Ancient Egypt
Middle School, 6th Grade

Project READI Curriculum Module
Technical Report CM #18

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Project READI History Team
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Project READI operated as a multi-institution collaboration among the Learning Sciences Research Institute, University of Illinois at Chicago; Northern Illinois University; Northwestern University; WestEd’s Strategic Literacy Initiative; and Inquirium, LLC. Project READI developed and researched interventions in collaboration with classroom teachers that were designed to improve reading comprehension through argumentation from multiple sources in literature, history, and the sciences appropriate for adolescent learners. Curriculum materials in the READI modules were developed based on enacted instruction and are intended as case examples of the READI approach to deep and meaningful disciplinary literacy and learning.
Ancient Egypt Module:
Deepening Close Reading from a Historical Lens

This module supports students in shifting to reading texts closely with a historical lens; students begin to use practices of sourcing, contextualization, and corroboration as a habit of mind when reading texts, particularly focusing on developing the practices of corroboration and sourcing. Students will draw parallels with a previous module, understanding that proximity to water was essential for Ancient civilizations to survive and flourish.

This module builds the foundation for understanding interpretive frameworks by addressing the essential question using the interpretive categories social and economic. Students will describe social and economic aspects of life for ordinary people in Ancient Egypt.

Essential Questions:
• (1) Why did people settle in Ancient Egypt and why did life flourish there?
• (2) What was life like for ordinary people in Ancient Egypt?

Days 1-3
Focus: Introduction to Ancient Egypt inquiry and addressing the first essential question

Texts:
• Map of Ancient Egypt, Kush, and Israel – with overlays of the flood plains and largest cities (D1-3.a)
• Environmental Factors and Human Settlement in Egypt and Kush (Excerpt from the textbook History Alive! The Ancient World) (D1-3.b)
• The Gift of the Nile (Excerpt from the textbook The World: Volume 1) (D1-3.c)

Materials:
• Chart paper and markers

Activities:
• Brainstorm students’ prior knowledge about Ancient Egypt – chart ideas.

[Teacher Comment: The reason I start with brainstorming students’ prior knowledge is because what they know is generally about mummies, pharaohs, and pyramids. I use that as a jumping off point to say, “As I’m looking at the list of things you know, it seems like most of what you know is about the most elite members of Ancient Egyptian society.” Then I tie that into the essential question about ordinary people, and say, “This question really gets at what we don’t know very much about, which is the lives of the people who weren’t rich pharaohs, but just normal everyday people.”]

• Unpack essential questions: (1) Why did people settle in Ancient Egypt and why did life flourish there?
• (2) What was life like for ordinary people in Ancient Egypt?

• Use map of Ancient Egypt (D1-3.a) with overlays of flood plains and largest cities on big screen to make predictions and to confirm/disconfirm predictions about where big cities develop. Go through cycle of predicting and confirming where people settled in relation to the flood plains through partner and whole group share. Add questions to class chart “Questions About Ancient Egypt?” (See Appendix A, Scaffolds for Middle School Historical Inquiry Modules, pg. 14)

[Teacher Comment: Students find this puzzling because it seems odd for people to develop cities in flood plains. Most likely a student will ask the question: Why would people want to live in a place that floods every year? When they ask this, I’ll add the question to our Questions About Ancient Egypt chart and later when students read about the usefulness of floods to Ancient Egyptians, they’ll recognize that we have found an
answer to one of our questions.]

- Closely read “Environmental Factors and Human Settlement in Egypt and Kush” (D1-3.b) and “The Gift of the Nile” (D1-3.c) with multiple purposes (i.e. asking and answering our own questions, tracking essential question #2), focusing on identifying corroborating details to support a claim about why people settled in Ancient Egypt (essential question #1).

[Teacher Comment: For the first few days of the unit we focus primarily on addressing the first essential question, as the texts lend themselves to answering it. However, we continually track both questions every time we encounter a new text.] (D1-3.d)

- Discuss why it is important to notice details that are corroborated by multiple sources.

[Teacher Comment: This question, “why is it important to notice details are/are not corroborated across sources” does not necessarily lead to a lengthy discussion. I usually just pepper the question into discussion constantly to get students to start thinking about the importance of corroborating. At first students aren’t really able to answer the question, but in asking over and over in the context of comparing/contrasting details students eventually begin to get a sense of why corroborating is important. When they start to see the same thing over and over again in various texts, they start to get a sense of trustworthiness. When they notice differences/things that do not corroborate it naturally raises a red flag for students.]

- Construct a list of reasons why people settled in Ancient Egypt and why life flourished there. Write a claim about why people settled and why life flourished there, using evidence from the three sources. (D1-3.a), (D1-3.b), (D1-3.c)

[Teacher Comment: I use students’ claim paragraphs as a final assessment for essential question #1 because the rest of the module focuses on the second essential question. I say to students, “At this point, we have developed a good sense of why people settled in Ancient Egypt. Now we’ll focus on constructing an understanding of what daily life was like. However, if you find more evidence to help us more thoroughly answer the question, let us know.”]

Classroom Products:
- Our Questions about Egypt Chart (See Appendix A, pg.14)
- Sources Historians Use chart (See Appendix A, pg. 14)
- Group constructed notes on whiteboard during classroom discussion (D1-3.d)

Days 4-5

Focus: Corroborating across sources and collecting evidence to support claims that address the second essential question

Texts:
- All texts previously read in source file (See Appendix A, pg. 15)
- Egypt’s Economy (Excerpt from the textbook The World: Volume 1) (D4-5.a)
- Life in Ancient Egypt (textbook excerpt) (D4-5.b)

Materials:
- Claims-Evidence-Source Chart (D4-5.c)

Activities:
- Closely read Egypt’s Economy text (D4-5.a) with multiple purposes (i.e. asking and answering our own questions, continuing to track essential question #1), focusing on identifying corroborating details to support a claim about what life was like for ordinary people in Ancient Egypt (essential question #2).
Discuss why it is important to notice details that are corroborated by multiple sources.

- Closely read Life in Ancient Egypt (D4-5.b) to collect evidence using Claims-Evidence-Source chart (D4-5.c) to support claims about life in Ancient Egypt.

[Teacher Comment: Since this is the first time for students to use a chart like this, I modeled it first and made a point of folding the chart back to collect evidence only first (not to fill in the claims column). Then later I showed how I opened the fold, looked at the evidence, and made a claim based on the evidence. I do this so students will develop the habit of collecting evidence and basing claims on evidence they’ve collected rather than coming up with a claim and going back to the texts to cherry pick evidence.

I’ve tried numerous variations of notetakers to represent claims based on evidence and I have found that students tend to fill in boxes because they think a good chart is full and they don’t carefully delineate what goes in the appropriate columns (i.e. they write claims in the evidence column). I’ve found collecting evidence first seems to work best. Eventually we do move toward students marking claims and evidence more fluidly when they have a clearer understanding of the difference between claims and evidence.]

- Review texts from previous lessons (D1-3.a, D1-3.b, D1-3.c, D4-5.a, D4-5.b) to add to Claim-Evidence-Source Chart.

[Teacher Comment: I never like to set the primary purpose for a first close reading of a text as filling out a claims-evidence chart. I’ve found that when they do that, they tend to focus more on filling out the chart instead of reading closely. Also, they record significantly fewer annotations when they are reading a text for the first time and simultaneously filling out a chart. Instead, I usually make the chart something we return to periodically, review the texts we’ve read recently, and add to the chart after we’ve already read the texts closely. Because students are so familiar with the texts at this point, the second re-reading is more like skimming to look for evidence to support claims, and they can do this with several texts in a relatively short amount of time. Keep in mind that students are always paying attention to evidence that supports claims about their essential questions whenever they are reading texts, and noting that evidence in their annotations, so when we bring out the claims-evidence chart, it’s a chance for them to consolidate the claims they are developing across texts. It’s also useful to do this with a few texts at a time, because students can start to notice that some claims are supported by evidence from multiple sources.]

Classroom Products:
- Group constructed notes on whiteboard during classroom discussion
- Sources Historians Use chart (Appendix A, pg. 14)

Day 6-10

Focus: Developing the habit of sourcing texts as a pre-reading skill. Closely reading multiple sources to collect evidence and develop claims about what life was like for ordinary people in Ancient Egypt (second EQ)

Text:
- Hymn to the Nile (primary source from 2100 BCE excerpted from textbook Volume I: The Ancient World, 1907) (D6-10.a)
- Advice to the Young Egyptian: “Be A Scribe” (from Worlds of History: A Comparative Reader: Volume One, by Kevin Reilly, pages 62-65) (D6-10.b)
- The Life of Meresamun: A Temple Singer in Ancient Egypt (D6-10.c)

Activities:
- Preview Hymn to the Nile text before closely reading and reflect on three questions: Who wrote this? When was it written? What type of text is this? (D6-10.d)
[Teacher Comment: Although these questions seem simple, they are actually quite challenging for 6th graders to answer. Students always come up with a lot of different answers and have a hard time coming to consensus because of their limited background knowledge about Ancient Egypt and about basics of publishing (i.e. who an editor is).

I write all Ss’ ideas (even contradictory ones) about the pre-reading questions on the board. Student’ ideas range from accurate to illogical. I continually ask students what evidence they have to back up their ideas (i.e. “what in the text makes you think that?”). After generating ideas and conferring about them, I then tell students to keep these ideas in mind when we closely read the text. As we read, we keep revisiting their ideas based on what we read to get a deeper sense of what is a more logical conclusion.]

• Discuss why it’s important to determine the origin of a document.

[Teacher Comment: Similar to asking students about the importance of corroborating, students do not necessarily know how to answer this question at first. They eventually gain a deeper sense of why to pay attention to source information after continually revisiting this question in the context of the various texts we read.]

• Closely read Hymn to the Nile (D6-10.a) with multiple purposes, focusing on confirming/disconfirming students’ assumptions about the source’s origin as well as addressing the second essential question (what was life like for ordinary people?)
• Write one claim about life in Ancient Egypt based on evidence from this source. Explain how the evidence supports your claim.
• For the next two texts (Advice to Young Egyptians (D6-10.b); Life of Meresamun (De6-10.c) follow the same process as above, pre-reading each document to determine the origin and then closely reading to confirm/disconfirm students assumptions about the source’s origins (D6-10.e) and to collect evidence to address the second essential question (what was life like for ordinary people?)
• Write a list of claims about life in Ancient Egypt based on evidence collected from all three sources. (D6-10.f)

[Teacher Comment: For Hymn to the Nile I have students first write just one claim about life in Ancient Egypt to keep them focused because student have a tendency to write as many ideas as they can think of. Students tend to think more is better and I want them to focus on constructing one strong, clear claim. When we read the other two texts we move to making a list of claims. I want students to start thinking about all of the various claims they can make.

The reason I have students do a list before writing an essay/paragraph is for the same reason. Students are more focused, concise, and logical when the activity is constrained. I will even say to them at times “Each bullet point cannot be more than one sentence.”]

Classroom Products:
• Group constructed notes on whiteboard during classroom discussion (D6-10.d, D6-10.e, D6-10.f)
• Sources Historians Use chart (Appendix A, pg. 14)

Days 11-12
Focus: Closely reading/analyzing multiple sources (including artifacts) to collect evidence and develop claims about what life was like for ordinary people in Ancient Egypt.

Texts:
• Artifact collection and accompanying extended captions on Rosicrucian Egyptian Museum website (http://www.egyptianmuseum.org/)

Activities:
• Browse a collection of artifacts on the website. Individually or in pairs choose one artifact to closely read/analyze and collect evidence to address the second essential question (what was life like for
ordinary people?)
- List some claims you can make about life in Ancient Egypt based on this artifact.

Classroom Products:
- Sources Historians Use chart (Appendix A, pg. 14)

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Day 13-14

Focus: Analyze a historian’s actions and claims in a newspaper article to deepen understandings of how historians make claims and develop arguments.

Texts:
- Language offers rare insight into Ancient Egyptians (article from Chicago Tribune, published 10/22/13) (D13-14.a)

Materials:
- T chart – historian’s actions, historian’s claims

Activities:
- Preview newspaper article (D13-14.a) before closely reading and reflect on three questions: Who wrote this? When was it written? What type of text is this? Discuss why it’s important to determine the origin of a document.

[Teacher Comment: For this text, it can be a little confusing for 6th graders to determine who the author is versus the historian, the subject of the article. To help students figure this out, I record all of the different ideas on the board and ask students to discuss which idea makes the most sense. Only a few students in the room will say the wrong name, but most will be able to identify that the author is the newspaper reporter who interviewed the historian. The majority can usually easily persuade the others so that everyone is clear on who the author is.] (D13-14.b)

- Closely read text with multiple purposes, focusing on identifying specific historian’s actions and claims made by that historian. Chart historian’s actions and claims and discuss the relationship between the actions and claims. (D13-14.c)

[Teacher Comment: One concept that is usually pretty fuzzy for students is: How do historians know the things they make claims about? For example, if students read, “Ancient Egyptians wore makeup,” I sometimes ask them, “How did the author know that?” They struggle with that and say things like, “Ancient Egyptians passed the knowledge down from one generation to the next until today,” without any evidence to back up the statement. It can be difficult for students to develop a reasonable sense of how historians construct knowledge of the past, because the texts they read don’t usually talk about the process of developing evidence-based claims.

That’s why this text is so useful, because in the interview, Janet Johnson (the historian) makes claims about Ancient Egypt, but she also talks about the things that she does as a historian, and it’s easy to see the connection between her actions and her claims. For example, she says that she uncovered some ancient artifacts that were shards of pottery with writing on them. She translated the writing and found that Ancient Egyptians had written notes to themselves, like reminders or grocery lists, on broken shards of pottery, almost like scrap paper. Her actions (finding the artifacts, translating the language) naturally lead to her claim: Ancient Egyptians wrote notes on shards of broken pottery.]

- Look over list of claims the historian made and review the text to determine the author’s main claim. (D13-14.d)

[Teacher Comment: This is a really confusing prompt for students because the author is a journalist with an overarching argument who is using the historian’s claims to make her own interpretation. I purposely ask
this prompt, even though I know it’s going to throw them a little, because it gives us a good opportunity to have an explicit conversation about how we can identify the author’s main claim in an article like this. It is necessary to clearly delineate which claims are made by Janet Johnson (historian), and which claims are made by Dawn Turner Trice (journalist). Furthermore, it is also necessary to consider the fact that Dawn Turner Trice ultimately was the one to decide what would be published and what would not be published in the article. She most likely included some of Janet Johnson’s words and chose not to include others. So, taking that into consideration, even Janet Johnson’s words can be seen as representing Dawn Turner Trice’s main claim.

Also, students usually notice that the author’s main claim – that Ancient Egyptians’ lives were similar to ours – aligns with the types of claims they themselves are making from looking across sources and artifacts. If students don’t note this, I usually prompt them to compare the author’s claims to the claims they have collected in their charts.

Classroom Products:

- Group constructed notes on whiteboard during classroom discussion (D13-14.b, D13-14.c, D13-14.d)

- Sources Historians Use chart (Appendix A, pg. 14)

Day 15-17

Focus: Constructing a final argument about what life was like for ordinary people in Ancient Egypt

Texts:

- All texts read for this unit in students’ source file (D1-3.a, D1-3.b, D1-3.c, D4-5.a, D4-5.b, D6-10.a, D6-10.b, D6-10.c, D13-14.a)

Materials:

- Blank Claim-evidence-source charts (D4-5.c)

Activities:

- Look over all sources and notetakers from the unit and brainstorm a list of aspects of life. Sort aspects of life into social and economic categories (D15-17.a)

[Teacher Comment: I purposefully leave this activity open for students to brainstorm whatever aspects of life come to mind from the texts. Students will say a lot of things that overlap (i.e., farming, food) and I record all of their ideas. Then later we go through the list and cluster ideas together into categories. These categories can range from religion to survival to family to beauty, etc. I then introduce and define the terms social and economic and we put their generated categories in either of those buckets. I focus on these two interpretive frameworks because the text set lends itself to them and because they are frameworks that middle school students can understand. Just having students put things into these categories is a stepping stone to moving into using these frameworks as a basis for interpretation in later grades.]

- As a pre-writing activity, collect evidence in two claim-evidence-source charts, one for social and one for economic categories (D4-5.c)

- Draft, peer-edit, and revise essays to construct an argument addressing the second essential question.

Classroom Products:

- Group constructed notes on whiteboard during classroom discussion (D15-17.a)
Map of Ancient Egypt

History Alive! The Ancient World, published by Teacher's Curriculum Institute, page 69
Environmental Factors and Human Settlement in Egypt and Kush

Environmental factors in ancient Egypt and Kush greatly favored settlement near the Nile River. Most important, the Nile was a source of fresh water in an area that was mostly desert.

The lack of water in the deserts made them unfit for farming. But in the Nile River valley, the river provided natural irrigation and fertilization. Every summer, the river overflowed its banks. The floodwaters soaked the dry ground for several weeks. As the water level decreased, a thin layer of silt (very fine particles of rock) was left behind. This soil was perfect for farming.

Also, where there was fresh water, people were more likely to find fish to catch and animals to hunt. The abundant wildlife in the Nile region included fish, ducks, geese, hippos, crocodiles, giraffes, and ostriches.

The topography of the river valley also encouraged human settlement. In the south, parts of the Nile ran through narrow valleys between steep hills. But there were also wide, flat areas of land around deep bends in the river. These flat areas were good for farming. In the north, wide plains were watered by the Nile’s annual flooding.

Vegetation was rare in the dry deserts, but it was plentiful in the Nile River valley. Useful plants included reeds and a tough water plant called papyrus. People wove reeds into baskets, and roofs for their huts. Papyrus was used to make rope and paper. And the rich farmland was good for growing crops like wheat and barley.

Africa’s Nile River is the longest river in the world. It is more than 4,100 miles long and flows from south to north, emptying into the Mediterranean Sea.

Deserts are natural barriers against invaders. Would you spend days crossing this hot, dry desert to fight those who live on the other side?
THE GIFT OF THE NILE

In ancient times, there were actually two Egypt. Upper Egypt began at the cataracts, or rock-filled rapids in southern Egypt. Lower Egypt, to the north, included the lowlands of the Nile Delta.

Deserts! Cataracts! It might seem that geography was hard on Egypt. Actually, geography helped the Egyptians. First, the Nile River was a water “highway” for travel. Also, harsh deserts prevented attacks from the east or west.

The Annual Flood
The Nile River begins in the highlands of Africa, south of Egypt. Every summer heavy rains pour down on the highlands and run off into the Nile. The rainwaters carry off rich topsoil from the highlands. Nile floods carry this topsoil to Egypt each summer. The timing of the floods could be predicted, but the size of the floods could not. Some years, less rain meant smaller floods and less rich topsoil. Other years, heavy rains caused destructive floods. No wonder Hapi, the Nile god, and Khnum, the flood god, were two of the most important gods of ancient Egypt!

Using Mathematics
Each year, Nile floodwaters covered fields and villages. After floodwaters ran off, Egyptians had to figure out which farmer owned which land. The Egyptians used a kind of mathematics called geometry to locate each farmer’s field. You may be using geometry in your math classes today!

QUICK CHECK
Sequence Events Describe the series of events that happen when the Nile River floods.
Day 3: List of claims we can make about both essential questions

- Why did people settle in Ancient Egypt and why did life flourish there?
  - Soil was fertile for growing crops
  - Nile River provided fresh water
  - Nile River was used for transportation
  - Deserts protected from attacks
  - Annual flood removed topsoil which made land fertile

- What was life like for ordinary people in Ancient Egypt?
  - Had to find water and food to survive
  - Build huts for their homes; had roofs made of papyrus
  - Some people worshipped gods
  - Some years the flood was destructive
  - Size of floods were unpredictable
  - Used geometry to measure fields
  - Land ownership
  - Had lower and Upper Egypt
EGYPT’S ECONOMY

If someone offers you an ancient Egyptian coin, don’t take it! The ancient Egyptians had no coins. In fact, they had no money at all!

Although ancient Egyptians did not use money, Egypt had a strong economy. An economy is the way a country’s goods and services are produced and distributed. Most modern economies are a combination of agriculture and manufacturing.

Ancient Egypt’s long growing season led to an economy based on agriculture. Its major products were barley and emmer, a type of wheat. Egyptians were also experts in glassmaking, metalwork, and pottery.

Since ancient Egypt had no coins or money, Egyptians had to barter. You have already learned that barter means to trade goods without the use of money. An economy that does not use money is called a barter economy. Egyptians sent some of their extra crops to other countries and traded them for luxury goods and other products. Any additional crops and supplies were stored in large warehouses in case of need.

The pharaoh ordered a tax on everything made or grown in Egypt. Since Egyptians did not use money, the pharaoh collected a part of every farmer’s crops as a tax, as well as a portion of products such as leather goods, linen cloth, and baskets. The pharaoh’s taxes also included days of work. Almost all Egyptians worked on government building projects during the flood season.

QUICK CHECK

Cause and Effect What caused people to barter in ancient Egypt?
Life in Ancient Egypt

Connect to What You Know As you have seen, Egypt prospered along the Nile. This prosperity made life easier and provided greater opportunities for many Egyptians.

Work and Family Life

KEY QUESTION How did work and social roles affect people in ancient Egypt?

When farmers produce food surpluses, the society's economy begins to expand. Cities emerge as centers of culture and power, and people learn to do jobs that do not involve agriculture. For example, some ancient Egyptians learned to be scribes, people whose job was to write and keep records.

Specialized Jobs As Egyptian civilization grew more complex, people took on jobs other than that of a farmer or scribe. Some skilled artisans erected stone or brick houses and temples. Other artisans developed their own specializations. They made pottery, mats, furniture, linen clothing, sandals, or jewelry.

A few Egyptians traveled to the upper Nile to trade with other Africans. These traders took Egyptian products such as scrolls, linen, gold, and jewelry. They brought back exotic woods, animal skins, and live beasts.
**Rulers and Priests** As Egypt grew, so did its need to organize. Egyptians created a government that divided the empire into 42 provinces. Many officials worked to keep the provinces running smoothly. Egypt also created an army to defend itself.

One of the highest jobs in Egypt was to be a priest. Priests followed formal **rituals** and took care of the temples. Before entering a temple, a priest bathed and put on special linen garments and white sandals. Priests cleaned the sacred statues in temples, changed their clothes, and even fed them meals.

**Egyptian Social Roles**

1. **Pharaoh** The ruler, or pharaoh, was considered a god.
2. **Priests and Nobles** These powerful people were in charge of the religion and government.
3. **Scribes and Government Officials** Together they organized the government and kept it running.
4. **Craftspeople and Merchants** They produced and sold goods Egyptians needed.
5. **Farmers** The farmers worked the fields to supply Egypt with food and other useful crops.
6. **Laborers and Slaves** These people did all of the most difficult and dangerous work for Egyptian society.

**Critical Thinking**

Interpret Charts
At what level of the pyramid is most of the hard physical labor done? Why?
Together, the priests and the ruler held ceremonies to please the gods. Egyptians believed that if the gods were angry, the Nile would not flood. As a result, crops would not grow, and people would die. So the ruler and the priests tried hard to keep the gods satisfied. By doing so, they hoped to maintain the social and political order.

**Slaves** Slaves were at the bottom of society. In Egypt, most of the slaves were captured in war. Some were captured soldiers, and others were just unlucky enough to be on the losing side.

Many of these enslaved people worked on public building projects, such as pyramids or temples. As difficult as this work was, it was preferable to working in the mines and quarries of the Eastern Desert and the Sinai. Assignment to these work sites was often a one-way trip. Shortages of slave labor were remedied quickly and cruelly. For instance, when the pharaoh Ramses II needed more labor for one of his major building projects, he sent soldiers into the Western Desert to kidnap Libyans. (You’ll read more about Ramses in Section 4.)

Slaves who were domestic servants were comparatively lucky. They worked in less dangerous circumstances, lived in more comfortable housing, and ate more and better food. They could also rise to fairly important, trusted positions within the household.

**Women and Children** Egypt was one of the best places in the ancient world to be a woman. Unlike other ancient African cultures, in Egyptian society men and women had fairly equal rights. For example, they could both own and manage their own property.

The main job of most women was to care for their children and home, but some did other jobs too. Some women wove cloth. Others worked with their husbands in fields or workshops.

Children in Egypt played with toys such as dolls, animal figures, board games, and marbles. Their parents made the toys from wood or clay. Boys and girls also played rough physical games with balls made of leather or reeds. Boys and some girls from wealthy families went to schools run by scribes or priests. Most other children learned their parents’ jobs. Almost all Egyptians married in their early teens.

**Pets** Ancient Egyptians kept many different kinds of pets. Dogs were kept to take on hunting trips, as they sometimes are today. There was also a popular breed (resembling a dachshund) that was more of a lapdog. The cat, however, was the most favored pet. There was even a cat goddess, Bastet. The Egyptian word for cat was miu, after the sound a cat makes.

**DRAW CONCLUSIONS** Explain the roles of people at different levels of ancient Egyptian society.
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from “Hymn to the Nile” (c 2100 BCE)

Praise to thee, O Nile, that issueth forth from the earth and cometh to nourish the dwellers in Egypt . . .
That maketh barley and createth wheat, that maketh the temples to keep festival . . .

When he arises earth rejoices and all men are glad; every jaw laughs and every tooth is uncovered. Bringer of nourishment, plenteous of sustenance, creating all things good.

Lord of reverence, sweet of savour, appeasing evil. Creating herbage for the cattle, causing sacrifice to be made to every god.

He is in the Underworld, in heaven, and upon earth, Filling the barns and widening the granaries; giving to the poor. Causing trees to grow according to the uttermost desire, So that men go not in lack of them.

Source:
Advice to the Young Egyptian: “Be A Scribe”
from Worlds of History: A Comparative Reader: Volume One, by Kevin Reilly, pages 62-65

The cobbler mingles with vats. His odor is penetrating. His hands are red with madder, like one who is smeared with blood. He looks behind him for the kite, like one whose flesh is exposed.

The watchman prepares garlands and polishes vase-stands. He spends a night of toil just as one on whom the sun shines.

The merchants travel downstream and upstream. They are as busy as can be, carrying goods from one town to another. They supply him who has wants. But the tax collectors carry off the gold, that most precious of metals.

The ships’ crews from every house (of commerce), they receive their loads. They depart from Egypt for Syria, and each man’s god is with him. (But) not one of them says: “We shall see Egypt again!”

The carpenter who is in the shipyard carries the timber and stacks it. If he gives today the output of yesterday, woe to his limbs! The shipwright stands behind him to tell him evil things.

His outworker who is in the fields, his is the toughest of all the jobs. He spends the day loaded with his tools, tied to his tool-box. When he returns home at night, he is loaded with the tool-box and the timbers, his drinking mug, and his whetstones.

The scribe, he alone, records the output of all of them. Take note of it!

The Misfortunes of the Peasant

Let me also expound to you the situation of the peasant, that other tough occupation. [Comes] the inundation and soaks him... he attends to his equipment. By day he cuts his farming tools; by night he twists rope. Even his midday hour he spends on farm labor. He equips himself to go to the field as if he were a warrior. The dried field lies before him; he goes out to get his team. When he has been after the herdsman for many days, he gets his team and comes back with it. He makes for it a place in the field. Comes dawn, he goes to make a start and does not find it in its place. He spends three days searching for it; he finds it in the bog. He finds no hides on them; the jackals have chewed them. He comes out, his garment in his hand, to beg for himself a team.

When he reaches his field he finds [it] “broken up.” He spends time cultivating, and the snake is after him. It finishes off the seed as it is cast to the ground. He does not see a green blade. He does three plowings with borrowed grain. His wife has gone down to the merchants and found nothing for “barter.” Now the scribe lands on the shore. He surveys the harvest. Attendants are behind him with staffs,
Nubians with clubs. One says (to him): “Give grain.” “There is none.” He is beaten savagely. He is bound, thrown in the well, submerged head down. His wife is bound in his presence. His children are in fetters. His neighbors abandon them and flee. When it’s over, there’s no grain.

If you have any sense, be a scribe. If you have learned about the peasant, you will not be able to be one. Take note of it!

Be a Scribe

The scribe of the army and commander of the cattle of the house of Amun, Nebmare-nakht, speaks to the scribe Wenemdiamun, as follows. Be a scribe! Your body will be sleek; your hand will be soft. You will not flicker like a flame, like one whose body is feeble. For there is not the bone of a man in you. You are tall and thin. If you lifted a load to carry it, you would stagger, your legs would tremble. You are lacking in strength; you are weak in all your limbs; you are poor in body.

Set your sight on being a scribe; a fine profession that suits you. You call for one; a thousand answer you. You stride freely on the road. You will not be like a hired ox. You are in front of others.

I spend the day instructing you. You do not listen! Your heart is like an [empty] room. My teachings are not in it. Take their [“meaning”] to yourself!

The marsh thicket is before you each day, as a nestling is after its mother. You follow the path of pleasure; you make friends with revelers. You have made your home in the brewery, as one who thirsts for beer. You sit in the parlor with an idler. You hold the writings in contempt. You visit the whore. Do not do these things! What are they for? They are of no use. Take note of it!

The Scribe Does Not Suffer Like the Soldier

Furthermore, look, I instruct you to make you sound; to make you hold the palette freely. To make you become one whom the king trusts; to make you gain entrance to treasury and granary. To make you receive the shipload at the gate of the granary. To make you issue the offerings on feast days. You are dressed in fine clothes; you own horses. Your boat is on the river; you are supplied with attendants. You stride about inspecting. A mansion is built in your town. You have a powerful office, given you by the king. Male and female slaves are about you.
Those who are in the fields grasp your hand, on plots that you have made. Look, I make you into a staff of life! Put the writings in your heart, and you will be protected from all kinds of toil. You will become a worthy official.

Do you not recall the (fate of) the unskilled man? His name is not known. He is ever burdened [like an ass carrying] in front of the scribe who knows what he is about.

Come, let me tell you the woes of the soldier, and how many are his superiors: the general, the troop-commander, the officer who leads, the standard-bearer, the lieutenant, the scribe, the commander of fifty, and the garrison-captain. They go in and out in the halls of the palace, saying: “Get laborers!” He is awakened at any hour. One is after him as (after) a donkey. He toils until the Aten sets in his darkness of night. He is hungry, his belly hurts; he is dead while yet alive. When he receives the grain-ration, having been released from duty, it is not good for grinding.

He is called up for Syria. He may not rest. There are no clothes, no sandals. The weapons of war are assembled at the fortress of Sile. His march is uphill through mountains. He drinks water every third day; it is smelly and tastes of salt. His body is ravaged by illness. The enemy comes, surrounds him with missiles, and life recedes from him. He is told: “Quick, forward, valiant soldier! Win for yourself a good name!” He does not know what he is about. His body is weak, his legs fail him. When victory is won, the captives are handed over to his majesty, to be taken to Egypt. The foreign woman faints on the march; she hangs herself [on] the soldier’s neck. His knapsack drops, another grabs it while he is burdened with the woman. His wife and children are in their village; he dies and does not reach it. If he comes out alive, he is worn out from marching. Be he at large, be he detained, the soldier suffers. If he leaps and joins the deserters, all his people are imprisoned. He dies on the edge of the desert, and there is none to perpetuate his name. He suffers in death as in life. A big sack is brought for him; he does not know his resting place.

Be a scribe, and be spared from soldiering! You call and one says: “Here I am.” You are safe from torments. Every man seeks to raise himself up. Take note of it!

THE LIFE OF MERESAMUN
A TEMPLE SINGER IN ANCIENT EGYPT

edited by

EMILY TEETER and JANET H. JOHNSON

THE ORIENTAL INSTITUTE MUSEUM PUBLICATIONS • NUMBER 29
THE ORIENTAL INSTITUTE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
Group constructed notes on whiteboard during sourcing discussion about Hymn to the Nile

Hymn to the Nile

Ancient Egyptian priest - 0
Ancient Egyptian person - 6
Oliver J. Thatcher - 24
King or god - 0

1901 - 20
C. 2100 BC - 10

What type of text is this? college textbook

Group constructed notes on whiteboard during sourcing discussion about Advice to Young Egyptians

Who wrote this? Kevin Reilly

agriculture
B.C.E.
B.C.
papyri
papyrus

When was it written?
1916
maybe another time (B.C.)
modern times

What type of text is this?
a book
an article
Ancient Egyptian literature
textbook
print text/informational text
Group constructed notes on whiteboard during discussion about the second essential question while reading The Life of Meresamun

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLAIMS</th>
<th>EVIDENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They had coffins.</td>
<td>The article states that these artifacts exist.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They had mummies.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some Egyptian temples had singers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They had kings, governors, mayors, and high priests.</td>
<td>&quot;Other women who had this title...&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There were types of coffins for the wealthy.</td>
<td>quoted part</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People had specific jobs.</td>
<td>&quot;This type of coffin indicates... wealthy family.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They had temples.</td>
<td>&quot;Meresamun—making coffins&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Singer in the... temple&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Language offers rare insight into ancient Egyptians

October 22, 2012 | Dawn Turner Trice

Long before Facebook posts and tweets, long before letters with postage stamps, ancient middle and upper-middle-class Egyptians scrawled notes on pieces of clay pots and handed them to children who ran across the village to deliver the messages.

The language these Egyptians used from about 700 B.C. to A.D. 300 is called demotic Egyptian — from the Greek demos, meaning tongue of the common man — and was written in a cursive script during the same period when hieroglyphs were being used to memorialize pharaohs on monuments.

University of Chicago scholar Janet Johnson recently completed a 37-year project compiling the Chicago Demotic Dictionary, which has tens of thousands of words, some of which became "ebony," "adobe" and the name "Susan," surviving the trek across several centuries and cultures.

During Johnson’s research, she and her team found documents and artifacts whose words offer a rare glimpse into the lives of Egyptians who weren’t pharaohs, but were fairly well-to-do.

What I found interesting was that these people weren’t so different from folks today. For
For example, they paid taxes and stored receipts written on limestone chunks in their basements. Sound familiar?

Among the items studied were marriage contracts that resembled modern-day prenuptial agreements; notes that showed early animal rights activism; and documents detailing Dale Carnegie-like classes that taught young men, in essence, how to win friends and influence people.

"We're seeing the personal side of Egyptians, and that's hard to see when you're looking at the pyramids and tombs and monuments," said Johnson, 67, a professor of Egyptology at the university's Oriental Institute. "We're getting the nitty-gritty things that make people more real."

The dictionary includes vowel-free words that flourished during a 1,000-year period spanning the rise and fall of the Persian Empire and rulers such as Alexander the Great, Ptolemy, Cleopatra and eventually the Roman Empire, beginning with Augustus Caesar.

Like the Oxford English Dictionary, the demotic dictionary gives researchers definitions, shows word uses and helps with translating texts. But it also serves as a reference guide for reconstructing and understanding ancient Egyptian culture, whether it's the nuances of government, commerce, politics, religion or male-female relationships.

While in graduate school in the 1970s, Johnson began the project using as a springboard a 700-page demotic glossary published in 1954. Her new version is an updated 4,500-page volume that is now only available free online (www.oi.uchicago.edu). She said it eventually will be published in book form by the University of Chicago Press.

Johnson said the Egyptians, who gave up demotic for Coptic and then Arabic, left behind mountains of material. She found letters that detailed a fight between two factions of priests who were warring during the Ptolemy period over who would control a shrine.

Other documents included marriage contracts. Johnson said that upper-middle-class Egyptian women often entered marriage on an even playing field with their betrothed.

"They had documents that not only guaranteed the husband would feed and clothe his wife and their children, but spelled out the amount of food and clothing," Johnson said. The contracts "also said that, in less wealthy families, the husband would keep providing for his wife no matter where she was living until she requested out of the marriage." And then, he had to pay her to get out.

There was even a consideration for joint property. Husbands got two-thirds of the property, and wives got a third. Johnson said it wasn't clear whether women had to prove their worth by first producing a child.

Upper-middle-class Egyptians used expensive papyrus primarily for important documents such as marriage contracts. But more mundane notes and texts, such as grocery lists and correspondence between neighbors, were drafted on fragments of pottery, or on limestone, called ostracon.

Johnson said a note on ostracon from an early animal activist was found near Cairo.

"The man, whose name was Hor, worked in an area where animals were used as sacred offerings to one of the deities," Johnson said. "He felt the animals weren't getting proper care, so he took notes and started a petition."

One tradition in ancient Egyptian culture was to have schoolboys copy texts that explained how they should lead their lives and negotiate relationships to get ahead. The boys were being trained to become professional scribes who worked in the temples and in government administration.

"The training might say something like, 'Don't talk at the dinner table until your boss addresses you,'" Johnson said. "Or, 'Respect women and do not try to move into their territory.' Another text might say, 'Don't tell your wife how to handle the house.'"
During the Ptolemaic period, some of the texts reflected the Egyptian traditions and culture clashes related to Greek immigrants. This was especially clear in families created from intercultural unions.

"Among Egyptians, the roles of men and women were different, but they were pretty equal," Johnson said. "But in Greek culture, women were more inferior. It's fascinating to understand how they, like people today, struggled with issues of identity."

She said that years from now, scholars trying to understand any of us in the 21st century world won't have a lot of hard copy available because we do so much on electronic devices. It will be more difficult for our words to reveal us.

"In the old days, when I wrote a paper, I would type it up and then mark it up and retype it," Johnson said. "But nowadays we keep it all on the computer and delete earlier versions."

dtrice@tribune.com
Group constructed notes on whiteboard during classroom discussion about sourcing newspaper article
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Historian's Actions</th>
<th>Historian's Claims</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- compiled a demotic dictionary over 37 years</td>
<td>- 700 B.C. to A.D. 300 Egyptians used demotic Egyptian language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- focused on the personal side of Ancient Egypt</td>
<td>- They used kids as messengers and they wrote messages on clay (ostraca)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- J.J. went to graduate school and started a project there</td>
<td>- They paid taxes and stored receipts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- J.J. made a small dictionary, then a larger dictionary.</td>
<td>- They had marriage contracts and clothes wives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- J.J. read marriage contracts.</td>
<td>- Husbands got more property than wives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- J.J. found letters and artifacts (clay pots)</td>
<td>- Women entered marriage equal to their husbands.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Group constructed chart about historian’s actions and claims
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Claim</th>
<th>Evidence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Egyptians’ lives were similar to ours in some ways.</td>
<td>marriage contracts, grocery lists, paying taxes, storing receipts, sending messages, husbands took care of families (child support), basements, taught young men manners.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ESSAY: Describe and explain several multiple sources.

ASPECTS OF LIFE: trade

- cooking
- pharaohs
- economy
- rights
- pyramids

- family
- government (tax)
- language
- jobs - messengers
- natural resources
- education
- religious ceremonies
- death rituals (coffins)
- writing

politics
- clothing
- homes
- religion/gods
- culture
- farming
- land
- the Nile
- survival

Group constructed notes on whiteboard during classroom pre-writing brainstorming about aspects of life
SCAFFOLDS FOR MIDDLE SCHOOL
HISTORICAL INQUIRY MODULES

Historical inquiry means close reading of multiple sources, both primary and secondary, to construct evidence-based interpretations about the past. Close reading in history involves detailed, careful analysis of sources to make sense of the past through practices such as sourcing, corroboration, and contextualization. It involves comparing and contrasting key historical details within and across sources while considering how the context and the source information (i.e. author, date, audience) play a role in shaping the narrative. To support students in constructing their own evidence-based interpretations of the past, I design units that center on an addressing an overarching essential question through close reading and discussion of a carefully constructed text set. I work to establish routines of making our thinking visible through close reading and annotation routines. I build in supports to move students to independently draw conclusions about the topic of inquiry by to habitually interrogate sources and making claims based on reasoning through what textual evidence best supports their argument.

This document breaks down some of the steps of this process. The sections of this document are not necessarily meant to be read in order or to imply a sequential process of designing and implementing these units. Rather, it is meant to complement the module materials by providing a more thorough explanation of how I establish routines, how I incrementally support middle schoolers’ historical thinking, what guides some of my decisions, etc.

Designing modules
While planning throughout the year, I center units around essential questions that give students something thought-provoking/challenging that supports their historical thinking. I carefully choose a text set for each unit that provides students with much evidence related to the essential questions, so students will be able to have text-based discussions. Determining the essential question(s) is an iterative process of considering the interrelation between the historical content, available sources, and learning objectives. It is a constant back and forth process of “testing” out various versions of questions with multiple combinations of sources and determining the affordances of each source for addressing the question. I revise the question depending on the historical information available in the sources and the specific historical inquiry practices to which the sources lend themselves in relation to what the students know and are able to do at that time of year. I also play around with adding or removing sources to construct a text set in consideration of the following criteria:

- The text set as a whole should offer answers to the essential question. Whenever possible, there should be more than one answer to the essential question that could be given based on evidence from the text set, so students will have to grapple with which is best.
- Texts in the set should “talk to each other.” In other words, the texts, when read together, should provide opportunities for discussions. There should be places where the various sources agree, disagree, provide diverse opinions and perspectives, show evidence of various biases, etc.
• The text set should include various types of texts (primary, secondary, visual, print, multimedia, etc.)
• Texts should afford opportunities to move students toward deeper historical thinking.

When I’m thinking about how to sequence texts within a module, I like to sequence them in such a way that I can create a sense of inquiry that isn’t teacher-directed, but is derived from students’ experiences while reading the texts. For example, I may choose a text to be the first one that students read knowing that, with the right prompting from me, I can almost certainly get them to ask a specific question. When they do, I will record this question on our question chart, and instead of answering it, I will invite students to look for an answer to that question throughout the module as we keep looking at new sources. Then I’ll sequence the reading experience so that students will later read a source that answers that exact question, so they can “find” the answer. I do this in the Egypt unit when I begin with a map that shows that all of the biggest cities in Ancient Egypt were within the annual flood plains. Without fail, students always ask, “Why would anyone build a city in a place where it floods every year?” Soon after, I have students read a text which explains the benefits of the annual flooding, and students easily recognize when they have found the answer to their own question.

When I’m planning a module, I plan a culminating task that will allow students to address the essential question. Knowing from the beginning that they will be required to produce some kind of evidence for their answer to the question gives students an incentive to track the question closely throughout the module. Often the culminating task is an essay, and I emphasize to students that this is usually how historians present their arguments about history, in writing. Sometimes I like to give students alternative ways to show their thinking, like creating causal maps that answer the essential question in graphic form.

Unpacking (READI) Learning Goals
At the beginning of the year, I post the 6 READI History Learning goals prominently on the wall in student-friendly language. In the first few weeks of school, I ask students to read one at a time and unpack what meaning they can find in the goal statement. For some of the goals, students don’t understand much at first because they don’t yet know the specialized vocabulary (i.e. contextualization, corroboration, sourcing, frameworks, etc.) but they at least are aware of what parts they understand and what parts they don’t. Gradually, as I introduce, teach, and model components of the learning goals, I point students back to the learning goal statements and they begin to internalize them. During the first few weeks, each time I give the objective for the lesson, I show students which learning goals align with the objective. Then I start showing students the objective, and ask them to talk to a partner and share out about which learning goals relate.

Unpacking Essential Questions
At the beginning of a new unit, I introduce students to the essential questions for that unit and, instead of explaining it to them, I ask students to unpack the questions. What I mean by “unpack” is to thoroughly break down the meaning of each component of the question. I ask students to first think and annotate, then share with their partner and whole group, and I prompt them with questions like: What is the question asking? Can you say it in your own words? Are there any words I don’t understand in the question? What kinds of evidence would I need to find
to support an answer to this question? The point of this activity is to help students internalize the questions so they will attend to them while they are reading.

**Close Reading Annotation Cycle**

For each unit I regularly engage students in cycles of close reading and annotating of primary and secondary sources from the unit’s text set to support their historical inquiry. This involves a succession of reading and annotating portions of a text individually, sharing thinking with partners about the text, discussing as a whole group, and then repeating the cycle. I set a variety of purposes for reading each text depending on the intended learning goal and what students need at the time (see “Reading for Multiple Purposes” section).

At the very beginning of the year, I usually encourage students to share all types of sense making during the close reading cycle - from identifying words they don’t understand in the text and making personal connections to asking questions about the historical context - to get students comfortable sharing and to build a culture of collaborative inquiry. Over time I build in supports to move students to delving into texts from a historical inquiry stance through modeling and establishing routines of sourcing, corroboration, and contextualization. Throughout the year, as students learn to habitually engage in historical inquiry practices, I also continue to support general/literal sense-making through the close reading cycle. I purposefully interleave historical practices and general literacy skills to support students of varying reading levels and to promote the close reading of texts that are increasingly complex as the year progresses. Texts can increase in complexity in multiple ways, from containing more difficult language and syntax as well as representing more complex historical concepts.

The close reading cycle begins with individual, silent close reading of a short section of the text (a designated chunk of the text) with annotations, such as previewing the source information before reading a poem/hymn from ancient Egypt or reading the first paragraph of a textbook excerpt about the Egyptian social pyramid. I usually set multiple purposes for each section of reading, from addressing the essential question to asking our own questions about the historical context (see “Reading for Multiple Purposes” section). I try to limit the time for this individual reading to no more than two minutes, because reading independently for long periods of time can be frustrating and overwhelming for students who are not confident in their reading abilities or students who find it difficult to sustain mental focus. Also, it is useful to stop periodically and make collective sense of what we are reading before moving on. After silent independent close reading, I invite students to move into partner conversations. I encourage students to share with their partner their experience with the text, whether it be things they understood, things they found confusing, words they didn’t know, connections they made to other texts or historical constructs, insights about the overarching essential question, questions they had, etc. Finally, I invite students to share-out with the whole group some of their experiences with the reading or some of the ideas that stood out as significant in their partner conversations. After this discussion, we choose another short section of the text and repeat the cycle.

Each part of the close reading cycle requires a lot of explicit teaching, modeling, and encouragement from me, especially early in the year. For the silent, independent reading phase, I watch for students who are getting frustrated and try to intervene early to keep them from forming negative associations with this step. If a student is doodling, or staring at the ceiling, or
seems to be getting agitated, I lean close and, in a whisper, remind the student that for this part of the cycle, it’s okay if you don’t understand every word, and it’s alright if you just work on figuring out a word or two or even just studying the pictures to make meaning from them. I remind the student that he will be sharing with a partner soon, and all he has to do is tell “his experience with the text,” whatever that may be. I also say to the student, “I wouldn’t ever ask you to sit and read a really hard text all by yourself for an hour. I’m just asking you to do what you can on your own for one minute. After that, you know that you’ll start to gain even more understanding by talking with your partner and even more understanding by talking with the whole group, so you are just getting started on your own.” Once I’ve delivered this speech, I watch for even the tiniest bit of evidence that this student is trying to make sense of the text independently, and I reinforce this positively. I might point to a student’s annotations and whisper, “This is really interesting thinking, and I hope you’ll raise your hand and share it with the class.” Or I may ask the student if I can put his annotations on the document camera as an example for the other students.

For the partner conversations, I spend time at the beginning of the year teaching, modeling, and reteaching/remodeling the behaviors and attitudes for successful partner conversations. This includes things like making sure both partners have a turn to speak, looking at your partner when he/she speaks, sharing your thinking naturally like a conversation instead of just reading annotations from your page. I observe students during partner conversations and notice behaviors that I want to highlight as exemplary (i.e. repeating back what a classmate said to make sure you understand him correctly) or behaviors I want students to avoid (i.e. dominating conversations, interrupting, belittling others’ ideas). For the positive behaviors, I praise students publicly, but for the negative behaviors, I address them anonymously by saying something like, “I’m noticing that some of you are occasionally forgetting to look at your partner while he/she is speaking. How does it feel when you are sharing your thinking and your partner is looking away? Why do you think it’s important that we look at the speaker while we are talking with a partner?” Sometimes I model what to do/what not to do so students learn a principle of respectful partner conversation from the example and the non-example. For example, I may act out active listening body language (slight lean toward speaker, sustained eye contact, slight nodding of the head at key points, etc.) and then act out the opposite (slouching or leaning away from speaker, gaze not focused on speaker, etc.) and ask students, “Which partner would you rather share your ideas with? Why? What is this partner communicating non-verbally?”

Regarding partner groupings, I try to change up my methods of grouping students throughout the year. Sometimes I strategically partner students heterogeneously (a more proficient reader with a less proficient reader), knowing that both students will benefit from the conversation (one will gain deeper insights from explaining, the other will gain knowledge from hearing explanations). Sometimes I pair students so that they can use their native language as well as English to explain their thinking if that is more comfortable for them. Sometimes I allow students to choose their own partners. I try to sometimes have students stand up and walk around the room to find a new person to speak to during the partner talk phase of the close reading cycle.

For the third phase of the close reading cycle, whole group discussion, I facilitate to help students surface key parts of their reading experience with this section of the text. I maintain focus by introducing specific purposes for reading, but also allow flexibility for the
conversations to reflect students’ unique experiences. (See other sections of this document, such as “Facilitating Inquiry Discussions” and “Reading for Multiple Purposes” sections for more details.

**Annotations**

Early in the year, I find it is important to invest students in the value of using annotations while closely reading historical texts. I use annotations as a way to make our historical thinking visible. I model historical thinking through my annotations on the document camera throughout the year, progressing the focus and complexity of my thinking over time (i.e. xx). I use students’ annotations as formative assessment of their historical thinking and as a way to support collaborative inquiry (i.e. encouraging students to use their annotations to guide their partner and whole group conversations).

Often students come to my class with preconceived ideas about annotations. I usually ask in the first few days of school if students like annotations or find them helpful, and most of my students say they do not like them or don’t find them helpful. When I ask them why, they often say that it feels tedious or it slows down the reading process. They don’t like having to worry about what the teacher is looking for, or wonder how many annotations they need to prove that they have read and get 100% on the assignment.

I try to affirm students’ feelings about annotations-as-a-teacher-task, and I tell them, “If I’m lying on the couch on a Saturday afternoon, lost in the pages of a Harry Potter novel, I don’t get out my post-its and write down my personal connections, and I would hate it if someone forced me to do that.” I then try to make a case for when annotations can be valuable. I say something like, “There are times, though, when I use annotations, not because someone tells me to, but because they support me as a reader. (And I’m a pretty good reader; I’ve made it through college and graduate school, which required a lot of reading.) I find it helpful to use annotations when I’m reading something that is really, really challenging for me. When I’m reading something very technical from a field that I’m not very familiar with, such as physics, or philosophy, I read the same paragraph over and over again, and I’m still not sure what it means. In those times, annotations help me to keep track of the sense I am making of the text, and also help me to keep notes in the places where I don’t understand. Sometimes I go back and read my annotations later to remind myself what things in the text mean or how I was interpreting information in the text at that time. Another time when I use annotations is when I know that I’m going to have to talk about what I’m reading with other people. Like I’ve been in Book Clubs before, where I read a chapter and then meet with other people to talk about it. I use more annotations then, because I know that the notes I write down will help me to remember the things I want to bring up in the conversations with other people. In that case, my annotations are really not primarily about making sense of the text, but more about helping me to share my thoughts with the community.” By sharing those real-life examples, I try to encourage students to disconnect from their previous experiences with annotations and use the strategy when they find it helpful to either unpack a challenging section of a text, or to prepare thoughts to share in class discussions.

Another way I work to invest students in the value of annotations is to highlight examples of interesting annotations early in the year. For example, I look for students who are showing their
sense making in their annotations, or demonstrating the use of strategies that I hope other
students will use, or showing evidence of sourcing, corroboration, contextualization or other
historical practices, and I ask them if I can put their paper on the document camera to show
everyone how their annotations support them in the inquiry. Basically, I highlight any kind of
thinking that I hope students will imitate. Sometimes I do this specifically just to boost the
confidence of a struggling reader to send a message that I value the work they are doing to make
sense of difficult text and that it is worth sharing with others. Other times I do this when I want
to reinforce specific historical practices such as attending to the source information of a text.
When I’m doing think-alouds, I am always strategic in planning to model annotations on the
document camera, hoping that students will imitate what they see me do there. I have noticed
changes in students’ annotations based on what I have modeled. At the very beginning of the
year I may intentionally focus my annotations more on making sense of the text, such as defining
words or summarizing a difficult part. As the year progresses, I strategically model annotations
that represent important historical ways of thinking, such as circling the date of the document
and writing my thoughts about how the date might impact the author’s interpretation of the
event, or highlighting information in one text and noting how it corroborates with information in
another text we read.

Later in the year, I may occasionally give students tasks in which the annotations are graded
using an annotations rubric that emphasizes showing meaning making and historical thinking.
For example, after teaching students about sourcing, I may give a kind of assessment in which I
tell students that I will be giving them a grade for showing the thinking they are doing about
sourcing the document through their annotations. I encourage students to show as much thinking
as possible to demonstrate how they source a text. When I do this, I encourage students to use
their own style, and never try to standardize the process (i.e. “Write a question mark next to
words you don’t understand.”) because I want them to think of their own annotation style as very
personal.

In general, though, I avoid mandating annotations or making it punitive if students don’t
annotate. Instead, I encourage the use of the strategy by praising and highlighting students’
attempts to use it.

**Reading for multiple purposes**

I like to give students lots of different “entry points” into the daily close reading sessions, so I
offer various purposes for reading. This is a kind of built-in differentiation for everyone, because
students who struggle with the reading may find it only possible to attend to one purpose (which
may just be decoding words or phrases) while more proficient readers may find that they can
simultaneously read for a variety of purposes. When I introduce students to a new text, I then
share some possible purposes for which students may read. For example, on a given day I may
say, “Today, as you are reading, be prepared to share with your partner or with our group
anything at all about your experience with this text. You might notice something that helps you
answer one of our essential questions, or you might find an answer to one of the questions on our
questions chart. You might find yourself asking a new question, which would be great to share
with the class, too, so we can add it to our list of questions.” As I’m listing these purposes, I
move around the room and point to the various charts and spaces on the board for notetaking for
each of these purposes, so that students have a visual reminder of the purposes as they read. (I
try to keep these locations in the room as consistent as possible, so students connect that space with that purpose.) When I first started engaging students in close reading for multiple purposes, I was skeptical, thinking that they would be overwhelmed. But in fact, I’ve been astounded at how many purposes students can track simultaneously.

When we read for multiple purposes, I try to maintain a balance between allowing students to guide the discussion with their own authentic reading experiences, and also making sure that the discussion continues moving in a direction that achieves the day’s objective. If discussions start focusing on tangents, I need to be prepared to gently redirect students by reminding them of our primary purposes for the day’s lesson. For instance, if students ask a question that isn’t necessarily “answerable” from information in the text we are reading (i.e. xx), I guide students in determining whether there is evidence in this text or other texts we’ve read so far to answer the question. If there isn’t, I usually write the question on the History Questions Chart and advise students to look out for information to answer it in the texts we encounter moving forward. I have found this approach serves to honor students’ questions and motivate them to read further, while at the same time it reinforces the historical practice of relying on textual evidence to construct claims rather than making conjectures based on lack of information).

Although I try to be flexible enough to let the reading experience feel “owned” by students. I am very intentional about the purposes I introduce for each lesson. I think long-term about the kind of thinking I want to see students doing while reading, and I plan to move them toward that. For example, at the beginning of the year I might focus more on reading strategies to get students comfortable with making their thinking visible, but at the end of the year we rarely mention general reading strategies and focus more on historical thinking. Also, the purposes for reading might be dictated by the affordances of a text. When I closely read the text in preparation for instruction, I think about what students might struggle with in a text or what opportunities for historical thinking it presents, and I design the purposes to elicit that thinking. For instance, when we read Mrs. O’Leary’s testimony in the Chicago Fire unit, the text affords consideration of how the source information shapes our interpretation of the document. The text is a testimony from the primary suspect under oath who was an Irish woman during a time period of anti-Irish immigrant sentiment in the U.S. Thus, I make sure to focus on sourcing and contextualizing as primary purposes for closely reading that particular source (in addition to other relevant purposes, such as answering the essential question).

**Whole Group Inquiry Discussions**

I try to make discussion a regular part of every day instead of a special event that happens infrequently. Discussions usually occur within the close reading annotation cycle, where students have regular opportunities to first read silently and independently for a short time and then discuss their historical sense-making process with a partner and then whole group (see “Close Reading Cycle” section).

Before instruction and throughout the year, I look for opportunities to celebrate and highlight student contributions to discussions that are exemplars of respectful behavior, risk-taking, initiative, out-of-the-box thinking, etc. (Any attitude or behavior that I want to see, I look for students to do this and make a big deal out of it when it happens!) Conversely, I stay on the
lookout for students who seem hesitant or anxious about participating in discussions to provide extra support and encouragement, and praise them liberally and publicly when they take risks!

While planning beginning of year lessons (introducing routines, procedures, etc.) I am mindful and intentional about also planning community building/bonding experiences that will give students opportunities to take small risks and develop a beginning level of trust in the learning community. I lead students in conversation about what builds trust and what breaks down trust in groups, and the ideas generated in that conversation become the key components of co-constructed classroom norms that we post in the classroom for the rest of the year to establish norms and expectations for speaking and listening in class. Just because we establish these norms early on, doesn’t mean that students grasp them or consistently follow them. They need lots of opportunities to practice and evaluate their own progress toward maintaining these norms and expectations. In these discussions of norms, I look for opportunities to normalize struggle and make it okay to not know something or to share an idea in discussion that later turns out to be unfounded. I have to explicitly communicate to students that we are striving to have conversations that center on grappling, rather than clear-cut correct answers, and then model in my facilitation of discussion that I value that kind of communication.

To reinforce the historical practice of basing interpretations on evidence within and across sources, I use prompts in discussions that probe for evidence and reasoning (i.e. “what in the text makes you say that?”), but I also talk explicitly with students about the goal that they will eventually prompt each other for evidence and reasoning. I teach and model ways that students can probe for evidence and reasoning, and allow opportunities for them to do this. For example, if a student makes a statement without providing evidence, instead of saying, “How did you know that?” I would say, “Would anyone like to respond to Javier’s statement?” to allow students to notice that he hasn’t provided evidence and challenge him to do so.

I introduce routine sentence stems for how to respond to classmate (i.e. “I would like to respond to what ___ said about ___.”). I teach and model each. I give students opportunities to practice and engage in conversation about the utility (and limits) of each. I also introduce students to supportive structures and routines in the classroom that will be consistent daily. For example, I let students know that whenever they discuss, I will keep a visual record of the points raised in discussion on a certain spot on the board. During whole group discussions, I find that keeping a visual record of discussion on the white board as students talk supports students in following the key points of the discussion. When I’m introducing the purposes for reading, I create designated spaces on the whiteboard for each purpose, and when students share-out in whole group, I try to capture the key ideas in phrases on the whiteboard. This supports students who may not hear their classmates, or it may help students gain deeper understanding by reading the words while also hearing them spoken aloud. It helps us all to track what has been said and what has not yet been said in a discussion. We often review what has been recorded to make collective conclusions about what ideas are more likely, what ideas have the most evidential support, etc. We may look over the arguments listed on the board and cross out claims that are not supported by evidence and reasoning and circle the claims that are still in the running to discuss further. For example, in the WWI unit, for each text we read, we determined what claim that text was making about why the U.S. entered WWI. I recorded students’ ideas on the board as they emerged during discussion. We continually referred to the list, crossing off ideas that did not make sense or did
not come from the specific text we were examining at the time. We used the list to draw a collective conclusion about each text’s causal claim and then to compare the claims across texts, discussing why the claims differed. Having a visual representation of students’ ideas served multiple purposes, such as allowing students to scrutinize each other’s ideas and to compare claims across sources.

Throughout unit and lesson planning, I plan explicitly not only for the content, but also for the student talk that will take place in that lesson/unit (What supports will be needed? What should be taught/modeled? Etc.). When planning specific lessons, I read the text carefully with the same purposes for which students will read it, and I think about what the text affords in terms of discussion. Based on this analysis, I post questions and sentence stems specific to that day’s lesson to support students in more productive discussions. For example, in a lesson in which students are reading a primary source from the Lakota-U.S. Government conflict over the Black Hills, I remind students to read with the purpose of answering the essential question: What were the causes of the conflict? To support students in looking for and using textual evidence relevant to the overarching inquiry while they are reading and during small and whole group discussion, I post the following question on the board: According to this source, the cause of the conflict between the U.S. Government and the Lakota was ______. I continually remind students to use this sentence stem to keep students focused on the main purpose, to encourage them to use text evidence, to prompt students to draw conclusions if there are several ideas out on the table, etc. I also often use a simple claim/evidence t-chart under the question to encourage students to cite and keep track of evidence for their claim. I find that if I provide a space for the evidence that supports the claim, students are more likely to share their supporting evidence when they share a claim in discussion. Regarding questions and sentence stem supports during close reading, I have found that it is helpful whenever possible to keep these supports in a specific spot in the classroom where students know they can always look for support as needed. I teach/model these stems when I’m introducing the purposes for reading, and give students opportunities to practice using them.

I welcome opportunities to have discussions based on student inquiries so that it moves beyond the teacher asking questions. When new questions come up, I try to allow space and time for students to pursue their own interests in discussions. (i.e. see “Student Generated Questions Chart” section that explains how students track their progress toward answering student-generated questions in addition to the essential questions.)

I provide a set of group goals that the class will work on together. I teach and model each goal, giving students opportunities to practice and talk about what we are doing well, what we still need to work on. I ask students to interpret the goals at the beginning of the year and keep returning to their understanding of the goals throughout the year (and how they are relevant to the tasks you are doing). Later on, I make opportunities to build in self-assessment in addition to teacher formative assessment (i.e. through rubrics). I periodically audio record students in whole group discussion and track their progress toward the discussion goals using a discourse tracker. I report results to students in percentages (i.e. 42% of the time when students spoke in this discussion, they provided evidence without prompting from the teacher). From these results, I ask students to choose one of the goals as a group goal. For this, we choose one component of discussion that we think that we need to focus on because improving it would improve the
overall quality of our discussions. This component of our discussions then becomes the content of upcoming mini-lessons. In addition to a group goal, I also ask each student to choose an individual personal goal for how they will support the group toward meeting all goals. This is important because sometimes individual students need to change their individual discussion habits to improve the overall discussion (i.e. not interrupting, speaking more often, speaking less often). Students need to think both about how we work together as a group and how each individual impacts the outcomes of discussions. When we audio record discussions, I always encourage students to celebrate successes and to continue to talk about how we can improve. We revisit group and individual goals and revise as needed. These audio check-ins are not punitive or intimidating (not treated as a “gotcha”) and they are not entered in the gradebook in any way. The purpose is to give informal feedback on progress. I prefer to think about and talk about discussion as a means to the end (which is the exit ticket) and not the end in itself. As I observe student discussions, I keep watching for problems or concerning trends. As needed, I design mini-lessons to teach/model and practice attitudes and behaviors that I want to see in discussions. Sometimes I share my own thinking process as a teacher with students, especially related to my role as facilitator of discussions. I sometimes set my own personal goal as facilitator and share it with students. For example, last year I made a goal that I would rephrase students’ comments less often to encourage students to listen to one another more carefully and ask each other to repeat their statements or ask for clarification when necessary.

**Rolling out sourcing**

One of the first things that I do, before I even start mentioning sourcing, is to make a habit of briefly sourcing documents when I do think-aloud models in class. Students start to notice that I have a practice of routinely noticing the author, date, and other important source information for a document before I launch into a close reading of the content. Often, students will start to imitate this practice before I even explicitly teach it, just because I am modeling it. Once I begin to teach sourcing explicitly, I can build on the many times students have seen me do this without realizing that it was sourcing. Usually, by the time I formally introduce sourcing to students, I tell them it is something they are already doing.

In one of the first lessons in which I have students engage in a sourcing task, I ask students to preview a source and to determine: Who wrote this? When was it written? What type of source is this? I’ll say “look over each page, look at the pictures and captions, notice things that jump out at you, and notice things you think might be important.” I’ll also say “we’re going to read this more closely later, so this is a first pass like skimming the source.” I try to make sure discussion is focused on the three questions, but I also accept other things students notice. We address these questions by going through the close reading cycle (individual, pair share, whole group discussion), focusing on textual evidence and reasoning. We then closely read the text keeping these questions in mind to see if our answers need to revised based on new evidence and reasoning. I introduce my 6th graders to this activity with a text in the Egypt unit called Hymn to the Nile. This text is a rich and engaging source to use because the source information is not very straightforward for 6th grade students to determine. Rather than that being frustrating, it actually gives students an opportunity to grapple with sourcing, making them more interested in figuring it out on their own (through my support). For example, the original author of the hymn is unknown, but there are names on the text to indicate the authors of the edited volume in which it is published. This confuses young students and they engage in debates about who the author is.
Also, there are two dates printed on the text, the date the book was published (1907) and one in the title of the Hymn that states “c 2100 BCE.” Students also recognize that the language of the text sounds “ancient” and reason it must have been written thousands of years before the book was published. Students challenge each other about which date makes more sense and eventually conclude that it is a primary source from BCE. Students even struggle to identify what type of source it is. Every year, for example, someone says, “It is a letter written by a person named ‘Hymn’ to a person named ‘Nile.’”

I guide students through discussion and close reading to eventually come to reasonable conclusions about this source. When we have determined our collective reasoning about the source, I ask, “How does knowing the author, the date, and the type of text help you to understand what you are reading?” I want students to internalize the idea that sourcing is not just a teacher-task that they do because they are told to do it, but that it helps them to gain a deeper understanding of what they are reading. I also want to reinforce that sourcing is not something we just do “before” reading a text but throughout the process of close reading a source.

As a routine part of previewing and closely reading each text after this introductory activity, I continue to have students answer the questions: Who wrote this? When was it written? What type of text is this? After engaging in this process a few times, I usually explicitly introduce the term “sourcing” and tell students they’ve already been doing it. I then model sourcing with a think aloud, reinforcing much of the same things we’ve been practicing, but really emphasizing that I’m not just identifying source information but how it will help me make sense of the source in relation to the historical context (such as noticing if the date important in relation to the event, noticing who the author is and why that’s important, etc.).

Later, I introduce the acronym SOAPSTone (Speaker, Occasion, Audience, Purpose, Subject, Tone) as a support while sourcing to introduce students to some specific types of details they should notice to gain a deeper sense of the source. I try to not use SOAPSTone as a rigid protocol that students must follow step-by-step, because then I find it actually deters close reading and students get too focused on finding each component. I make it a point not to spell out each letter of SOAPSTone so that students don’t think it is necessary to identify every component for each source. When I teach and model this support, I always try to show in my annotations and my thoughts that I notice these things when I encounter them in my reading, and emphasize how they help me make sense of the text.

After students have had some experience with sourcing, I like to have them generate a definition of the term – first individually, then as a table group, and then we share out to compile a group definition that is posted in the room. I think this is much more powerful and meaningful than if I give them a teacher-written definition or ask them to memorize a definition from the dictionary.

Over time, I move students to a point where I can say, “source the document,” and they know what to look for. One way I measure this is by giving an assessment in which I tell students that they will be graded on their annotations only (something I normally don’t do!) and then I tell them to show me all of their thinking related to sourcing the document in their annotations. I use an annotations rubric to grade this, but I also analyze their annotations closely to see what kinds of things they are noticing and how they are using those elements to make sense of the text. This
works best if the text is one that can easily be misunderstood if the reader doesn’t closely attend to the sourcing information.

The ultimate end goal, of course, would be that students automatically source a new document without any instruction from me because they know that this will inform their historical sense-making as they continue in close reading.

**Rolling out corroboration**

Similar to sourcing, I do not immediately teach the term “corroboration” at the beginning of the year. Instead, I try to design text sets that include similar and different details between sources, and then look for moments early in the year when students naturally notice similarities and differences between texts. When students notice similar or different details in two texts, I try to probe reasoning with questions like, “When you notice that, what do you think?” or “How does it help you to notice when two texts tell similar or different details?”

One thing that I’ve found to be helpful in pushing students to naturally corroborate is to post dates on our class timeline. Especially when we are studying very ancient history, various sources will often cite different dates for events. For example, one source may say c. 3000 B.C. and another source may say 2800 B.C. By teaching students to notice dates and compare the dates in one source to dates they noticed in other sources, they will naturally notice and question when sources give discrepant information. Then I will probe reasoning by asking, “Why might it be that these two sources are telling us different dates? What does this help us to understand by noticing these different details?” It’s not uncommon for students to say things like, “One of them must be lying,” so it is necessary to push them through discussion over time to arrive at the understanding that these differences occur because the sources are arriving at different conclusions based on what evidence they analyze and how they interpret it.

Later, after students have experienced corroboration naturally as it comes up in close reading experiences, I’ll gauge when it is a good time to teach the term and make this the explicit focus of a few lessons. Usually I do this when the texts in the text set afford this because of the similarities and differences in accounts. Like I explained above about assessing sourcing, I sometimes ask students to independently read a new source and show in their annotations their thinking related to corroboration to see if students are noticing similar and different details while they are reading and what kind of thinking they do when they notice them.

After students have had some experience with corroboration, I have them generate a definition of the term – first individually, then as a table group, and then we share out to compile a group definition that is posted in the room. Similar to doing this with the term sourcing, I think this is much more powerful and meaningful than if I were to give them a teacher-written definition or ask them to memorize a definition from the dictionary.

**Rolling out claims, evidence, reasoning**

At the beginning of the year, I introduce students to the six history learning goals that are posted in the classroom. When they unpack learning goal #3, I tie this to the Big Goal I have set for them for the end of the year, which is to prepare, present, and defend an original historical argument. I show them that the components of learning goal #3 are all things that they will need
to be able to do independently in order to meet the Big Goal at the end of the school year. After that, whenever I teach or model a component of learning goal #3, I connect to the learning goal poster and the Big Goal poster.

I have found it helpful to roll out argumentation little by little, one component at a time. First, we start by making claims. When students make claims in class discussions, I invite the group to distinguish between claims that are based on evidence and claims that are not. I also encourage them to distinguish between claims that are more or less reasonable given the evidence available. We generate a list of criteria for a strong claim by reading several student claims and evaluating them. The list often includes things like: somebody could argue against it, it is stated clearly, it is concisely worded, it is based on evidence. We refer to this list throughout the year whenever students are constructing written arguments. At the end of the first unit (the Artifacts unit), I give a culminating assessment that requires students to make a claim that meets our established criteria for a strong claim based on two pieces of evidence. At this point, I expect every student to be able to do this, and if they cannot, I work with them one-on-one to make sure they can before moving on.

Next, I begin to focus more explicitly on evidence. In discussions I start pushing more for students to state the evidence to support the claims they make. I push for students to state their evidence base without prompting from the teacher and for classmates to notice and prompt for evidence when it is missing from discussions. I introduce a claim-evidence t-chart for students to use in their writing when organizing ideas to answer the essential question. I model my thinking when using this chart and encourage students to share their thinking.

As students become comfortable with the routine of making claims based on evidence and identifying/stating the evidence that supports their claims, I begin to explicitly focus more and more on reasoning. I can do this by asking, “How does this evidence support your claim?” I also look for opportunities to focus on reasoning when students make claims that are unreasonable. I can invite the group to discuss, “Is that a reasonable claim?” and guide them to distinguish more reasonable claims from less reasonable claims. I look for opportunities that present themselves in the text set to have a more explicit focus on reasoning.

**Process for selecting and analyzing Ss writing samples as a group**

One way I work to improve students’ historical writing is by choosing a few student writing samples to type and present to the group for evaluation using whatever rubric I use to grade it. When I choose these samples, I look for one that is an almost-perfect model of what I want to see (sometimes I write it myself if I can’t find a student example), and then I look for a few samples that exemplify problems that I notice in most or all of students’ writing. (When students read the problem samples, I want them to think, “That doesn’t sound right? What could I do instead?”) For example, if I want students to develop more authentic, natural language for writing arguments, I may choose a very well written argument and pair it with one that uses, “My claim is . . . My evidence is . . .” When students compare the two, they will most likely notice that they prefer the first and talk about why they prefer it. This can be used to generate criteria or even sometimes to create a template from the well written argument. We go through this process several times, focusing on different components/problems of their writing as they develop throughout the year.
Sources Historians Use chart
At the beginning of the year, one of the anchor charts I post in the room is labeled, “Sources Historians Use.” Each time we use a different type of source (i.e. artifacts, newspapers, letters, maps, etc.) we add it to the list. This list is important in helping students to construct a sense of how we know what happened in the past by analyzing different types of sources. I keep this posted throughout the year and it is helpful to refer to during discussions. For example, if we are reading a textbook excerpt about the Great Chicago Fire, I might say, “This textbook was written in 2006. None of the people who wrote this were alive when the fire happened. How do they know what happened, and how did they come up with the claims they present in this text?” If students are struggling to answer a question like this, sometimes all I have to do is point to the “Sources Historians Use” poster, and they arrive at the idea that historians (or textbook authors) analyzed sources and made interpretations based on evidence from those sources to construct an account of what happened.

History Word Wall
During each unit, I post a word wall for that unit. (i.e. “Egypt Word Wall”). When we encounter words in our reading that are significant for our inquiry, we add them to the word wall. I try to limit the words to the most significant, and the ones that students will most likely be presented with in other texts, so it doesn’t become a dumping ground for any word that someone doesn’t understand. For example, while we are reading about the environmental factors that influenced early settlers to live near the Nile River, students will encounter the words “fertilization” and “irrigation.” Some will struggle with the words, but others will be able to work them out and share their understanding through discussion. We add those words to the word wall because students will be encountering them again in later texts. But later, when reading another text, if a student struggles with a word like “mingles,” we’ll go through a similar process of figuring out the meaning, but I won’t add it to the word wall, because it isn’t essential to our inquiry, and we won’t likely see it again in a text.

In general, I like students to learn vocabulary by encountering new words in authentic texts and figuring them out through group discussion. I tend to not assign isolated word lists or have students copy definitions from dictionaries, and trust that they will not only learn important words, but appropriate them into their own vocabularies (which I see more and more as the unit progresses), when they learn them in the context of an authentic inquiry with a rich text.

Student Generated History Questions Chart
At the beginning of each new module, I introduce a blank poster labeled, “Our Questions about _________” (i.e. “Our Questions about Ancient Egypt”). When we are closely reading sources in class, I encourage students to share any part of their reading experience, including questions that come to their minds as they read about the historical context. When students share questions, we add them to the chart, and I encourage the class to notice if we ever find answers to any of these questions. In addition to the overarching essential questions I introduce for each module, these questions often become an important part of our inquiry. For example, xx. Students become very invested in finding answers, not only to our essential questions, but also to the questions that they and their classmates generated while reading.
Mini-discussion/inquiry based on Student Questions
Sometimes a student will ask an important question during a small or whole group discussion from closely reading a source. At times I will make room on the spot for jointly addressing that question during whole group discussion. I usually make a mini-activity out of a student’s question by writing the question on the board and asking students to keep it in mind as they continue their reading and discussions. I like to do this because it places a high value on students’ questions, and my students tend to be more invested in finding answers to questions that are developed from their own inquiries. I lean toward focusing on a student-generated question during discussion if I know that the text affords opportunities for students to answer that question in various ways through closer reading and interpreting, or if the question elicits some kind of historical thinking and I want to capitalize on the opportunity for students to engage in that thinking authentically. I might also choose to do this if I am getting a sense that the question represents a mental stumbling block for a lot of students. This is why it is important for me to have thoroughly read the text myself with the lesson’s purpose in mind before teaching the lesson so that I can make decisions about how productive it would be to spend time on questions and ideas that spontaneously emerge during our talk. If I am unsure in the moment, I sometimes table the question and resurface it in a subsequent lesson after I’ve had time to determine the utility of spending an ample amount of class time addressing it.

I will share an example of this type of scaffold from a lesson on the primary source “Hymn to the Nile” from the Ancient Egypt module. When students were reading this text, one student struggled with the line, “When he arises earth rejoices and all men are glad,” and wondered to whom the pronoun “he” referred. I asked students to respond to his question, and students raised several responses that were all based on evidence from the text, but some were more reasonable than others. I made a decision, in the moment, to add the question, “Who is “he”?” to the board and to list the various student responses. I then invited students, as they continued reading, to continue thinking about which answer made the most sense in the context of “Hymn to the Nile.”

Source files
I encourage students to keep all of their texts/sources with their original annotations in a source file that we keep in the classroom. When students are reading new sources, they have their source file nearby on their desks. This is strategic because it encourages students to corroborate details they see in sources. When a student reads something and thinks, “I remember reading something similar to this in another source,” I want to encourage him/her to check the other source and corroborate details. When I notice students doing this, I praise them for good thinking to encourage others to imitate it. The source files are useful at the end of the unit when we are completing a culminating task, because I want students to base their final essays on all of the sources.

Exit tickets
I regularly use exit tickets to measure student mastery of the daily objective. In my planning, I think, “What skill/strategy/content do I want students to learn in this lesson?” Then I design a question or task that will measure whether or not students have learned what I want them to learn. This will be the exit ticket for the lesson. After I design the exit ticket, I move on to think, “What do I need to teach/model in order for students to answer this question or complete this
task? What kind of learning experience will students need to be able to do this?” Answering this question informs my planning for the mini-lesson, think-aloud, and activities in the lesson.

I find it helpful to preview the exit ticket at the beginning of the lesson so students know exactly how their learning will be measured. At the beginning of the lesson, when I’m introducing the objective and sharing the purposes for reading, I post the exit ticket question/prompt, and say, “While we are reading and discussing today, keep in the back of your mind that this is what you need to do at the end of class to show what you’ve learned.” During discussions, if students address the exit ticket question, we make notes on the board. (I usually make a point of erasing those notes related to the exit ticket right before students write, but sometimes I leave it, if I think they will need the support.)

Sometimes I like to ask the same question at the beginning and end of a lesson to see how student thinking changes as a result of the learning experience. For example, in the first lesson in the artifact unit, I ask students to do a quick write at the beginning of class to answer the question, “What is an artifact?” At the end of the lesson, I ask them to write again about the same question, and add the prompt, “Reread what you wrote at the beginning of class. Has your thinking changed at all? If so, explain how your thinking has changed.”

Sometimes I use group discussion as an exit ticket assessment in place of an individual written exit ticket. When I do this, I emphasize that students must work together to generate answers to the question through discussion. I give students a group grade based on the audio recording of the discussion (percentage of the time they are meeting goals) as well as the record of the points made in discussion on board. The grade is partly determined by their participation in discussion but also partly the content of their collaborative answers to the question.