
<td>Chickens and Ducks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Which region of the globe had the greatest contribution to agriculture?
1. Why was living in close proximity to domesticate animals a health hazard?
2. In your opinion, were there any advantages to being exposed to these animal diseases?
Every year the spring budding of the cherry trees signals another onslaught of the yellow school buses and the charter coaches rolling thousands of students into the federal district for the eighth grade pilgrimage to the nation’s capital. The students in one such eighth grade class and their teachers took a trip to Washington, D.C. to study about the national capital. They spent two weeks preparing for the trip, one week on the trip, and three weeks debriefing. In Washington, D.C., they spent their time seeing the government in operation, exploring the sites, and digesting the large city. They not only saw national treasures, but they also participated in performing arts and the cultural exhibits about history and government.

**Preparation Before the Trip:** To prepare for their trip to Washington, D.C., each student was assigned a site from their itinerary by lottery. Students studied to become tour guides for a specific site by reading at least three published sources, examining web resources ([www.cr.nps.gov/nr/twhp/state.htm](http://www.cr.nps.gov/nr/twhp/state.htm), Teaching with Historic Places, is especially recommended) creating a travel brochure, and writing a ten-minute presentation. In their presentations, they explained what the site celebrates and why it is important. Teachers encouraged students to practice speaking before the trip so they did not need to read from notes or directly from their papers. Students also researched national issues and wrote questions to ask their congressional representative.

**Washington, D.C.:** When the class arrived at an historical site, student presenters shared information with the class and distributed their travel brochures. While at the site, students collected texts and pictures to use to create a scrapbook. Some sites lent themselves to specific activities. At the Korean War Memorial, students used paper and crayons to make rubbings from the faces on the wall. At the Vietnam Memorial, they looked up their family names and names of relatives and people from their town in the directory near the wall. At John F. Kennedy’s grave site, students copied blocks of text by making rubbings of quotations. At the F. D. R. Memorial and other sites with statues, students used their bodies to finish, add to, or reinterpret a sculpture.

When students interviewed their congressional representatives, they learned about the legislative process, congressional committee assignments, the representative’s position on major issues, campaigning for office and the political parties.

**After the Trip:** Each student created a scrapbook about Washington, D.C. including material from each of the sites visited on the trip. They also wrote introductions for their scrapbooks, descriptions of every site, discussed responsibilities they assumed on the trip, and how they participated in class decision-making. On the last page of their scrapbooks, students evaluated what they learned and reflected on how they changed because of the trip.

**Conclusions:** Middle school students need to see learning in alternative settings as a logical extension of the classroom and opportunities to conduct their own research about history. In order for students to get the most out of trips, teachers must make sure that they are well prepared and adequately debriefed about their field experience. To discuss ways to better integrate trips into the social studies curriculum, contact Ron Morris at Ron.Morris@ttu.edu.
Students need to understand that the inexpensive consumer products which they enjoy are the result of an expanding international system of production and trade. Globalization is a complex issue, with many interrelated factors, all of which affect students’ lives in some way. It has created or contributed to new technologies, the growth of huge and powerful multinational corporations, an unequal distribution of capital, and wide disparities in democratic and human rights. In the evolution of today’s world economy, there are big winners and numerous losers. Not every winner is in a developed country and not every loser is in an underdeveloped country.

In general, there are two polar views of the global economy. One is that globalization is ultimately beneficial for everyone, but that we are still working out the bugs. The other is that the current systems involved are inherently flawed and favor international big business over the needs and rights of workers and cultures. The only area of agreement is that globalization in some form is inevitable. But what form it should take remains hotly debated. Possible areas of inquiry on globalization include:

- How do international capital systems work and how do they affect local, national, regional and international economies?
- How do the economics of globalization affect wages and prices?
- Why does globalization promote the removal of production and jobs from developed to underdeveloped countries and what are the social costs in those countries?
- How does globalization promote child labor, environmental degradation, and poor health in underdeveloped countries?
- Why have the power of multinational corporations and trade agreements affected the balances of national, international and regional power around the world?
- Why doesn’t globalization lead to expansion of democracy and improved human rights?
- Why should you as a citizen and consumer care about globalization?
- How can globalization occur without disrupting culture, religion and traditional economies?
- What changes can and should be made to the current global systems to more uniformly benefit all people, or at least avoid detriment to more people?
- What can businesses, labor, government leaders and citizens do to make globalization better?
- If globalization can not be made more fair, can and should the world undo or modify the current global business systems? Can the clock be turned back?

The Internet is an excellent way to involve students in exploring information about globalization and political debate over its consequences. Many of these sites require strong reading skills, and some contain extremely complex narratives and advanced vocabulary. Notwithstanding this challenge, I encourage teachers to have students use as many of the sites as possible. They present a number of thought provoking points about human rights, child labor, poverty, inequality and the environment.

1. **Center for Economic Policy and Research (www.cepr.net).** This private think tank site offers a balanced and critical view of economic globalization, discussing many of the relative advantages and disadvantages to countries around the world. More importantly, the enclosed “Globalization: A Primer” is an excellent overview of the interrelated factors affecting the world economy. This is one of a number of sites which publish such primers allowing teachers and students to gain a basic understanding of what globalization means. The site includes graphs and uses examples, but some vocabulary may challenge students with lower reading abilities.

2. **International Monetary Fund (www.imf.org).** Posted by one of the two supranational organizations which controls international capital, this site offers its own primer on economic globalization, albeit with a...
market-model bias. While it makes good use of graphs and its reading level is not over the top, it does require student understanding of economic terms like GDP. The bias of this site is clearly towards globalization as an evolving process of expanding the market economy to all countries. And while it freely acknowledges bad consequences of globalization, it generally takes the approach that such consequences are the by-product of change rather than systemic inequality. For the IMF, falling real income or increasing third world debt are risks that go with the rewards.

3. **The World Bank Group** ([www.worldbank.org](http://www.worldbank.org)). Some would call this the evil twin of the IMF’s site, and in that sense it has many similarities in view and technical jargon. It is somewhat less accessible for the average student, but is an excellent site for the better reader (maybe even a teacher) and contains a wealth of information on World Bank policy and practice. The IMF and World Bank sites together, while clearly biased towards the haves of the world, have a wealth of information which students can use to see how money moves around the world and why.

4. **Clearing House Interbank Payments System** ([www.chips.org](http://www.chips.org)) and **Asian Development Bank** ([www.adb.org](http://www.adb.org)). These two sites are not really related, but they are very accessible for both teachers and students of all reading abilities. The CHIPS site explains how international banking transactions are cleared in a fashion similar to the U.S. Federal Reserve system so that students can grasp some of the technical aspects of international monetary exchange. The ADB site shows how the ADB functions regionally to provide funding for local economic and infrastructure development in Asia.

5. **International Relations Program of University of California at Davis** ([ps.ucdavis.edu](http://ps.ucdavis.edu)). This is another broad but extremely useful primer site on globalization. It offers succinct but dry information on a variety of topics with links to articles providing more analytical views of those topics. Good for teachers and students of all abilities.

6. **JusticeNet** ([www.justicenet.org](http://www.justicenet.org)). This site provides articles and links to other sites which take a more critical view of the downside to globalization. Articles discuss the social and economic disruption that IMF and World Bank practices cause. This is an excellent example of how the world economy causes disruption in all countries in one way or another.

7. **Resource Center of the Americas** ([www.americas.org](http://www.americas.org)). This activist think tank site offers an easy to use alternate view of the global economy being driven by the needs of multinational corporations. Its three part analysis of globalization “from the bottom up” gives students a basic understanding of the new economic inequalities which affect peoples in underdeveloped countries. Reading level is moderate, vocabulary defined, and critical comparisons are provoking (e.g. General Motors 1998 sales exceeded the Gross Domestic Product of 108 countries). This is a great site to get students thinking about how globalization may not be all that the IMF or World Bank make it out to be.

8. **Youth for International Socialism** ([www.newyouth.com](http://www.newyouth.com)). A key site in the anti-globalization movement, it offers a fairly balanced but critical view of the inequalities which globalization has brought to workers in both developed and underdeveloped countries, as well as offering students a view of the socialist beliefs behind the recent organized protests at meeting sites of the WTO, G-8 and IMF. The vocabulary may not be familiar to students in the post-Communist era (bourgeoisie, anti-capitalists), however, this presents an opportunity for teachers to compare how globalization was accelerated by the fall of the USSR and Warsaw bloc. A good site for comparing capitalism and free-market economies with socialism and planned economies.

9. **Worldwatch Institute** ([www.worldwatch.org](http://www.worldwatch.org)). This site provides a wide variety of alternative analyses of globalization’s downside. Although this site is easy to use, reading level is somewhat high. The focus on environmental degradation is a good one for students.

10. **Global Challenge Initiative** ([www.challengeglobalization.org](http://www.challengeglobalization.org)). This organization’s sole purpose is challenging the current global system. The site offers access to a wealth of information, training programs and advocacy support to oppose the status quo. This is a great site for both students and teachers to become engaged in understanding and challenging the state of the world economy, and it is the only site that provides political cartoons.

11. **Mother Jones** ([www.motherjones.com](http://www.motherjones.com)) and **AFL-CIO** ([www.aflcio.org](http://www.aflcio.org)). Mother Jones is an excellent site which offers an incredible amount of easy to use information on globalization’s ill effects. For example, an
easy to read article entitled “Globalization and the Maquiladoras”, discusses how the Maquiladoras built in Mexico have created a labor system in which local workers toil in unhealthy Western owned factories for low wages. The description of the working conditions and mistreatment of workers in these factories is succinct and provoking. The AFL-CIO site provides organized labors view of issues, shown here on “Fast Track,” and allows students to use an e-mail petition opposing Fast Track.

12. The Fair Trade Federation (www.fairtradefederation.com). This is an interesting site which focuses on the FTF’s small but acknowledged activities to promote fair wages for overseas workers engaged in global production. The FTF’s eight Practices and Principles could be used to challenge students to think about fair wages, employment practices, etc. and whether these can be promoted within the global economy.

13. The Center for Strategic and International Studies (www.csis.org). One of the biggies of Washington’s traditional think tanks, the CSIS site offers some interesting, but somewhat dense, material on two points which no one else focused on: (i) how developed countries have continued to engage in trade conflict and protectionism, and (ii) how there has been an ebb and flow in democratic versus authoritarian governments in some of the U.S.’s American trading partners.

14. Dollars and Sense Magazine (www.dollarsandsense.org). This magazine site provides analysis and discussion of a variety of economic and social issues, with a moderately challenging discussion of current monetary, labor and legal issues in the global economy. It focuses on the World Bank, IMF, problems with intellectual property, the ILO, the WTO, and asks the reader, “Why Should You Care?”

15. Public Broadcasting System (www.pbs.org). This is the companion site to a recent PBS special on Globalization and Human Rights. Easy to use and easy to read, this site explores the human side of globalization and allows teachers and students to access transcripts from the series’ episodes.

16. The Nautilus Institute for Security and Sustainable Development (www.nautilus.org). This site focuses on both environmental and human issues relating to the international economy, including childrens’ environmental health problems in developing countries. A little to technical for the moderate reader.

17. World Internet News Distributary Source (www.thewinds.org). This web news service carries articles about a wide variety of topics with especially good coverage of issues related to globalization.

18. Flashpoint! Electronic Magazine (www.webcom.com). This site offers a number of articles on various world topics including “Child Servitude in the Global Economy,” which describes the inhuman conditions of child workers in a carpet factory in India.

19. Human Rights for Workers (www.senser.com). A more globalization-focused site than Flashpoint!, this site addresses globalization and human rights. An article on child labor, “Meet Ali of Bangladesh - And Others Just Like Him,” could be used in a similar class discussion, or perhaps in a cooperative teaching exercise in which students could be asked to adopt and defend pro and con positions on child labor.

20. United Nations University (www.unu.edu). This site focuses on a number of U.N. activities. Material on Africa and the global economy compares current African problems with Asia’s prior experience, and suggests a number of initiatives at the local, national and international levels which may mitigate some disadvantages.


New York now has a new, comprehensive history book that chronicles the state through centuries of change. A richly illustrated volume, The Empire State begins in the early 17th century and concludes in the mid-1990s, by which time people from all over the world had made the state their home. Throughout the book, politics, economics, culture, and social history all are emphasized, as are the important contributions made by ethnic groups and women.

The Empire State is a successor to A History of New York State, for many years the standard one-volume account of the region. Readers from the Big Apple to Buffalo will find The Empire State, which provides equal coverage to “upstate” and “downstate” events and people, satisfying and informative reading. The authors, distinguished authorities on New York State, draw on current research and perspectives as they address such topics as: the Dutch colonization of the region; the English province; the Revolution; antebellum society; the abolition of
slavery and the Civil War; the New York City media; New York’s vibrant political culture; labor and leisure; women's suffrage; immigration and migration; the World Wars; economic development.
Local History: 19th Century Canals and the Growth of New York and New Jersey

This special section of Social Science Docket on Local History: 19th Century Canals and the Growth of New York and New Jersey includes excerpts from Erie Canal: New York’s Gift to the Nation: A Document-Based Teacher Resource, a joint venture of the New York State Archives and Cobblestone Publishing Company and the New York State Great Irish Famine curriculum. Jayne O’Neill (Wayne, NJ), Megan Hamm (Port Washington, NY), Dina Bruu (Greenlawn, NY), Nicholas Santora (Bronx, NY), Julie Fortier (Mastic Beach, NY) and Siobhan Miller (Herricks, NY) helped research and edit material for this section.

Human Rights issues in the 21st century will be the focus of a special section in the Summer-Fall 2002 issue. A special section on the European Holocaust including articles, documents and lesson ideas is scheduled for the Winter-Spring 2003 issue. For information about submitting articles and lesson ideas for these special sections, contact Alan Singer at CATAJS@Hofstra.edu.

The deadline for submitting articles for the Summer-Fall 2002 issue is March 1, 2002. The deadline for submitting articles for the Winter-Spring 2003 issue is October 15, 2002. We encourage early submissions.

A Tale of Two (New Jersey) Canals
by Howard Green, New Jersey Historical Commission

The stories of New Jersey’s two major canals are linked. The Morris Canal, which runs east from Phillipsburg, was begun in 1825. It reached Newark in 1832, the year after construction began on the Delaware and Raritan Canal (D&R), and was extended to Jersey City in 1836. The D&R, which runs between Trenton and New Brunswick, opened in 1834 and its feeder along the Delaware River was completed in 1838. Even though the main part of the Morris Canal was nearly finished when construction began on the D&R, it was actually a by-product of the effort to build its younger sibling.

The desire to cut a channel through the narrow waist of New Jersey is at least as old as 1676 when William Penn, who was familiar with European canals, wanted “to have a way cut cross the country to Sandy Hook.” The first serious effort came in the 1790s when the state legislature created a company to deepen and improve existing streams rather than dig a new channel. After spending all the capital it had raised, the company discovered that when the waters in the streams were high enough for the boats, the flow was too rapid for safe navigation. The legislature chartered a second company in 1804, which surveyed a route but could not sell enough stock to cover the estimated construction cost.

In 1808 Albert Gallatin, Secretary of the United States Treasury in the second Jefferson administration, issued an influential “Report on the Subject of Public Roads and Canals,” which recommended four approximately twenty-mile-long canals that would link rivers to create an inland waterway from New England to the Carolinas. One of Gallatin’s canals would join the Delaware and Raritan rivers on a course similar to that eventually developed. Gallatin’s interest suggests one of the important differences between the Morris and Delaware and Raritan canals. The D&R met a vital national economic interest; the Morris was essentially a business venture.

New Jersey canal advocates lost valuable time in the vain hope that the federal government would build a New Jersey canal. In 1816, President James Madison supported building “roads and canals, which can best be executed under national authority.” However, the next year Madison reversed himself and vetoed legislation because he doubted its constitutionality. After the Madison veto, the New Jersey legislature once again turned its attention to the canal question.

Advocates of a northern New Jersey canal were led by George P. McCulloch, president of the Morris County Agricultural Society. They thought a canal would bring the area’s agricultural products to market quickly and
cheaply and hoped that coal from the Lehigh Valley in Pennsylvania would benefit the region’s manufacturing sector, especially the iron industry which faced a depleted charcoal fuel supply.

In 1824 canal politics dominated the legislative session and tensions ran so high that supporters of both canals were reportedly carrying guns on the streets of Trenton. Interests linked to the more southerly canal defeated legislation empowering the state to build a canal along a route McCulloch surveyed in 1822. In addition, a plan to have a private company build both canals failed. Finally, a private Morris Canal and Banking Company (MCBC) was chartered, with the banking privilege added, in an effort to attract investors to the project. In return for its charter, the MCBC and its supporters endorsed a charter for the Delaware and Raritan Canal Company. Unfortunately, the D&R legislation required that Pennsylvania allow the use of Delaware River water to fill the western end of the canal. Pennsylvania refused permission and authorization for the fledgling company expired.

Construction and operation of the Morris Canal necessitated resolving major difficulties. To cross the approximately 50 miles between Phillipsburg and Newark, the canal had to climb 760 feet to its summit at Lake Hopatcong and then dropped 914 feet to Newark Bay: the second greatest rise and fall of all canals in the nation. Twenty-three locks and twenty-three inclined planes were used to transverse this elevation. Though often modified, the inclined planes were an engineering marvel, designed by civil engineering pioneer James Renwick of Columbia University. In the end, the canal cost over $3,000,000, nearly four times the original estimate. The company’s profitability was also hurt because its waterway was only four feet deep and the inclined planes could not handle boats carrying more than 25 tons.

As excavation of the Morris Canal proceeded, agitation by supporters of a mid-state canal intensified. In February, 1830, the fifth act for the incorporation of a private company was approved by the state legislature. Ominously, it was the same day the Camden and Amboy railroad was chartered. The railroad stock sold out in a day while the canal stock languished. The two companies eventually merged into a new entity known as the “Joint Companies.” In return for 1,000 shares of stock in the new company, the New Jersey gave it a fifty-year monopoly over all rail transportation between New York and Philadelphia. With this advantageous deal in place, the canal was able to raise the capital it needed.

Construction began in November 1830. When the forty-four mile long D&R opened four years later, it was one of the largest and most efficient canals in the nation. Most of its business was coal from the anthracite fields in Pennsylvania bound for New York (Eastbound traffic grew to be ten times westbound). Passenger traffic was almost nonexistent. Though early returns on investment were somewhat less than its promoters had hoped for, the D&R was a financial success.

Unfortunately, the same may not be said of the Morris Canal. The company used its banking business to engage in risky and speculative undertakings and went bankrupt in 1841. While the canal was profitable in the 1850s and 1860s, it steadily lost business to the railroads in the 1870s. By the late 1880s, it carried virtually no through traffic. The D&R also reached its peak tonnage in the 1860s, but its later decline was less steep. It was leased by the Pennsylvania Railroad in 1871 and in the late 1880s it was still carrying more than a million tons of freight annually.

The biggest story of the D&R probably was the influence it exercised in New Jersey politics. The Joint Companies controlled the state Democratic party for most of the thirty years before the Civil War, influencing the election of governors, the selection of United States senators, and the drafting of the 1844 State Constitution, which contained two clauses favorable to company interests. In exchange for this influence, the Joint Companies brought much wealth into New Jersey and enabled the state government to function without taxation.

Today the D&R is the most heavily visited park in the New Jersey state system, while the Morris Canal, which was dismantled between 1923 and 1929, has virtually disappeared.
The Towpath Canals Of New Jersey
Before There Were Trains, Planes And Automobiles
by Linda Barth

In modern New Jersey, how does your family get from place to place? Usually, you ride in a car, bus or train. Many people take airplanes if they have to travel greater distances. But it was not always so. Let us go back in time to the first half of the 19th century, before there were cars and planes. Train travel was just starting and people depended on waterways to take a trip or ship goods.

In the early 1800s, most folks in New Jersey stayed close to home. If you wanted to get to the general store or to the home of a neighbor, you hopped on your horse and galloped into town along a sometimes dusty, sometimes muddy dirt road. If people wanted to transport farm or industrial products, they could use a horse-drawn wagon. But they could not carry very much.

New Jersey also had watery highways: its rivers and streams. But rivers like the Raritan and Musconetcong were often too shallow for a heavily loaded vessel. The Delaware and the Hudson were deeper rivers. A businessman with huge loads of heavy goods to take to market could float logs, coal, iron ore or farm products down these rivers. This plan would work if the river was going in the right direction. But there was always the problem of how to get home. Tradesmen would often build a boat on the upper Delaware River, transport products down river to Philadelphia, and sell them in the city. Then they would take the boat apart, sell the lumber, save the hardware, and walk home to build a new vessel. This was certainly a difficult way to do things.

The answer to New Jersey’s transportation problems was the construction of man-made waterways called canals. In the early 1800s, they were dug by pick and shovel and the muscle power of people and animals. Canals had been used by people in China and in Europe for many years, but this idea was new in the United States.

At first, a few short canals were dug to make safe routes around rapids or waterfalls. But then the people of New York State dug a canal that was 363 miles long. The Erie Canal went across rivers, through swamps and forests, and over farm fields, from Albany on the Hudson River to Buffalo on Lake Erie. It was so successful that other states immediately decided to build their own waterways and “canal fever” spread across the Eastern United States.

Why were canals so popular? A single horse could carry a load weighing about 250 pounds. A wagon pulled by horses could carry about 2 tons or 4,000 pounds. An early train could carry about 8 tons. But a canal boat could carry loads of 70 tons (about the weight of 18 elephants).

A canal boat was often a family affair. The father was the captain. He steered the boat from the stern (rear), using a tiller. The mother came along to cook and the children helped by caring for the mules and leading them along the towpath. Canal boats did not have motors or sails. They were towed by mules who walked next to the canal on a narrow towpath. These animals were connected to the boat by a rope. A child would walk with the mules to keep them moving. This was important because the sooner you reached your destination and delivered your cargo, the sooner the family was paid. Then it was time to find a new load and head back the other way.

In New Jersey, two canals were built to carry Pennsylvania’s anthracite (hard) coal across the state to markets in New York City. The Delaware & Raritan Canal connected Bordentown, on the Delaware River, with New Brunswick, on the Raritan River. This 44-mile-long waterway was filled with water from the Delaware River. Canal boats had to climb 58 feet from Bordentown to the highest point of the canal in Trenton. To accomplish this, engineers designed locks.

A lock is like a water elevator. A stone chamber, with gates at each end, is built between sections of the canal. The boat is pulled into the lock by the mules. The lock keeper closes the gates behind the boat and water is either pumped in or removed from the chamber. This raises or lowers the boat. When the water level inside the lock is equal to the level outside of the lock, the gates are opened and the boat is pulled out.
In many places, roads crossed over the canal on bridges. When boats came along, the bridgetender had to move the bridge out of the way. This was easy on the D&R Canal because every bridge was a swing bridge. It could be pushed sideways to move it out of the way of the approaching boat.

In the Highlands region of New Jersey, the Morris Canal began in Phillipsburg, on the Delaware River, and continued across the northern part of the state, through Hackettstown, Dover, Boonton, and Newark, to Jersey City, just across the Hudson River from New York City. Lake Hopatcong, the Pompton River and many smaller lakes and streams supplied the water that filled this 102-mile-long canal.

The Morris Canal is called the mountain-climbing canal because the boats had to be lifted up 760 feet from the Delaware River to Lake Hopatcong, near the summit. Then they had to be lowered another 914 feet to the Hudson River. No other canal at that time had to overcome this much change in elevation. Using only locks to do this would have taken too much time, so the engineers decided to use an ancient tool, the inclined plane. The canal boat floated into a cradle car, which was attached to a thick wire-rope cable. Gears and pulleys in a powerhouse pulled the cradle car, the boat and its heavy cargo up the plane on rails. At the top of the plane, the cradle went over the crest and glided back into the water of the next section. The boat floated off of the cradle, the towline was reattached, and mules pulled the boat on to the next lock or inclined plane.

The Morris Canal used 23 inclined planes in addition to 23 lift locks to move canal boats across the state. Remains of the inclined planes can still be seen at several places. In the Village of Waterloo, in Stanhope, you can walk up the plane and see the “sleeper” stones. The rails were attached to timbers which were attached to these stones with spikes. The remains of inclined planes can also be seen at Phillipsburg, Port Colden, Washington, Port Morris, Ledgewood, and Montville.

As time went on, trains took over more of the shipping of bulk products. They ran around the clock, while the canals were forced to close at night. Trains also ran all year. The canals did not operate during the winter when water froze. In 1924, the Morris Canal was finally closed. The water was drained, the powerhouses and planes were taken apart, and the locks were abandoned. For years, most of the canal lay unused and unprotected. Trees and other vegetation grew in the abandoned canal. Often, water or sewer lines were buried in the canal bed. In Newark, the subway was built in the route of the Morris Canal.

As time went on, people realized that parts of the canal could be saved for recreation and as a reminder of transportation history. Ledgewood, Boonton, Wharton and Clifton, preserved their sections in town parks. In Warren and Morris counties, trails were created on the old towpath. People can now walk up the inclined planes or examine the old locks. Interpretive signs explain how these structures operated.

When the D&R Canal was closed in 1933, the canal became a reservoir for the people of Central New Jersey. The State of New Jersey sells this water to businesses and residents for their use. During the mid-1900s, the D&R Canal was also used informally for recreation. In 1974, the State Legislature created the Delaware & Raritan Canal State Park. Today, you can use the park to canoe, walk, jog, bicycle, cross-country ski, or picnic.

Questions
1. How did the construction of man-made waterways solve New Jersey’s transportation problems?
2. Why were canals so popular?
3. Why were New Jersey’s canals “family affairs”??
4. How did canal builders solve the problems of raising and lowering boats and roads that crossed the canals?
5. Why was the Morris Canal called the “mountain-climbing canal”?
6. What happened to New Jersey’s canals?

Activities
1. Write a report about the people who built and worked on New Jersey’s canals.
2. Make a photo essay of the Delaware and Hudson Canal.

The Canal Society provides speakers for school who present illustrated lectures on Morris Canal and the Delaware and Raritan Canal. They will bring artifacts as well as slides of historic and modern views of New Jersey’s two towpath canals. Contact:
Linda Barth, Canal Society of New Jersey, P.O. Box 737, Morristown, N.J. 07963-0737 (908-722-9556), bobandlindabarth@att.net.
For a guided class trips to the D&R Canal State Park, contact:
Vicki Chirco, Historic Preservation Specialist, vchirco@dandrcanal.com or Stephanie Fox, Park Naturalist, sfox@dandrcanal.com.

Morris Canal Fact Sheet
Length of main canal: 102.15 miles     Original Costs: $2,104,413     Elevation changes: 1,674 feet
Number of inclined planes: 23     Number of locks: 23 lift locks and 11 guard locks
Original Canal dimensions: Surface, 32 feet wide; bottom, 20 feet wide; depth, 4 feet
Enlarged Canal dimensions: Surface, 40 feet wide; bottom, 25 feet wide; depth, 5 feet
Original Lock dimensions: 9 feet wide x 75 long feet in the chamber
1840-41 Lock dimensions: at least 11 feet wide x 95 feet long in the chamber
1860 Lock dimensions: at least 100 feet long in the chamber
Initial Boat Capacity: 10 tons of cargo     Final Boat Capacity: 70 tons of cargo
Longest level section: 17 miles, Bloomfield to Lincoln Park:
Time for a one-way trip: 5 days     Power source: 2 mules

Morris Canal History
1822 Legislative act to investigate the feasibility of the canal
1824 Morris Canal & Banking Company chartered
1825 Construction starts near the present town of Ledgewood
1831 First trip from Newark to Phillipsburg
1836 Jersey City extension completed
1841/1845 Canal enlargements
1847-1860 Inclined planes rebuilt; Turbines installed
1871 Canal leased by the Lehigh Valley Railroad for 99 years
1922 State of New Jersey takes over the canal
1924 Canal drained

Morris Canal in Waterloo Village.

Towns Along the Morris Canal (West to East)
Port Delaware (Phillipsburg), Port Warren, Stewartsville, New Village, Broadway, Port Washington, Port Colden, Port Murray, Rockport, Hackettstown, Waterloo, Stanhope, Port Morris, Landing, Shippenport, Drakesville (Ledgewood), Port Oram (Wharton), Dover, Rockaway, Denville, Boonton, Montville, Beavertown (Lincoln Park), Mountain View, Little Falls, Paterson, Clifton, Bloomfield, Belleville, Newark and Jersey City.

Former New York State Governor DeWitt Clinton discusses the Morris Canal

In 1827, DeWitt Clinton sent a communiqué to C.D. Holden, the President of the Morris Canal Company. The source of letter is Memoir of DeWitt Clinton available at www.history.rochester.edu/canal/beb.

Feasibility: “It is ascertained [known] that the summit level is 890 feet above the eastern termination [end] of this canal, and 840 above the western, making an aggregate [total] scent and descent to be overcome of 1730 feet . . . The great number of locks that would be requisite for this purpose . . . render [make] it necessary that some substitute should be adopted, and inclined planes have been proposed. . . . The only doubt that can possibly be raised in reference to the completion of this canal, is as to the feasibility of this project.”

Benefits: “The most productive sources of revenue will be furnished by this conveyance [method of transportation] … coal, iron, lime, copper, zinc, mangnese, copperas,plumbago, turpentine, marble, lumber, manures of various kinds, the products of agriculture, and the fabrics of manufactures.”
Profits: “I should regret it exceedingly if this important work should be lost to the public, for the want of three or four hundred thousand dollars. It is manifestly the interest of the stockholders to complete it, and the co-operators may confidently calculate upon certain and ample [large] returns for their advances.”
Delaware & Raritan Canal Fact Sheet
Length of main canal: 44 miles, Bordentown to New Brunswick
Number of locks: 14
Canal dimensions: 75 feet wide x 8 feet deep (after 1851)
Lock dimensions: 24 feet wide x 220 long (after 1853)
Length of feeder canal: 22 miles, Raven Rock to Trenton
Dimensions of feeder canal: 60 feet wide x 6 feet deep
Highest point at Trenton: 57 feet above sea level

Delaware & Raritan Canal History
1830 Charter granted for the Delaware & Raritan Canal Company
1834 Canal opened for through traffic
1847 Connection established to Pennsylvania’s Delaware Division Canal
1850 Construction began on Belvidere & Delaware Railroad along the feeder towpath
1851 Canal depth dredged to 8 feet
1853 Locks on main canal lengthened to 220 feet and banks lined with stone
1866 Peak year for freight – 2,857,233 tons, 83% of which was coal
1868 Installation of steam powered winches and steam activated valves
1934 State of New Jersey takes over the canal
1944 Construction began to convert canal to a water supply system
1973 Canal entered on the National Register of Historic Places
1974 Delaware & Raritan Canal State Park created

Towns Along the Delaware & Raritan Canal (West to East)

Irish Immigrants Build the Canals
Many of the immigrants arriving in the United States at the time of “canal fever” were from Ireland. Irish workers were instrumental in the construction of both the Morris and Delaware & Raritan Canals. Paid low wages, forced to work long hours and susceptible to diseases spread through crowded living conditions, many Irish did not survive the canal building “experience.”

Paddy on the Canal
When I came to this wonderful empire, it filled me with great surprise.
Oh to see such a great undertaking, on the light never opened me eyes.
Or to see a full thousand gray fellows at work among mountains so tall
And a diggin’ through valleys so level, through the rocks to cut the canal.

So it’s fare thee well father and mother, and likewise to old Ireland, too.
And it’s fare you well sister and brother, so kindly I’ll bid you adieu.

I learned to be very handy, and to use both a shovel and spads.
Sure, I learned the whole art of canalin’, and I think it an excellent trade.
For I learned to be ery handy, although I was not very tall.
I could handle a sprig of Shalalee with the best man upon the canal.

Questions
1. What is the speaker singing about in the song “Paddy on the Canal”?
2. What is meant by “sprig of Shalalee”?

**Erie Canal: New York’s Gift to the Nation**

A Document-Based Teacher Resource

Edited by F. Daniel Larkin, Julie C. Daniels, and Jean West


New York State Archives Partnership Trust, Albany, New York

Review by Ellen Durrigan Santora

Not long after I started teaching seventh grade social studies, my unit on “Roads and Canals to the West” was transformed when I discovered Folkways Records’ *Grand Canal Ballads: History of the Erie Canal* (FTS 32318). As students listened and read the words of these songs, they developed a sense of historical empathy for those who worked and traveled on the canal. They sensed, for example, the sting of subordination felt by Irish immigrant boys who became the subjects of cat-calls. And they got the flavor of travel on the Erie by accompanying the recorded version of “Low Bridge, Everybody Down.” As the years passed, I added more primary sources to this unit. We viewed “Wedding of the Waters,” a famous mural showing Governor DeWitt Clinton pouring water from Lake Erie into New York Harbor.

In the 1970s, it was not easy to develop a unit grounded in primary documents. One needed to visit university and local libraries and search through anthologies of source documents, artbooks, and audio recordings. Today, that process is much easier. More and more, teachers are able to engage students in historically meaningful dialogue and debate about the interpretation of primary sources, and students are able to interact with texts in ways that bring personal experience to bear on historical evidence.

In the last ten years, New York’s Archives Partnership Trust and other groups interested in disseminating the fruits of historic preservation have been increasing accessibility of archived records and historical documents. *The Erie Canal, New York’s Gift to the Nation* is one of these initiatives. Its essays, narratives, art prints, manifests, broadsides, and other source documents tell a story of progress for a young nation. From the more than five million canal documents housed in the New York State Archives and other sites, editors F. Daniel Larkin, Julie C. Daniels, and Jean West have selected 97 to function as the threads in a tapestry of human/environment interaction -- one that portrays a sense of commercial progress and national unity. The Preface notes that “New York’s decision to build the Erie Canal, the greatest public works project of its day, resulted in a gift to the entire nation. It spurred the phenomenal growth and development of the young country and transformed New York into the Empire State.”

During the 19th century, the Erie Canal blazed a path for rapid economic growth of communities and institutions. The collection of documents in *Erie Canal, New York’s Gift to a Nation* is a valuable resource for understanding that growth and change. Maps, correspondence, and petitions document the impact politicians, legislators, and voters had on the canal as well as the impact the canal had on property owners and communities. Drawings, charts, letters and construction company records inform us about the technical aspects of building the canal. Financial records detail the administration of the canal system. And diaries and an oral history provide personal glimpses of canal travel. One of the very real assets of this collection is that it stimulates the need for students and teachers to look beyond its documents to complicate and complete the story of the Erie Canal and the way it interacted with the lives of people and institutions in New York State and the entire Great Lakes Region. Since much of the population of New York State and New Jersey lives within a short
distance of one or more of the area’s canals, using Erie Canal documents can become an important vehicle for strengthening students’ capacity to think historically and, at the same time, temper their personal connections to 19th century American history.

As a teacher resource, *The Erie Canal*, is divided into three sections: “Essays and Documents” “Activities and Worksheet,” and “Document-Based Questions, Scaffolding Questions, and Rubrics.” The first section includes ten chapters loosely organized according to five of the thematic strands recommended in the National Council for the Social Studies’ *Expectations for Excellence*. The first two chapters describe the location and place, or natural environment, where the canal was constructed. Chapter 3 offers pictures and letters through which students might explore the contexts of power, authority and governance as they relate to the canal.

Chapters 4 through 6 and 8 through 9 focus on the construction of the canal and its effects on the production and distribution of goods and the growth and development of Upstate New York. And, most interesting of all, Chapter 7 looks at the reciprocal ways in which the canal shaped and was shaped by the lives of individuals, groups and institutions. The collection is heavily weighted with documents related to a growing entrepreneurial class and market economy and the lead editor’s specialization in the history of engineering and canal construction.

Each chapter includes a very brief description of individual documents and one or more related essays, written by historians, professors, and museum personnel. These generally provide background information for groups of documents. Although they are listed as student materials and provide good background information for teachers, the essays tend to be written well above the reading levels of most middle school students. Noted exceptions include essays by Carol Sherriff, Gretchen Sullivan Sorin, and Laurence Hauptman; each of these authors provides a rich context for interpreting an individual document related to the social history of the canal. Transcriptions of 12 of the 97 documents including letters, a journal entry, petitions and a broadside appear in the final section of the guide. Where handwritten documents are not transcribed, however, the lack of resolution in their reproduction may handicap readers. A digitized version of all documents either on a website or in a future edition might help overcome obstacles associated with reproduction quality.

The second major section includes 37 activities and a combination of tailored and generic document analysis worksheets. These lesson plans are generally adaptable for elementary, middle, and high school social studies and language arts classes, and some are suitable for business, science, and mathematics classes. Each plan includes content objectives, discipline links, a list of needed resources and other materials, and a brief description of procedures. The lessons generally can be taught in one or two class periods. A few written for the secondary level provide opportunities for students to engage in dialogue and debate about important and controversial issues. Teachers can best use these plans as suggestions or jumping-off points for the creation of more complex lessons uniquely tailored to the ways in which their students build historical understandings.

The third section includes three document-based questions (DBQs) that draw upon resources and essays included in the guide. The first calls upon secondary students to use a set of seven documents to write a persuasive essay showing how the Erie Canal affected society. The second and third DBQs provide scaffolding questions for interpreting each document. Middle school students are asked to write about the history and evolution of technology, and elementary students are to use their documents to reflect on the lives of children living and working on the Erie Canal.

*The Erie Canal, New York’s Gift to the Nation* is a worthy resource for social studies teachers in their effort to enhance students’ historical understanding and ability to write from a historical as well as a personal and cultural perspective. Teachers will want to use its resources to provide learning opportunities in which students work collaboratively to construct historical perspectives, develop a sense of historical empathy, reflect on significant historical themes, evaluate the historical record, and engage in dialogue and debate about critical historical issues.

However, in spite of its usefulness, this is not a stand-alone text. Teachers will need to provide additional contextual and chronological content as well as the perspectives of other individuals and multiple groups to build coherent lessons that address student interests and concept-related constructivist outcomes. I would have liked additional documents describing the back-breaking efforts and colorful lives of those who worked on the canal. Newspaper accounts, court records, and family stories can add a more human,
working class and global texture to documents that have a largely nationalistic and middle-class flavor.

To order *The Erie Canal, New York’s Gift to the Nation* contact: Cobblestone Publishing Co.

**Elementary/Middle Level Activities: Traditional Erie Canal Songs**

**Fifteen Miles On The Erie Canal**

I’ve got a mule and her name is Sal. Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal.  
She’s a good old worker, she’s a good old pal. Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal.  
We’ve hauled some barges in our day, filled with coal, lumber and hay.  
We go every inch of the way from Albany to Buffalo.  
Low bridge! Everybody down! Low bridge for we’re coming to a town.  
You’ll always know your neighbor. You’ll always know your pal,  
If you ever navigated on the Erie Canal.

You bet your life I’ll never part with Sal. Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal.  
She knows every inch of this old canal. Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal.  
Get up old mule, here comes a lock. We’ll make Rome about six o’clock.  
One more trip and then back we’ll go. Right back home to Buffalo.  
Low bridge! Everybody down! Low bridge for we’re coming to a town.  
You’ll always know your neighbor. You’ll always know your pal,  
If you ever navigated on the Erie Canal.

Oh where would I be if I lost my pal? Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal.  
I’d like to see another mule as good as my Sal. Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal.  
A friend of mine once made her sore. Now he’s got a broken jaw.  
‘Cause she let fly with her iron toe, and kicked him back to Buffalo.  
Low bridge! Everybody down! Low bridge for we’re coming to a town.  
You’ll always know your neighbor. You’ll always know your pal,  
If you ever navigated on the Erie Canal.

I don’t have to call when I want my Sal. Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal.  
She drops from her stall like a good old Gal. Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal.  
I eat my meals with Sal each day. I eat beans and she eats hay.  
She ain’t so slow if you want to know. She put the “Buff” in Buffalo.  
Low bridge! Everybody down! Low bridge. I’ve got the finest mule in town.  
Eats a bale of hay for dinner and on top of that my Sal,  
Tries to drink up all the water in the Erie Canal.

**Questions and Activities:**

1. What products are being transported on the canal?
2. Why is Sal so important to success on the Erie Canal?
3. In your opinion, why is the phrase “Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal” repeated throughout the song?
4. Draw a map showing the Erie Canal route and locate major. Compare your map with a map of the New
York State Thruway system. Do you notice any similarities? How do you explain them?
5. Using images from the song, create a three dimensional display of life on the Erie Canal.
Oh, That Low Bridge

Word Bank: Towpath - path along canals used by animals towing boats. Canaler - someone living and working on the Erie Canal. Poop - a deck at the rear of a boat. Glanders - a disease of horses, mules and other animals.

It’s many miles to Buffalo, balky mule he travels slow,
There’s gravel on the towpath, there’s hornets in the sand,
Oh pity poor canalers that’s far away from land.
And look out that low bridge!
    Chorus: Captain Cook and all the group hold up your heads way down
          The fastest boat in all the fleet, two sisters come to town.

There’s many locks to shut you in, Oh, that low bridge
Every worm must learn to swim, Oh, that low bridge
We’re loaded down with barley and timber from the west,
Now every poor canaler, now do your level best
And look out that low bridge!
    Chorus: Captain Cook and all the group hold up your heads way down
          The fastest boat in all the fleet, two sisters come to town.

We’re froze up in the winter, Oh, that low bridge
Summer, how that sun does shine, Rain or stormy weather
The captain’s on the poop, All huddle up together like chickens in a coop.
Now look out that low bridge!
    Chorus: Captain Cook and all the group hold up your heads way down
          The fastest boat in all the fleet, two sisters come to town.

There’s groceries in that cabin there, Oh, that low bridge
Never leaks, she’s full of tar, Oh, that low bridge
There’s freckles on the children, There’s glanders on the mule
Mosquitoes by the millions that keep that golden rule.
Now look out that low bridge!
    Chorus: Captain Cook and all the group hold up your heads way down
          The fastest boat in all the fleet, two sisters come to town.

Questions and Activities:
1. Why does the song keep warning about “that low bridge”?
2. Make a list of the problems described in this song that are faced by someone working on the Erie Canal.
3. Imagine you were an immigrant to the United States living and working on the Erie Canal. Write a letter to a friend at home describing your life and work?
4. Using images from the song, create a three dimensional display of life on the Erie Canal.
De Witt Clinton and the Erie Canal
by F. Daniel Larkin, from Erie Canal: New York’s Gift to the Nation: A Document-Based Teacher Resource

It is difficult to name the originator of the idea of a canal between the Hudson River and Lake Erie. The list of early canal advocates includes George Washington, Elkanah Watson, Philip Schuyler, George Clinton, Jesse Hawley, Thomas Eddy, Joshua Forman, Stephen Van Rensselaer, De Witt Clinton, and Gouverneur Morris. Some historians feel that Morris deserves the honor, since he apparently advanced the prospect of a canal as early as 1777. In any case, many individuals thought it a good idea. Of these, De Witt Clinton alone is preeminently linked with the Erie Canal.

During his long and distinguished career, Clinton served the people of his state in a variety of offices, including U.S. senator, mayor of New York City, and governor. But it is his driving presence on the Canal Commission that so strongly associates his name with successful completion of the Erie.

In 1808, two Federalist members of the New York Assembly, Joshua Forman of Syracuse and Benjamin Wright of Rome, introduced a resolution to survey a canal route between the Hudson River and Lake Erie. The legislature named James Geddes, an engineer, to conduct a survey, and he reported favorably on the possibility of a canal. Two years later, the legislature, influenced by Clinton, a Democratic-Republican, authorized a second route survey, to be overseen by a seven-member commission. In addition to Clinton, members included Morris, Van Resselaer, Eddy, Simeon De Witt, William North, and Peter B. Porter. The following year, Robert R. Livingston and Robert Fulton, builders of the first successful steamboat, joined the commission.

In 1811, Geddes and Wright made additional surveys. Although interest in a canal was increasing, the onset of the War of 1812 interrupted the activity. During the war, problems in moving military supplies from New York City to Lake Ontario and Lake Erie further emphasized the need for improved transportation.

In April 1816, more than a year after the war ended, the state legislature passed an act naming a board of five commissioners and authorizing them to build a canal between the Hudson River and Lake Erie. It also authorized a second canal, connecting the Hudson and Lake Champlain. The following April, the legislature approved construction of the two canals and named Wright chief engineer of the Erie. Geddes was appointed chief engineer for the Champlain Canal.

In 1817, Daniel D. Tompkins was elected vice president of the United States and resigned as governor of New York. Clinton was then elected to serve in his place. As governor, Clinton continued his crusade to complete the Erie Canal. By the time he left office at the end of 1822, construction of the canal was moving ahead steadily. Clinton’s reappointment to the Canal Commission following his two terms as governor ensured that the canal’s chief supporter would continue his close association with the project. Re-elected governor in 1824, Clinton was accorded the place of honor at the grand opening of the Erie Canal.

In October 1825, Clinton was aboard the Seneca Chief as it entered the Erie Canal at Buffalo, leading a flotilla in celebration of the canal’s completion. Ninety minutes later, the citizens of New York City learned of the event from a relay of cannon fire along the banks of the canal.

As the boats proceeded eastward along the canal, speeches were delivered at towns and cities along the way. In Albany, at tables set up on a long bridge across the canal basin, 600 dinners toasted the accomplishment. On November 4, the fleet of canal boats, towed down the Hudson by steamboats, reached New York City. The boats assembled off Sandy Hook, where Clinton poured a keg of Lake Erie water into the Atlantic Ocean to symbolize the “wedding of the waters.” De Witt Clinton was elected to his fourth term as governor in 1826. Less than two years later, in February 1828, he died in office.
July 28th. We departed from here at seven o’clock, after breakfast, and after a ride of eight and a half miles arrived at a ford of the Genesee river, about twelve miles from the Great Falls, and seven and a half miles from Lake Ontario. This ford is one rock of limestone. Just below it there is a fall of fourteen feet. An excellent bridge of uncommon strength is now erecting at this place. We took a view of the upper and lower falls. The first is ninety-seven and the other seventy-five feet. The banks on each side are higher than the falls, and appear to be composed of slate, cut principally of red freestone. The descent of the water is perpendicular. The view is grand, considering the elevation of the bank and the smallness of the cataract or sheet of water.

These falls, as also those of Niagara, and perhaps of Oswego, are made by the same ridge or slope of land. The Genesee river, in former times, may have been dammed up at these falls, and have formed a vast lake, covering all the Genesee Flats, forty miles up. The navigation above the ford is good for small boats to the Canaseraga Creek, and ten miles above it, making altogether fifty miles.

Notwithstanding the rain, we visited in the afternoon the mouth of the river. On the left bank a village has been laid out by Colonel Troup, the agent of the Pulteney estate, and called Charlottesburgh, in compliment to his daughter. He has divided the land into one acre lots. Each lot is sold at ten dollars an acre, on condition that the purchaser erects a house in a year. This place is in the town of Genesee. The harbour here is good. The bar at the mouth varies from eight to eight and a-half feet, and the channel is generally eleven feet. There were four lake vessels in it. We had an opportunity of seeing the lake in a storm, and it perfectly resembled its parent, the ocean, in the agitation, the roaring, and the violence of its waves.

July 29th, Sunday. We set off at six o’clock, and breakfasted at Davis’s tavern, in Parma, nine miles from the place of our departure. Our baggage wagon contained our provisions, on which we generally fared. Davis lives on the Pulteney lands, in a two-story log house. He has been here four years, and gave three dollars an acre on a credit of five years. Shortly after leaving the Genesee river, we entered a remarkable road called the Ridge Road, extending from that river to Lewiston, seventy-eight miles. The general elevation of the ridge is from ten to thirty feet, and it width varies. Sometimes it is not more than fifteen or twenty yards, and its general distance from Lake Ontario is ten miles; at Davis’s it is nine miles. This ridge runs from east to west. About from three to half-a-mile south, and parallel with this ridge, there is a slope or terrace, elevated 200 feet more than the ridge, with a limestone top, and the base freestone. The indications on the ridge show that it was originally the bank of the lake. The rotundity of the stones, the gravel, &c., all demonstrate the agitation of the waters. When the country between it and the lake is cleared, it will furnish a charming view of that great body of water.

Land on this road is excellent, and is clothed with valuable and heavy timber. It produces in wheat, twenty-five bushels an acre, and corn in the same ratio. It sells on the road for five dollars an acre, and is but thinly settled. We rode seven miles to dinner, and dined on cold ham. The house was kept by R. Abby, justice, tavern-keeper, and proprietor of a saw-mill; and a crowd of drunken people were collected about the house. In excuse for the justice, it might be remarked, that he was not at home. About three miles west of Abbé’s, there is a fine nursery of young apple-trees and a good orchard. The land in this town sells for five dollars an acre, on the road; back of the road it is sold for four.

Six miles from Abbé’s we put up for the night at Matteson’s tavern, an open log house, in the town of Murray, where we suffered the want of sleep, and encountered every other privation. Two slept in the garret, three on the floor on mattrasses, and I thought myself happy in putting mine on a wooden chest, where I avoided the attacks of kittens. The night was very damp and rainy – the musquitoes abundant; and were serenaded by the jingling of cow-bells, and the screaming of drunken clowns.

Questions and Activities
1. Locate the sites mentioned in the journal excerpt on a map of New York State.
2. What is Clinton’s general view of the area he is describing?
3. In your opinion, why does Clinton go into such detail in his descriptions?
4. Based on these excerpts, write a letter to the New York State Commission exploring the feasibility of building a canal in this region. In your letter discuss positive and negative experiences on the trip.
On the morning of July 4, 1817, a group of dignitaries gathered on a plot of marshy ground south of the village of Rome, New York. There, they dug the symbolic first shovelful of earth that began construction of the Erie Canal.

The New York State Canal Commission, which oversaw the construction of the Erie Canal, drew up the first building contract a few days later. As usual, the work went to the lowest bidder. Contractor John Richardson and canal commissioners Myron Holley and Samuel Young signed the document on July 12, 1817. It stipulated that Richardson would “grub, clear, excavate, embank, and construct in a good substantial and workmanlike manner a part of the first section of the canal.” In keeping with the democratic reforms sweeping the country, the state government offered contracts for lengths of as little as one-quarter mile of ditch to allow as many people as possible to benefit from the project. Richardson contracted to build 61 chains and 50 links of canal, amounting to slightly more than three-quarters of a mile.

Building New York’s “Grand Canal,” as the Erie Canal often was called, involved excavating a ditch between the Hudson River at Albany and Lake Erie at Buffalo. The canal ditch was 363 miles long, 40 feet wide at the surface, 26 feet wide at the bottom, and 4 feet deep.

Before the contractors could begin excavation, engineering parties had to stake out the line. A party consisted of a principal engineer, one or more assistant engineers, targetmen, and axmen. Axmen were the lowest-ranking members of the party. Their job was to cut the stakes used in marking the canal line and to remove brush, small trees, and other similar obstructions. Targetmen occupied the next level in survey parties. They held targets, which were rodlike instruments 10 feet long, used to help surveyors measure changes in elevation in order to maintain the necessary level. In 1817, targetmen were paid three dollars a week. Engineers occupied the highest rank. They were responsible for making the three-dimensional measurements needed to construct the canal ditch. Engineers received at least a dollar a day plus expenses.

Nearly all the excavation was done by men using picks and shovels and by draft animals (animals that pull heavy loads). Workers used black gunpowder to blast through rock, with the powder holes drilled by hand. Very few machines were available to supplement physical labor, but there was one machine to bring down trees and another to pull stumps. The first machine worked by attaching a line near the top of a tree, then winding the line on an endless crew turned by a wheel, pulling the tree down. The stump removal device had a huge axle - 30 feet long and 20 inches in diameter - supported by two wheels, both 16 feet in diameter. In the middle of the axle was mounted a third wheel, 14 feet in diameter. Workers place the machine over the stump and then attached the stump to chains wound around the axle. Draft animals pulled a rope wound around the center wheel and thus ripped the stump from the ground.

The Erie Canal contained locks, aqueducts, and waste-weirs (structures designed to eliminate excess water), as well as side walls in some places. Builders used cut stone to make almost all of these structures, parts of which were always submerged in water. To build these structures, engineers needed hydraulic cement, which would harden under water, to hold the stone in place. This posed a serious problem: There seemed to be no source of cement in the United States; apparently, it would have to be imported from Europe at considerable cost. Then limestone was discovered near Chittenango, New York. When burned, crushed, and mixed with sand, the limestone produced cement that hardened under water.

By the end of the 19th century, the application of steam power to machinery altered canal construction methods. Steam shovels largely replaced pick-and-shovel excavation. Railroad locomotives and dump cars took over from teams and wagons, and steam drills bored holes for the placement of dynamite, the new high explosive. Poured concrete reinforced with steel rods replaced stone in canal structures. When New York built the Barge Canal system in the early 20th century, all these machines and techniques were used, reducing the need for manual labor.
The Erie Canal, built between 1817 and 1825, was constructed by people who initially had little idea of how to build a canal. However, when it was completed, it was considered an engineering marvel. Problems with constructing the canal emerged early in the project. When the canal company advertised for engineers to design and supervise the work, no one answered the ads. There was not one experienced canal building engineer in the United States at the time. Planning went ahead in spite of this, using land surveyors to lay out the route. One of the surveyors, Canvass White, was sent England to study how canals were constructed. White walked two thousand miles along British canals, sketching locks, aqueducts, and towpaths. His drawings became the instruction manual for the Erie Canal builders. Construction crews also relied on what has came to know as "Yankee ingenuity" -- the ability to examine a problem and figure out a solution. Essentially, canal engineers and construction crews invented ways to build a canal as they worked.

Activities and Questions
1. Students should discuss some why people thought a canal from Albany to Buffalo would be too hard to build. Students should look at a physical map of New York State to see what construction problems would have to be addressed.
2. Since there were no experts in the United States who knew how to build a canal, Canvass White was sent to England to look at their canals. If Canvass White lived today, he might still visit England and walk along their canals. What other ways could he get information on canal building? Would examining canals still be important to do?
3. Trace the route of the original Erie Canal on a map: Albany, Rexford Flats, Fonda, Canajoharie, Little Falls, Herkimer, Utica, Oriskany, Rome, Oneida, Syracuse, Weedsport, Lyons, Palmyra, Wayneport, Fairport, Rochester, Brockport, Albion, Medina, Gasport, Lockport, Pendleton, Tonawanda and to the Niagara River and Lake Erie. Students will notice that modern maps of New York State show the route of the later Barge Canal. What difference do students notice in the routes? Using different colored high lighters, students can trace the old Erie Canal route and the later Barge Canal route on a modern map of New York State. When canal travelers or goods arrived in Lake Erie what Western states could they reach using the Great Lakes?
4. The Erie Canal had to cross eighteen New York State rivers. How many of the rivers can students find on the New York map? How could a canal cross a river?
5. Digging a canal through the center of New York State meant cutting a path through the frontier. How did the canal diggers clear the forests? What inventions helped them?
6. Elevation is greater at Lake Erie than it is at Albany. How were boats raised and lowered along the canal?
7. Most of the canal diggers were Irish immigrants. One reason that Canvass White recruited the Irish to work on the canal because he was impressed with Irish canal maintenance engineer named J.J. McShane. Many Irish immigrants who were living in cities in New York State found it difficult to get work because they were looked down upon by native-born Americans. What other reasons might Canvass White been glad to hire the Irish to build the canal?
8. What evidence is there that the Erie Canal was a good idea?
9. How are New York State's canals used today?
10. Use the Internet and other resources to locate important canals that are still operating today.

Follow-up Activities:
Plan a one-week trip along part of the Erie Canal. It can be a hiking trip, a car trip. Students can map their trips, decide what they want to see and where they want to stay. They are responsible for preparing a budget and a daily itinerary. A place to start their planning is the New York State Canal Systems: 1-800-4canal4, or their website: www.canals.state.ny.us. The Greater Rochester Visitors Association (126 Andrews Street, Rochester NY 14604) offers a brochure called The Best 100 Miles of the Erie Canal. It is available by writing the Visitors Association or calling 1-800-677-7282.

Supplemental reading:
Activity Sheet: Building the Erie Canal
Adapted from Len Hilts, "The Erie Canal - Then and Now," in Timmy O'Dowl and the Big Ditch.

1. The Erie Canal has been called the first great American school of engineering, because the builders taught themselves as they worked and invented new tools and construction techniques. At first, the canal diggers had only picks, shovels, and muscle to move an enormous amount of dirt from the ditch, and to build earthen walls on each side of it. To make the task more difficult, the canal cut through heavy forests. Trees and underbrush had to be cleared before a shovel full of dirt could be turned.

   Using traditional methods, axmen could clear only three or four trees a day because it took so long to remove the big stumps. Canal diggers had to wait for tree crews to get the stumps out before getting on with their work. Newspapers poked fun at the project, saying that the canal might be finished in forty years - if it didn't rain too much.

   Finally, someone devised a huge stump puller using eighteen-foot wheels that supported a strong winch. As soon as a tree was cut down, the stump puller was moved in. Chains were tied around the stump and the winch turned. In a few minutes, even the toughest old stump popped out of the ground. Now crews could clear forty or more trees a day.

   In many places, a network of tree and bush roots crisscrossed under the soil. Most canal men had been farmers and they understood plowing. One invented a new plow with an extra set of very sharp blades. The plowing blades chopped the roots to bits. This left only loose dirt for the diggers to load. Wheelbarrows were also a canal invention. At first, dirt was carried away in small carts. When someone realized that dumping dirt would be faster than shoveling out of a cart, the one-wheel wheelbarrow was invented.

2. Many politicians argued against the construction of the Erie Canal. They said it was impractical and would be too expensive to build. However, Governor DeWitt Clinton saw the great value of a route that would connect the cities of the east to the wilderness of the western United States. Clinton's judgment was proved to be correct. In its first year, 13,000 boast and 40,000 westbound settlers used the new canal. Travel from Albany to Buffalo was shortened from six weeks to as little as six days.

   The Erie Canal cost about $7 million to build - an enormous amount of money in those days. Yet it not only paid for itself in less than seven years, but also made money for the state of New York for many years. Cargo vessels paid a toll according to the weight they carried. Passenger boats paid six cents a mile. Canal traffic produced revenues so great that the New York legislature even considered canceling all real estate taxes and using the canal’s income to pay the state’s bills.

3. The Erie Canal was more than just a long ditch or a man-made river. Lake Erie is 571 feet higher than the Hudson River. In addition, the land from Buffalo at Lake Erie to Albany on the Hudson River is not level. Canal builders used eighty-three “locks” to lift and lower boats. A lock is like a big box that opens at both ends. When a boat enters a lock and needs to be lifted, the ends are closed and water is pumped into the box. Once the boat floats to the new higher level, the box is opened and the boat continues on its journey. When a boat is being lower, water flows out of the box until the boat is at the lower level.

4. Today more than 140 years later, the Erie Canal still operates. It is now known as the New York Barge Canal and is very different from the original. It was widened and deepened to accommodate larger barges. It was rerouted. New sections shortened it by fifty miles. The original eighty-three locks were replaced by fifty-seven larger, more efficient units.

   The use of the Erie Canal has changed, too. Railroads and airplanes took passenger traffic away from the canal. Freight is now moved by rail and truck. Today, the canal is used chiefly by leisure boats. More than 110,000 recreational boaters enjoy the scenic vistas along the canal routes each year. In addition, eighteen hydroelectric plants along the canal provide electricity for surrounding communities and the canal system supplies fresh water to farmers for irrigation.
Activity Sheet- Irish Immigrants Work on the Erie Canal

Many of the laborers who dug the Erie Canal were Irish immigrants. They were eager to make the 37 to 50 cents a day that diggers were paid. Read the description of the Irish canal workers from Stars in the Water by George Condon (page 67).

**Work bank:** sluice gate - water gate or floodgate; Clinton’s ditch - a nickname for the Erie Canal.

Stars in the Water

Once the sluice gates were lifted and the green tide began to rush into Clinton's Ditch, there was no stopping the surge of Irish workers. Before the construction season of 1818 ended, some 3,000 sons of Erin were at work on the canal, and their work was producing gratifying results. Simply having permanent work crews, experienced and knowledgeable would have accounted for much of the headway and the stepped-up pace of construction that was apparent. But there was also a spirit to these workmen that couldn't be overlooked as a morale-lifting factor. Whether it was simply in their burning desire to make good and climb a rung or two in the social ladder of the New World, or just a basic craving for the kind of substance that the canal job could give them, or a conscientious determination to return honest work for honest pay, there is no telling. No doubt many motives were intermingled, but it is a fact that once the Irish work crews took over, the canal began to take form at an accelerated pace.

1. What happened when the sluice gates opened?
2. Why were the Irish called the “green tide”?
3. Why do you think the Erie Canal was known as Clinton’s ditch?
4. Why does the author think Irish workers were a success as canal laborers?
They were known as canallers. They were the people who were part of the Erie Canal, made their living from the canal, and more often than not lived on the canal. Some of them crewed on the packet boats. Others drove the teams as they plodded along the towpaths. Many owned or operated freight boats. If the freight boats were family owned, the family lived in quarters in the stern, behind the cargo hold. Since horses or mules pulled canal boats, boatbuilders located stables in the bow of freight boats. The stables provided shelter for the team at rest while another team pulled the canal boat. Packet boat companies kept replacement teams at various points along canal routes, so packet boats did not need stables on board.

Businesses sprang up along the banks to serve canallers. Establishments that catered to canal traffic included general stores, blacksmiths, saloons, hotels, and boatyards. At least one such general store survives, along the old Erie Canal route a short distance east of Fort Hunter.

When several businesses located near the canal, they created a canal town. The short-lived Canal Village near Rome illustrates this pattern. The village of Rome existed long before the coming of the Erie Canal. It had been the location of the Western Inland Lock Navigation Company (WILNC) canal built in the 1790s. The Erie Canal was not built through Rome because of the privately owned WILNC canal. The half-mile distance between the Erie Canal and Rome caused new businesses to cluster along the canal banks and not in Rome, since transferring goods from the canal to the village would have added to the total cost of the merchandise. As early as 1820, at the spot where the Rome Turnpike (now South James Street) crossed the Erie Canal, an entrepreneur opened the first business, a tavern. Later that year, a toll collector’s house was built near the tavern. Prior to the opening of the entire canal in 1825, a bakery and a coffeehouse followed. The completion of the Erie Canal stimulated construction during the following five years of a grocery store, a blacksmith shop, a boot and shoe store, a butcher shop, a storehouse, and as many as 12 houses. By then the little community was known as Canal Village.

The buildings of Canal Village had a less permanent look than those of Rome. Many of the Canal Village structures were raised on piles or stilts because of the area’s marshy soil. Also, few people from Rome went to live in Canal Village. Nevertheless, the citizens of Rome were rightly concerned that their location a half-mile north of the canal would be detrimental to the prosperity of their village, so they petitioned the state legislature to make a change. When the Erie Canal’s first enlargement began in 1836, the legislature rerouted the Erie Canal through Rome. As a result, Canal Village stagnated and Rome grew.

Life in the canal towns could be boisterous, particularly on Saturday nights, when the canallers sought relaxation after a long work week. It was not unusual to read in local newspapers of weekend fights and drownings. It was fairly common for someone to stagger out of a saloon, fall off a bridge, and drown in the canal on the way home. (Keep in mind that most canal bridges were relatively low and that the original Erie Canal was only four feet deep. It would have been difficult for most adults to drown in the early canals unless they had lost all control of their faculties.) It is not surprising that other residents in canal communities sometimes looked down on the canallers and their rough and transient lives.

Because many of the canallers moved along the canals as part of their jobs, it was difficult to formally educate their children. While working on the canal, many parents could teach their younger children the basics of reading, writing, and ciphering, as mathematics was called at the time. However, it was important for parents to decide before the annual canal closing whether to send the children to school. Then the family could move its canal boat for the winter to a community in which schools were located. Often, the port of New York City was the winter destination of canallers. Steamboats towed the canal boats several at a time down the Hudson River from the Erie Canal Basin at Albany. Once the canallers arrived in New York, the children would have access to schools and their parents could find work for the winter season.
The Erie Canal brought an influx of Irish immigrants workers to Albany, New York. When the New York State Legislature passed the bill appropriating funds to construct the canal, laborers were recruited for the project from Ireland and from among Irish immigrants in northeastern cities. In 1818 a canal agent went to New York City and hired Irish laborers as they stepped off the ships. By the time that Michael Hogan arrived in 1852, the Canal Irish had been settled in Albany for a generation and a new generation of Irish arrived from famine-stricken Ireland. While traces of the Erie Canal are gone from Albany, other stretches of the Canal have become a tourist attraction. Students may want to check the New York Canal System website (www.canals.state.ny.us). The first version of the letter is edited for high school level students. The second version has been adapted for middle level students. After reading the letter, students complete the learning activities and discuss the questions. This lesson is based on the research efforts of Professor Kirby Miller of the University of Missouri-Columbia.

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Excerpt from a letter from Michael Hogan, Albany, NY, to Catherine Nolan, Pollerton, Co. Carlow

17 March 1852

Dear Aunt,

I take this opportunity of writing those few lines to you hoping to find you and your family in good health as this leaves us all in good health at present. I thank God for his mercies to us all. I received a letter from Patrick Kelly on the 24th of December '51 which gave us all great pleasure to find that all friends were well. We were sorry to hear of my grandmother’s death but yet thankful to God for taking her out of this wicked world. He gave me to understand that you had not received any letter from me since I came to America. However you were the first I wrote to after I arrived on the land of liberty. I often wondered that I was getting no answer from you.

I have had the opportunity of seeing the New York steamboats landing at the wharf of Albany during last spring. I often gazed on the passengers in hopes of seeing you till at length I met with my cousin and a good many of my old school fellows along with him. He told me that you had adjorned [decided against] coming to America. I got a situation [job] on the 12th of February 1851 which I occupy up to this time. My wages is 6 dollars a week from the 1st of April until the 1st of January. The following three months I get 4 dollars per week. I board myself. My work is but 10 hours in the day. Dennys is working at boot and shoe making since we came here with the exception of four months which he worked in a foundry last summer. Patrick is idle at present but I expect to get him work in a few days. As the girls, Mary and Ann and Margaret are in good situations in the city, and Eleanor is learning the tailoress trade.

It was not want of money caused us to stop in Albany, but when we landed here, it was too expensive to travel as there was no way of traveling but by railroad. By the time navigation opened we thought better to stop for some time.

I would not encourage any person to come here that could live middling well at home as they might meet with many difficulties by coming here but any boy or girl that has to labor for their living, this is the country for them. Boys living with farmers can get from 20 to 30 British pounds per year. Girls can get from 8 to 14 pounds per year according as they understand their business. Winter is a bad time for any person to come here as it is almost impossible to get anything to do and expensive to travel.

We are not sorry for coming here but I am sorry for spending so much of my time in Ireland. You will let me know how all friends are and give me all information you can concerning the state of the country. My father, brother and sisters join me in sending their best respects to you all. No more at present.

I remain yours truly,

Michael Hogan

P.S. Write soon. Any person coming here and wishing to find me will do so by making application to Mr. Thomas Redmond. 117 Canal St., Albany, New York
Dear Aunt,

I received a letter from Patrick Kelly. We were happy to hear that all of our friends are well. We were sorry to hear that my grandmother died, but we thank God for taking her out of this wicked world. Pat said you told him that I had not written to you, but I wrote you my first letter after I came to this land of liberty. I often wondered why you had not replied to my letter.

Last spring, I often saw the steamboats land at the Albany dock. I hoped to see someone I knew. At last I saw my cousin and some friends from school get off the boat. He told me that you had decided not to come to America.

I started a job on February 12, 1851 and I'm still working there. I made $6.00 a week from April 1st till January 1, 1852. For the last three months I have made $4.00 week. I work ten hours a day and I have to pay for my room and board.

Dennis is a bootmaker. Last summer he worked for four months in a foundry. Patrick is not working, but I think he will get a job in a few days. Mary, Ann and Margaret have good jobs in the city and Eleanor is learning to be a dressmaker.

It was not a lack of money that kept us in Albany. When we landed here it was too expensive to travel further because we could only go by train in the winter. We all had jobs by the time the canal opened in the spring and we thought we'd better stay here.

I would not tell anyone to come here who has a pretty good life at home, but if a boy or girl has to work for a living, this is the country for them. Boys living with farmers can get between 20 and 30 British pounds a year. Girls can get between 8 and 14 pounds. Winter is a bad time to come here. It is hard to find work and it is expensive to travel.

We are not sorry that we came here. I am sorry I spent so long in Ireland. Let me know how all my friends are and give me news about Ireland. My father, brothers and sisters join me in sending their best respects to all of you.

I remain,

yours truly,

Michael Hogan

P.S. Write soon. People coming here can find me care of Mr. Thomas Redmond, 117 Canal Street, Albany

Activities and Questions
1. Michael Hogan wrote his Aunt Catherine Nolan on March 17th? Do you think this date is significant? Why?
2. Catherine Nolan lived in Pollerton, Carlow. Research indicates that it was among the three counties that suffered least during the Great Irish Famine. We are not sure where Michael Hogan was from in Ireland but believe it was also Co. Carlow. Why do you think that Hogan emigrated to the United States? What evidence from the letter supports your answer?
3. Many Irish families settled in Albany after the Erie Canal was built. In your opinion, would this has influenced Michael Hogan’s decision to remain in Albany? Explain.
4. The Irish section of Albany, near the entrance to the Erie Canal, was known as The Basin. Michael Hogan lived at 54 Colonie, one of the streets in The Basin. Locate this area on historic and current maps of Albany. In your opinion, why would this area become an Irish section of the city?
5. What kind of jobs did the Hogan family find in Albany?
6. Write a letter from Catherine Nolan answering Michael Hogan's letter and telling him whether she thinks his life has improved since he emigrated to Albany. What has he gained? What has he lost?

Supplemental Readings:
Many of the Irish immigrants who helped construct the Erie Canal system settled in Buffalo, New York, the city that was the gateway to the American west. The city’s Irish Famine Memorial is located near the site of the original terminus of the Erie Canal. While many early immigrants lived along Times Beach at the foot on Michigan Street along Buffalo’s Sea Wall, the center of the early Irish community was Buffalo’s Old First Ward. The First Ward Irish worked in the factories and grain elevators located in the district. While Irish-American descendants of the Buffalo Irish live all over the greater Buffalo area, the Old First Ward and South Buffalo are still considered the Irish heartland of the city.

The Irish emigrated for a number of reasons: for economic and political reasons in the eighteenth century, to escape the Great Irish Famine and for increased economic and social choices. They also emigrated to help their families at home who stayed on the land. For this lesson, students read a letter Daniel Guiney sent his family and friends in County Cork, Ireland in August, 1850. Daniel Guiney was 23 years old when he arrived in New York aboard the Columbia from Liverpool on July 24, 1850. This was the middle of the Great Famine in Ireland. He mailed the letter from Buffalo. After reading the letter, students complete the learning activities and discuss the questions. This lesson is based on the research efforts of Professor Kirby Miller of the University of Missouri-Columbia.

Excerpt from a letter sent by Daniel Guiney to his mother and brothers in County Cork, Ireland
Good Times
Exchange Street, Buffalo
August 9, 1850
Dear Mother and Brothers:

We embrace the opportunity of writing these few lines to you hoping that this Silent Messenger May find you and all our Dear friends and Beloved Neighbors in as good a state of health as this leaves us at present thanks be to God for his benefits to us all. Therefore we mean to let you know our situation at present. We left New York 29th of July and sailed out for Buffalo and arrived the following day in Albany. We left Albany the same day and came out on the canal boat, which was drawn by horses. It took us eight days to come to Buffalo, which was very expensive to us. Bread and milk was very dear along the canal. We could walk out any time we pleased and walk two or three miles and could eat plenty of apples when we had any desire. This place is full of orchards and woods. This is a very fine country. You may be sure that we had a fine prospect coming out here and according as we were coming out of the country were getting better.

As for the crops here, the Indian meal is growing here like woods and the finest fields of clover that ever we seen. As to the stock, they are like the cows at home and horses and sheep are just the same. We could see fine large stock of cattle - 40 and 50 cows together and so on from that down to 10 and 12 and 5 or 6. We could see 6 and 7 score of sheep and 12 or 14 horses together. You may been sure that we seen a great many wonders. The Yankees are the wisest men in the world in respect of doing business.

We arrived here about 5 o’clock in the afternoon of yesterday, 14 of us together where we were received with the greatest kindness and respectability by Matthew Leary and Dennis Danihy. As soon as we came in we made them off (recognized them) at once. Dennis Danihy went and brought a horse and took Dan Guiney’ luggage to the house and paid for it himself. When we came to the house we could not state to you how we were treated. We had potatoes, meat, butter, bread and tea for dinner and you may be sure we had drink after in Matthew Leary’s house. I mean to let you know we had a pleasant night. hey went to the store and bought 2 dozen of bottles of small beer and a gallon of gin and whiskey so that we were drinking till morning.

If you were to see Dennis Reen when Daniel Danihy dressed him with clothes suitable for this country, you would think him to be a boss or steward, so that we have scarcely words to state to you how happy we felt at present. Dear friends, if you were to see old Denis Danihy! He never was as in good health and he looks better than ever he did at home. Ye would not believe how fat and strong he is and you may be sure he can have plenty of tobacco. He told me to mention it to Tim Murphy. As to the girls that used to be trotting on the bogs at home, to hear them talk English would be of great astonishment to you.

We have plenty of work at six shillings a day. That’s equal to three shillings of your money. We would get a
dollar a day in different places, but we would sooner be all together. But if Dan Guiney got to Detroit and get a better chance, he will acquaint us of it.

Activities and Questions
1. Do you think Daniel Guiney wrote this letter himself? On what do you base your conclusion?
2. Daniel Guiney calls his letter “a silent messenger.” Do you think that the phrase is a good description of a letter? Explain.
3. Trace the Guiney’ party’s journey from New York City to Buffalo along the Erie Canal.
4. When Daniel Guiney said things were “very dear,” he meant that things were very expensive. One thing that was plentiful was apples. It was the beginning of August and apples were ripe. Where are apples grown in New York State today? Are there any kinds that are associated with particular regions of the state?
5. Daniel Guiney was writing back to family and friends in farming country in north Cork. His own father had been a farmer. What kinds of details does he give them about the farms he saw as he walked along the towpath of the Erie Canal?
6. Hospitality is very important to the Irish. What kinds of things did Denis Danihy and Matthew Leary do to welcome Dan Guiney and his party of fourteen Irish immigrants?
7. Daniel Guiney raves about how fat Denis Danihy has become. Why do you think he is pleased that his friend is fat?
8. Family and friends often decided to stay together even though they could earn more money if they went to different places. What values does that decision suggest to students? If they were writing to people back home, why would telling them that they were staying together be important?
9. Daniel Guiney emigrated to the United States during a time of famine in Ireland. What evidence is there in this letter that Daniel Guiney and his friends and family are concerned about survival during “hard times”?
10. Have you, members of your family or any of your friends moved from one country to another? How are your experiences or theirs similar to or different from the experiences described in this letter?

Supplemental reading:
There are materials about the Irish in Buffalo in the GAAA Irish Library, Buffalo Irish Center, 245 Abbott Road, Buffalo, New York. They can be contacted at Dmshine@aol.com.

Supplemental Erie Canal Lesson Ideas by Ellen Durrigan Santora

- To encourage students to explore the social and historical context of people’s lives, use diaries and letters from the collection to write biopoems reflecting the characteristics and feelings of people who traveled and worked on canals.
- To help students understand history as a series of critical decisions, research and debate the impact of canal enlargement on communities and the environment.
- To enhance students’ understanding of commercialization and the changing landscape, have student teams explore navigation routes, markets and warehouses, patterns of settlement, canal structures, and urban development.
- To stimulate student thinking about historical context, historiography, and the marginalization of large groups of people, ask students to select one of these marginalized groups (women, construction laborers, canallers, Native Americans, landowners whose property was in the way of canal construction, and those who lived in villages along the canal) and research ways in which their lives may have been altered by construction and navigation of canals.
A review of the growth of cities along the route of the Erie Canal reveals the canal’s immense impact. In 1814, three years before canal construction started, a few villages already existed along the Mohawk River, including Rome. However, there were almost no settlements west of Rome along the future canal route. Buffalo existed, but its population of 1,100 residents compared poorly with the 10,000 people then living in Albany.

By 1820, the completed central section of the Erie Canal was open and its impact on western communities was becoming noticeable. Buffalo’s numbers doubled, newcomer Rochester boasted a population of 1,500, and Syracuse was on the map with 1,800 citizens. Utica, not listed in 1814 count, had grown to nearly 3,000 people by 1820. Nearby Rome experienced on 18.5 percent increase in its number of residents.

The whole length of the Erie Canal was opened in October 1825. During that year, a New York State census was taken. At that time, the state took a population count in the middle of each decade to supplement the national census, which was taken in years ending in a zero. Again, the communities along the western half of the canal showed the most rapid expansion: Buffalo’s population had more than doubled, to a total of 5,141 people; Rochester’s population had grown by a factor of three and a half in five years; and Syracuse had doubled in size. By 1825, Lockport, which had begun as a construction camp around a series of locks climbing the Niagara Escarpment, was a city of 3,000 people. Utica had expanded by nearly 70 percent, and Albany had managed to sustain a 25 percent growth rate.

During the 10 years after the completion of the canal, the Erie’s impact on communities along its route was even more apparent and impressive. By 1835, Albany, with its population of 28,109, was still the state’s largest city north of New York City. Albany had grown by 76 percent since 1825. Utica, 90 miles west of Albany, experienced a growth rate of 101 percent, with a total 1835 population of 10,138 people. Syracuse’s 1835 population of 7,793 reflected a rate of expansion of 103 percent for the decade. Lockport also grew by 103 percent. Rochester and Buffalo showed the greatest percentage gains. In 1835, Rochester had 14,404 people, a 238 percent increase over 1825. Buffalo grew by no less than 283 percent, to end up with a population of 19,715. Even Rome, whose population increase had lagged behind because the original Erie Canal passed a half-mile south of the village, managed a 27 percent growth rate for the decade.

There is no question that up until 1835 most of the growth of communities located along the route was caused directly by the Erie Canal. It is more difficult to make this assertion for the years following 1835. Railroads made their appearance along the canal route during the 1830s. They competed powerfully with the canal for the passenger trade and, to a lesser degree, for the transportation of freight. As a result, both the canal and the railroads contributed to further urban growth after 1835.
During the nineteenth century, a number of British travelers wrote about trips on the Erie Canal and visits to canal cities. The following edited excerpts are from a book by William Brown, who probably stopped in Rochester in 1843 or 1844. The full text, as well as other accounts of New York State during this period reprinted in *Upstate Travels, British Views of Nineteenth-Century New York*, edited by Roger Haydon (Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University Press, 1982).

A) Rochester is situated upon the Erie Canal and the Genessee River, about two miles from its mouth upon Lake Ontario; and here steamers arrive continually from various parts of the Lake, not only from the ports belonging to the Union, but also from Canada. The city contains about 28,000 souls. This city is famed for the falls of the waters of the whole river Genessee taking place here, of which the inhabitants are taking the utmost advantage, in turning the stream to manufacturing purposes.

B) The flour mills are here on the most extensive scale of any in the Union, and the construction is superior to any in the world. I counted from twelve to fourteen mills, all in operation, some of which had a complement of ten runs of stones, and each pair capable of turning off from twelve to fourteen bushels of wheat per hour. Every operation in these mills is more like clock-work than anything else; very few hands are employed, everything is done by the water; the grain is hoisted up by power, carried to the smut mill, then to the hoppers, then to the stones, and from the stones to the cooling frames, and so on to the dressing or bolting mills; from the dressing mills it is shot into barrels, which when filled and weighed are immediately “ended up,” branded, and ready for market. It is really pleasing to see such order and regularity in any manufactory; it is here done without bustle or hurry, and so clean and perfect, that the Rochester brand for flour stands pre-eminent in the markets of the whole world.

C) The river, coming down from the high lands towards the city, is channeled off in portions through the town, as well as a great part into the canal basin. If you stand upon the bridge, you will see the water shooting out from scores of water-wheels in a sheet of white foam, making a clear jump of perhaps 200 feet into the channel below. In the course of a few year this spare force will be economized and brought into use, by mechanical contrivances, in which the Yankees are as much gifted as any nation in the world.

D) There are also two or three woolen factories established here, which make cloth suitable for the wear of the farmers in the neighborhood, as well as a large quantity sent to Canada and worn there. There are also card makers, machine makers on a large scale, as well as steam engine makers, steam boat builders, and locomotive engine manufacturers. Furniture, carriage, chair, and sash factories are in abundance; in fact, almost every craft which requires power is carried on here in very great perfection.

E) Rochester I consider the best city in the union for an Englishman desirous of settling in the States, as from its contiguity to the lake, and from its immense traffic by the canal and on the railway, it will always command a good trade, and a great portion of the English from Canada West pass through on their journeys to and from the Mother Country, almost every day. The city of Rochester contains many well built streets, generally of brick, elegant shops, and churches; the aqueduct of the Erie Canal is a splendid and magnificent structure, the engineering works of which are equal to anything I ever saw. Indeed, according to my opinion, this city is the best specimen of the go-ahead principle that can be found upon the face of the earth.

**Questions and Activities**
1. According to this memoir by William Brown, why has Rochester, New York been so successful?
3. What is William Brown’s attitude toward American “Yankees”? On what evidence do you base your conclusion?
4. Design a poster for the Rochester “Chamber of Commerce” promoting their nineteenth century city.
H.S. Level Activity: Impact of the Erie Canal on Size and Rank of Cities

Examine the charts below:
1. Identify key information on the charts.
2. What trends (patterns) can you identify on these charts?
3. What conclusions can you draw from these charts?
4. As an historian, what additional information would you like to know about these developments?

Impact of the Erie Canal on Central New York Cities, Population and National Rank, 1810 - 1860


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<th>City</th>
<th>1810</th>
<th>1820</th>
<th>1830</th>
<th>1840</th>
<th>1850</th>
<th>1860</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Albany</td>
<td>10,762</td>
<td>12,630</td>
<td>24,209</td>
<td>33,721</td>
<td>50,763</td>
<td>62,367</td>
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<tr>
<td>Buffalo</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>8,668</td>
<td>18,213</td>
<td>42,261</td>
<td>81,129</td>
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<td>Rochester</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>9,207</td>
<td>20,191</td>
<td>36,403</td>
<td>48,204</td>
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<td>Troy</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>5,264</td>
<td>11,556</td>
<td>19,334</td>
<td>28,785</td>
<td>39,235</td>
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<td>-----</td>
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<td></td>
<td>22,271</td>
<td>28,119</td>
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<tr>
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<td>12,782</td>
<td>17,565</td>
<td>22,329</td>
<td>23,293</td>
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Population and National Rank of the Largest Cities in the United States, 1800-1860*


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<th>City</th>
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<th>1810</th>
<th>1820</th>
<th>1830</th>
<th>1840</th>
<th>1850</th>
<th>1860</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>202,589</td>
<td>312,710</td>
<td>515,547</td>
<td>813,669</td>
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<td>4,402</td>
<td>7,175</td>
<td>12,406</td>
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<td>96,838</td>
<td>266,661</td>
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*Metro NYC shows combined population for New York and Brooklyn; Metro Philadelphia shows combined population for Philadelphia, Southwork, Northern Liberties, Kensington, Springfield Gardens, and Moyamansing which were merged into Philadelphia in 1854; Metro Boston shows combined population for Boston and Charlestown.
The Genesee Valley Canal
by Dean June

By 1815 turnpikes such as the Seneca and Mohawk and the Great Western reached across New York State from Albany to Jamestown. Known as “The King of the Turnpike,” the stagecoach was the fastest means of transportation on the road. It could travel from Albany to Buffalo in less than a week. However, the stagecoach and what passed for roads were never suitable for carrying freight. Something had to be done to solve the problem of how to haul the farmer’s products of western New York to the Hudson River in Albany.

Many soldiers of the Revolution who had seen central and western New York flocked to settle there after the war. In 1783, George Washington called the Mohawk Valley “The Pathway to Empire.” But it would not be until the 4th of July, 1817 that ground-breaking for the Erie Canal promised to connect east with west. Finally, in the fall of 1825, Governor DeWitt Clinton poured a barrel of water from Lake Erie into New York Harbor symbolizing the completion of the canal. Soon the cost of freight would fall from $100 a ton to $10 a ton, and a canal boat could race from Buffalo to Albany in only six days!

But what if you still had to depend on the roads to get to the canal? More remote parts of the state questioned how they would get their wheat, hickory, elm, chestnut, pine, hemlock, oak, and ash lumber to market. In 1827, Governor Clinton started to call for a “survey of a route for a canal to unite the Erie Canal at Rochester with the Allegheny River.” Prior to this time the only way Genesee Valley farmers could transport their goods was on the Genesee River. The river, however, was unpredictable with submerged hazards.

After nine years, on May 6, 1836, the New York State legislature authorized construction of a north/south canal from Rochester to Olean. There would also be a side branch to Dansville. The major engineering problem was bridging the gorge of the Genesee, “The Grand Canyon of the East.” Excavation started in June, 1837 by Chief Engineer Frederick C. Mills. It would take a full year to reach Castletown at the Genesee Rapids, a distance of only two miles. By September 1, 1840, the canal was completed as far as Mount Morris and a dam was built to keep the water-level high enough to float packets across the river. Now a packet boat could leave Rochester in the morning and be in Mount Morris in the evening. Including meals, the cost was four cents per mile. By 1841, a branch of the canal with four locks was completed to Dansville.

The previous January work was started on the Nine-Mile Level near Oakland and Nunda. A valley 73 feet deep and 238 feet wide at the top had to be scooped out by hand and horse-drawn scoops. Then a tunnel for the canal bed had to be blasted through the rocks opposite the Glen Iris. Finally, after many rock slides and stoppages by the Democrats in 1842, work resumed with the return of the Whig Party to power in 1848.

The canal crossed the valley of the Genesee at Portageville. A 440 foot wooden aqueduct was built at a cost of $70,000. The stone supports, later used to support a 50 foot high railroad bridge, can still be seen today. It took 17 locks to lift the canal from Nunda to Portageville. Passing through present day Houghton, which was known as a “rendezvous for homeless boatmen and teamsters,” the canal continued to Oramel. In 1851, Oramel was a roaring canal town with lumber stacked from one end to the other. Five locks provided passage through town, and at each one, canallers conversed with locals and traded goods. In 1852, a dam was built in Cuba, New York creating a lake 5 miles long that guaranteed water for the canal. At the time, it was the largest man-made lake in America.

On November 6, 1856, the canal reached Olean, leaving only seven more miles to connect with Allegheny River. However, because the canal was losing money, it was decided that instead of a direct route that required the construction of additional locks, the canal would parallel the Allegheny for six miles until it could enter the river unaided. It took 19 years, 100 deaths, and $6 million to complete the Genesee Valley Canal, but it was now possible to travel by water from New York City to Pittsburgh. By today’s standards, the canal would have cost about $250 million.

Eventually the whistle of the railroad made the canal obsolete. By 1878, the Genesee Valley Canal ceased to exist and its right-of-way was purchased by the Genesee Valley Canal Railroad Company. Today, not much of the old canal remains visible. However, during its 38 years of operation between Mount Morris and Rochester and 17 years between Olean and Milgrove Pond, it helped bring George Washington’s prophesy of New York as the “Empire State” into reality.
References

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Social Science Docket 90 Winter-Spring 2002