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Common Ground: Uniting Archaeology and Secondary Social Studies Curricula

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A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of Social Sciences

University of Denver

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

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by

Jeremy Allen Haas

June 2016

Advisor: Bonnie Clark

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Abstract

Archaeologists have been attempting to establish stronger connections with communities for several decades. Concepts such as stewardship can be presented to a larger audience, and archaeology can be a valuable tool for public education. Public schools across the nation are struggling to improve with limited resources. Archaeology can provide teachers with inexpensive resources that improve student learning while simultaneously helping teachers meet more rigorous standards. Using historical, archaeological, and cultural resources from the World War II Japanese American internment camp, Amache, I created a new supplementary curriculum that focused on the experience of Japanese and Japanese Americans during that era. This thesis presents that curriculum and an accompanying case study that introduced archaeologically based activities in a secondary social studies classroom. Analysis of student responses indicates that supplementing with archaeology had no adverse effects to student exam scores on overall WWII history. In addition many students felt more connected to former Amache internees and their experience.

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First and foremost I would like to thank the Japanese American community within Colorado and the rest of the United States. Thank you for allowing me to investigate both the historical and archaeological record from this difficult period in order to better educate others. I would also like to thank the town of Granada and the Amache Preservation Society, led by John Hopper. John Hopper and the APS have made Amache an accessible and invaluable cultural resource to both Colorado and the entire United States, and for that I am grateful.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Since its inception, the American public education system has been subject to countless criticisms and attempts at reformation. These critiques have not been unfounded though, as the United States public education system has struggled to be internationally competitive in recent decades. Because of increasing demands and reductions in budget in various regions, teachers have been attempting to provide a quality education with fewer resources every school year.

On February 21, 2016 the Mile High chapter of the Japanese American Citizens League held their annual Day of Remembrance event which marked the anniversary of the signing of Executive Order 9066 by Franklin Delano Roosevelt on February 19, 1942. The event highlighted the history of prejudice that led to the eventual incarceration of 120,000 people of Japanese ancestry speakers linked that history to the rising tide of prejudice toward both the Muslim and Sikh communities in the United States today (History Colorado 2016).

While the connection between these two important issues may not be immediately clear to some, for me it is easy to find common ground. Teachers need to have access to quality education materials that have connections to real people. Also many people in the Japanese American community, as well as other minority communities in the U.S., desire to have the government’s past transgressions against civil rights continued to be

discussed in order to protect the rights of people in the present and in the future.

My experiences as both a teacher and as an archaeologist have made me aware of these issues, and this thesis research grew out of a desire to offer resources to teachers, create a forum for the discussion internment, and teach students the importance of the stewardship of both historical and archaeological resources.

Nature of the Project

I sought to improve social studies classrooms by creating educational materials through which a teacher can easily and efficiently insert archaeological lessons and activities into his/her pre-existing curriculum. Providing a low-cost curriculum enhancement with archaeology can help teachers meet increasing academic demands. I have personally experienced a lack of resources while teaching and believe that archaeologically based activities can help teachers create a better educational experience for students.

My research took place at Cherry Creek High School in Greenwood Village, Colorado in freshman social studies courses taught by Marjorie Hamburger (CCHS 2016b). Lessons and activities that involve archaeology included material culture recovered from Amache, a site that was formerly used to intern Japanese and Japanese Americans. Students not only learned key archaeological concepts but were also able to make a personal connection to the internment of Japanese Americans, an often overlooked or skimmed event in U.S. history courses despite its importance.

Goals of the Study

The proposed research began with three primary goals, which have since been altered to include five new research questions, outlined in chapter four, based on how the project unfolded. The first goal was to explore and identify which points in a standard social studies curriculum can have archaeologically based activities most easily and effectively inserted as a secondary narrative. Attempting to find an area of a curriculum that could be further developed along with when teachers had open opportunities in their schedules directed the placement of this case study. Once a point in the US history curriculum was identified for my research, I began with introducing students to the basics of archaeology. After the students understood the basic concepts, I had students synthesize their experiences with history, archaeology, and the personal stories of Amache into a narrative describing the daily life of the camp. The lessons were designed to be part of a larger World War II unit and not to disrupt the implementation of that unit.

The second goal of this research was to identify which specific archaeological practices are the most effective as teaching activities. These specific practices were facilitated by my experiences with Project Archaeology (2016a), a program that works to use archaeological inquiry in order to improve both social studies and science education. The potency of the activities that were designed using Project Archaeology's framework was measured through the quantitative data gathered from student academic performance and the qualitative data recovered from their writings. Despite the fact that archaeology can be used to teach a variety of academic subjects, such as science and mathematics, while still addressing core social studies curricula, teachers may find the subject of archaeology too foreign to attempt on their own.

These lessons and activities were created with accessibility and respect in mind, so that as many teachers as possible can find the product useful while simultaneously honoring the experiences of Japanese Americans.

The final goal of this research was to examine the effects that the inclusion of these archaeological activities have on student learning. I conducted quantitative evaluation through statistical analysis of student achievement in activities and tests. I then conducted qualitative evaluation through the analysis of themes and subthemes that students wrote as part of their assignments. The use of a control was also employed with one of the four classes taught by my cooperating teacher with her original curriculum and not the new supplementary unit. I compared the quantitative data from that one class taught using pre-existing curriculum to the data from the other courses.

Significance

Archaeology can be used to achieve the goals of the public education system while enhancing the need for the protection of cultural resources. For archaeology, the stewardship of sites is one of the most important goals as well as a key ethical principle (Society for American Archaeology 2016). The knowledge that archaeological sites are non-renewable resources continues to remain isolated to those who work with the sites along with post-secondary education populations. The vandalism or total destruction of sites continues to be a major issue. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, 68.4% of students that graduate high school will go on to attend a college or university (2015). This means that secondary education may be the last place that the 31.6% of students who will not go on to college have the opportunity to receive an archaeological education.

Many social studies classes can easily lapse into a lecture-only style of teaching, and a good number of students do not learn effectively in this environment (Hawk and Shah 2007:1-2). Archaeology is a tool that utilizes multiple styles of learning all while aiding in the mastery of several academic subjects. This multi-discipline instruction is supported by the Colorado Department of Education's most recent high school social studies teaching standards (2015). Archaeology can simultaneously help students academically succeed and make social studies classes engaging and fun.

Summary of Intent

My ethical responsibilities were significant due to the fact that my research was dependent upon working with archaeological sites, a public school, and the Japanese American community. I have worked hard, detailed in chapter four, to ensure that no harm will be done to these communities. It is my hope that my work will benefit the discipline of anthropology by spreading the value of archaeological stewardship. It will also contribute to the education of anthropological concepts to those who may otherwise never have the chance to receive it. In addition, my thesis supports the Japanese American Citizens League (JACL) in their mission to inform the public about the internment of American citizens that was such a clear violation of rights (JACL 2008). This is significant since it is still an ever-looming possibility for future groups. This thesis, upon completion, will be shared with the JACL, the teachers and administrators at CCHS, and Project Archaeology who may aid in further dissemination to educators.

While it is my goal to aid many social studies teachers across the country, at the very least my work will create a framework that future educators and archaeologists can use to connect with one another. Finding new ways to connect students and the general public to anthropology is a goal that an increasing number of sites, museums, and academics are allying themselves with. My work with Amache and Denver area schools will hopefully strengthen this ever growing relationship.

Chapter 2: Historical Background

A high school course in United States history can benefit in a variety of ways from the archaeological research being conducted at Amache. An investigation into the historic contexts of both internment and the American public education system is necessary to appreciate how the inclusion of Amache archaeology can affect the classroom. The internment of Japanese and Japanese Americans was not a decision that was made solely in response to the attack on Pearl Harbor. While there had been many actions taken by the United States government against immigrant groups before the attack on Pearl Harbor, that event was the catalyst for comprehensive institutionalized persecution of Japanese Americans. The same historical context is necessary for understanding the current status of public education. Educational practices in social science classrooms are not merely the result of just the previous year's administrative decisions. The American public education system has its own history of institutional segregation and exclusion that its practitioners had to overcome in order for student-first multidisciplinary practices (like the strategies this thesis utilizes) to become part of academic standards. Synthesizing the history of both subjects is necessary to grasp the need for new pedagogical strategies.

A Legal and Cultural Precedent

In the course of United States history, when there is a new wave of immigration from a different area of the world, the incoming group traditionally face reoccurring obstacles of distrust, fear, and exclusion from the majority population. In order to understand how the internment of Japanese and Japanese Americans was possible in the United States, even during a state of war, an investigation must begin a century before the attack on Pearl Harbor, when the first Asian immigrants began to arrive.

Discrimination with regards to immigration began very early in the nation's history with the Naturalization Act of 1790. This act required that for any alien to become naturalized, they would first have to be, "a free white person" (USCWRIC 2000:28-29). Since race and the public perception thereof is always shifting, this language benefited the "white" majority to be selective in what peoples could become American citizens. This law would not evolve into specific exclusions for nearly one hundred years, after Chinese laborers had begun entering the United States. Gold was discovered at Sutter's Mill in 1848, which led to the California Gold Rush and eventually to the construction of the Central Pacific Railroad. All of these events created a demand for cheap labor that the Chinese supplied. It would still be fifty years before Japan opened its borders to the West (Wilson & Hosokawa 1980:37).

While originally accepted into the region due to the cheap cost of the labor that they provided, the climate for the Chinese changed when the economies of the territories shifted from one defined by construction and development to a more stagnant economy where the American population began to worry about job loss. The initial fear of the loss of jobs to immigrant Chinese laborers eventually evolved into political action such as the

formation of the Workingmen's Party in California. This party, along with similar like-minded groups, began to lobby the United States government to take action to change its open immigration policy. Within just a few years the United States began to negotiate immigration regulations that would limit the flow of Chinese laborers into the country, culminating with the 1882 Chinese Exclusion Act. This became the first time that the United States had barred the entry of a specific ethnic group into its borders based on the idea that it would undermine economy and culture of local populations (Wilson & Hosokawa 1980:37).

With Chinese immigration stifled, the Japanese began to fill the need for cheap labor in the United States. Many Japanese immigrants may have been aided in the weathering of the initial cultural backlash from the majority population by the process of Westernization that the nation of Japan had begun with the Meiji government. Often referred to as the Meiji Period or the Meiji Restoration, during this time, the Japanese government concluded that the proper way to transform Japan into a world power was to mimic the current world powers in the West. Before the rise of the Meiji government, Japan had followed an isolationist strategy and was not open to either immigration or emigration. Beginning in the 1870's and into the early 1900's, the Meiji government changed the country's primary economy from feudalism to a Western capitalist economy through the creation of a universal education system and a universal military conscription. Along with these major changes to the government, the culture of Japan began to change as the Meiji government encouraged its citizens to adopt Western material culture. Western style clothing and food was quickly adopted by some in mainland Japan, and Japanese immigrants began to enter the United States to supply the

labor that Chinese immigrants were now barred from taking (Wilson & Hosokawa 1980:38-43). While the Japanese immigrants represented a vastly different cultural tradition from Anglo Americans, their adoption of Western style initially sheltered them from wholesale legislative exclusion. This quickly changed, though, as the political dialog in the United States shifted from discussing a "Chinese problem" to a more general "Asian problem."

Significant Japanese immigration did not begin until the late 1800's. As Japan rapidly industrialized, it began to displace some of its working population as the economy shifted to factory production. In response, Japan began to grant passports to Hawaii for these people to find work. The United States Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (USCWRIC) writes that, "between 1885 and 1894, the years during which large-scale contract labor immigration continued, over 25,000 Japanese went to Hawaii," and that many in turn emigrated to the continental United States (2000:30).

As anti-Asian sentiment continued to grow in the United States, Japan defeated Russia in 1904-05. This show of strength by Japan fueled Japanese xenophobia, especially in the Western United States, and the respective populations began to fear a Japanese invasion either through direct force or through imagined cultural domination by its growing immigrant population. As a response, in 1905, representatives from 67 different organizations, primarily labor groups, formed the Japanese Exclusion League. This coalition grew and became a major economic and lobbying power against Japanese immigrants and their descendants (USCWRIC 2000:32-33).

Following this movement President Theodore Roosevelt took action and negotiated with Japan a temporary settlement called the “Gentleman’s Agreement.” With this, Japan would no longer issue worker’s passports to the mainland United States and would restrict the number of passports to workers who had already visited America and to family members who were already present in the country. The agreement was formed after a San Francisco school board segregated Japanese students from the main student population. This action forced Roosevelt’s hand since the President learned of the school board’s decision through Tokyo and the President wished to maintain sound diplomatic relations with Japan (USCWRIC 2000:33-34).

The Gentleman’s Agreement was not enough to pacify those who supported any type of exclusion strategy towards Asian immigrants. The next effort against Japanese immigrants took shape as various legislative acts that would attempt to prohibit their ownership of land. While many states passed legislation preventing or inhibiting the sale of land to immigrants, California passed two laws of significance after Roosevelt’s attempt at diplomacy, the Alien Land Law of 1913 and a proposition that intensified the restrictions in 1920. The Alien Land Law of 1913 barred the purchase of land by any aliens ineligible for citizenship and prevented said aliens from acquiring land leases for longer than 3 years. This law could be easily circumvented by Japanese immigrants though because their children who were granted citizenship at birth could own land, land that could be managed by a parent or guardian. After WWI, anti-immigrant groups returned to their campaign with renewed vigor, passing an initiative in California in 1920 that strengthened the Alien Land Law of 1913 by preventing any type of land transfer or land lease to Japanese nationals as well as corporations in which Japanese nationals

owned a majority share. One section of the proposition prohibited immigrants who had children from serving as their respective guardians (USCWRIC 2000:34-35). This would eventually be ruled as unconstitutional, yet the fact that it passed provides evidence for the significant fervor that Americans had at the time against Japanese and other Asian immigrants.

As of 1924, approximately 159,675 Japanese had arrived and begun living and working in the continental United States. Anti-Japanese groups had continued to work until immigration law was permanently changed. In 1924 all Japanese were barred from immigrating into the United States in the same fashion that Chinese immigrants had been excluded. No more actions specifically against the Japanese would be taken until after the attack on Pearl Harbor (USCWRIC 2000:36). Once President Franklin Delano Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066, further targeted exclusion of Japanese immigrants and their descendants began despite the order not specifically mentioning Japanese culture.

Fear and distrust of the Japanese people in the United States did not begin with a surprise attack from the Japanese military. The United States government had institutionalized passive persecution with the passage of these various laws. A legal and cultural precedent had been built that would favor the President's decision despite the obvious violation to many Japanese Americans who were born American citizens. Now all it would take would be an external act of aggression for the government to justify directly persecuting the Japanese and Japanese Americans within its borders.

Pearl Harbor and Internment

On December 7, 1941 the nation of Japan bombed Pearl Harbor in the Hawaiian Islands. Surprise was shared by Anglo-Americans and Asian-Americans alike. The idea that some Japanese and Japanese Americans in the United States would support Japan through espionage and sabotage would be debated throughout the period of the war (December 1941-September 1945), the period of internment (February 1942-December 1944), and beyond. Yet the USCWRIC summarized the decision to intern through Executive Order 9066 by saying,

> The Promulgation of Executive Order 9066 was not justified by military necessity, and the decisions that followed from it- detention, ending detention, and ending exclusion- were not driven by the analyses of military conditions. The broad historical causes which shaped these decisions were race prejudice, war hysteria, and the failure of political leadership. (USCWRIC 2000:18)

Despite the lack of any evidence pointing to subversive activities taking place in Japanese and Japanese American communities, Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066. Individuals and families were forced to give up their homes and business to live in designated areas. The following is an examination of what took place after the events of Pearl Harbor and how thousands of people lived through internment.

Executive Order 9066 did not immediately follow the attack on Pearl Harbor; the order was signed over two months afterward. During this time, many steps were taken against Japanese and Japanese Americans. On December 11, over 2000 first generation Japanese, the Issei, were taken into custody by the government. Following this, a series of steps were taken to minimize “subversive activities:” suspected enemy aliens were ordered to turn in shortwave radios and cameras, noncitizen Japanese liquor licenses were

revoked, aliens were ordered to re-register with the government, Los Angeles City and County government removed all Japanese and Japanese Americans working in civil service, the attorney general created curfew zones in California, and Attorney General Francis Biddle and Lieutenant General John Dewitt respectively created military exclusion areas and pushed for the removal of “Japanese and other subversive persons” on the West Coast (Ng 2002:xviii-xix). While the decision to intern Japanese noncitizens and their citizen descendants was ultimately the responsibility of President Roosevelt, Pearl Harbor unleashed a domino effect of institutionalized persecution that permeated many different levels of government.

Counter to FBI intelligence stating that the Japanese were not a military threat, Executive Order 9066 became the law of the land. The order itself used broad language and stated that areas of the West Coast would now fall under the jurisdiction of the military and that the military reserved the right to exclude any person deemed unnecessary or “undesirable” (Ng 2002:18). Such broad language allowed the military and the soon to be created War Relocation Authority (WRA) the freedom to exclude and remove every generation of Japanese regardless if they were citizens or not.

Forced removal was not unilaterally supported in the government or by the civilian population. While Attorney General Francis Biddle supported the idea of strategic military zones, he did not support the mass evacuation program that was now being considered. Lack of evidence of domestic sabotage, the damage that forced removal would bring to the agricultural economy of California, and the overall morale of 60,000 productive American citizens was enough to make the Attorney General and others doubt the necessity and efficacy of the plan. Civilian organizations such as the

American Civil Liberties Union also protested the impending evacuation on the basic grounds that it was morally wrong. Despite protests inside and outside the government, the War Department declared that the removal of people of Japanese ancestry was a wartime military necessity (Ng 2002:20).

Removal began with a “voluntary” phase. This took place after General Dewitt issued Public Proclamation 1, which made the western portion of Washington, Oregon, California, and Arizona an exclusion zone. Around 5,000 people of Japanese descent left the zone. This phase did not provide the results that the various wartime organizations or inland states desired. People who chose to leave on their own accord were often moving to different states that they themselves chose. The governments of those states feared possible subversive activity occurring in their own borders. The Wartime Civil Control Authority was then created to take control of the evacuation and relocation. At this point whole communities began to be removed from the West Coast. Terminal Island near Los Angeles was one of the first areas to be evacuated, with thousands of individuals and families removed from their homes, schools, and businesses within 48 hours or less. Families had to quickly dispose of most of their personal property at this time, selling many expensive objects for a mere fraction of their cost while at the same time simply leaving many things behind (Ng 2002:21-22).

After being removed from their homes, life in assembly centers would be a difficult transition. The first to arrive were volunteers consisting mainly of Japanese American Citizens League (JACL) members who would aid in the process. Eleven of the 17 assembly centers on the West Coast were at either racetracks or fairgrounds due to limited time available to construct proper facilities. Army style temporary barracks

originally designed for soldiers were now packed with families that included small children and the elderly. At the racetracks, even the stables were cleaned and converted to hold people, yet the smell remained. At the assembly center in Santa Anita, almost half of the residents ended up living in the stables for a period of time. The atmosphere of the assembly centers was tense with many of the Japanese Americans convinced that they would never be accepted as full-fledged citizens. Many of the Nisei, or second generation Japanese that were born into American citizenship, who might have been very patriotic now had reason to doubt the government they had supported. While some may have become demoralized, others tried to organize events such as dances or to create newspapers in order to make living conditions better. Jobs were available to the evacuees, but it was decided that those working in the camps should not make more than an army private, which was only nineteen dollars a month at the time. Between communal lavatories, mess halls, and the thin walls of the barracks or stables, privacy was a memory for the evacuees as well. While many evacuees were able to quietly tolerate their situation with dignity, overcrowding and stress would boil over in the Santa Anita Assembly Center. On August 4, 1942, a contraband search turned violent when hot plates were confiscated. Crowds gathered and protested, one evacuee was severely beaten, and 200 military police locked down the assembly center for three days (Burton et al. 2002:34-38).

The WRA was created on March 19, 1942. This civilian agency would now write and enforce policy for the long term incarceration of both the Issei and Nisei and a few Sansei (third generation) throughout the duration of the war. Milton S. Eisenhower was initially chosen to head the WRA, but once he realized that the incarceration was not just

a temporary measure, but instead an indefinite one, he resigned in June of 1942 on moral grounds (Burton et al. 2002:38). The WRA now had to find places to permanently house 120,000 people in a place where they would be as minimal a threat to national security as possible. The solution was to place these prisons in isolated and often inhospitable areas such as deserts and swamps. Both the WRA and the JACL lobbied for the inclusion of basic community infrastructures such as hospitals, schools, libraries, and churches. Internees were then offered jobs that attempted to reflect their original profession as much as possible, such as cooks, doctors, and mechanics. The pay still only ranged from twelve to nineteen dollars a month depending on whether it was unskilled or skilled labor. This along with a lack of access to their accumulated assets, led to the foreclosure of many properties and the defaulting of many loans (Hirasuna and Hinrichs 2005:18-20).

While technically incarcerated without just cause, the government also asked the internees in the camps to demonstrate their loyalty to the United States through various activities. Participation in the Boy Scouts or Girl Scouts of America was encouraged, war bond sales and blood drives took place, and contribution to the war effort though the production of war materials such as camouflage nets all was undertaken. One of the most common ways to aid the war effort was through the production of 'Victory Gardens.' Many of the Japanese and Japanese Americans were expert agriculturalists. The personal gardens were so prevalent and successful, even in harsh environments, that the WRA estimated that those in the camps were producing 85 percent of their own vegetables by the end of 1943. The internees also raised livestock to supplement their own nutrition even further within WRA sponsored external farms (Hirasuna and Hinrichs 2005:20-21).

Loyalty was also tested directly by the WRA. By the spring of 1943, in order to gain leave clearance to serve in the military or to work outside of the camp, two key questions had to be answered. Among a number of other questions cited by Wendy Ng (2002:57) in the form, question 27 queried, “Are you willing to serve in the armed forces of the United States on combat duty, wherever ordered?” Second, question 28 asked the following:

> Will you swear unqualified allegiance to the United States of American and faithfully defend the United States from any or all attack by foreign or domestic forces, and forswear any form of allegiance or obedience to the Japanese Emperor, or any other foreign government, power, or organization? (Ng 2002:57)

This was an especially difficult question for the Issei since a ‘yes’ answer would leave them as stateless citizens since they were never legally allowed to become American citizens (Ng 2002:56-57).

While the internees made the most of their situation by taking steps to change the camps into a hospitable homes, there was still significant disconnect between the two main generations of internees, the Issei and the Nisei. The balance of power shifted from the Issei to the Nisei due to many of the individual Issei community leaders being arrested and incarcerated in facilities separated from their families. Even when some of these leaders were permitted to join their families in camp, the use of the Japanese language was restricted in some of the camps early on since most community meetings, newsletters, and other publications had to be spoken or written in English (Burton et al. 2002:45-46).

Issei parents also worried for the sake of their children. They came from a culture that was empowered through hard work, and they were concerned that the desultory life of the camps would destroy the sense of purpose in their children. This worry was also exacerbated by the very little amount of time that the family actually spent together. In the dining halls, children often ate with their friends rather than their family. The tradition of learning from their elders through daily conversation was no longer a part of daily life in the camp. While the parents worried about their eroding relationships with their children, the older children worried about life after camp (Matsueda 2006:30-31).

While many families awaited the outcome of the war, many Nisei enlisted to fight in it. Initially the army rejected the enlistment of Japanese Americans due to their inability to trust them as soldiers, but by mid-1942 the army began to reconsider this. By February 1, 1943, the 442nd Regimental Combat Team was created and was soon fighting on the front in Europe. The group because of their situation was tightly knit and worked well as a unit. They earned the nickname The Purple Heart Battalion because by the end of the war, the battalion members had achieved 9,486 Purple Hearts as well as 5,309 other awards and distinctions. They fought in eight major campaigns in Europe, were known for their capability and their ability to surprise the Italian and German armies. They were viewed as heroes in the towns and the small cities that they eventually liberated (Ng 2002:63-69).

Resistance, Resettlement and Compensation

While others arrived at assembly centers to eventually be relocated to the internment camps, Fred Toyosaburo Korematsu decided instead to go to Nevada and not report to an assembly center. This singular act of rebellion would become a lifelong battle for the civil rights of all Americans. Korematsu was eventually picked up by police on May 30, 1942. He initially said that he was Clyde Sarah and that he was of Spanish-Hawaiian origin, but due to the fact that he could not speak Spanish and that his draft card had been altered, he was taken into custody. While he awaited trial, an attorney from the American Civil Liberties Union, Ernest Besig, offered to take his case to test the constitutionality of the evacuation and relocation of the Japanese and Japanese Americans. Korematsu's case was eventually represented by Wayne Collins and Clarence E. Rust and they raised many issues of relocation in court, the most important being Korematsu's due process rights being violated. The Supreme Court responded in a 6 - 3 decision that stated the evacuation orders were constitutional because of wartime necessity. One dissenting opinion from Justice Frank Murphy stated, "Being an obvious racial discrimination [Executive Order 9066], the order deprives all those within its scope of equal protection of the laws as guaranteed by the Fifth Amendment" (Ng 2002:84-86). While the court upheld the decision, this case along with others would continue to be debated into the present day.

The end to exclusion came after President Roosevelt won reelection in 1944. On November 10, at the first cabinet meeting after the election it was decided to lift the exclusion. A month later, on December 17, 1944, Proclamation Number 21 was issued and General DeWitt's mass exclusion orders were rescinded. The mass exclusion was replaced by individual exclusions from 'sensitive' areas including the West Coast (USCWRIC 2000:232-236).

While resettlement technically began at the beginning of the war with the 'voluntary' resettlement, it began in earnest when exclusion ended. The government expected the internment camps to be closed within a year, leaving little time for those who were living there to plan new lives. Most knew that life would be difficult especially since the war with Japan still continued. While some waited for the restrictions on the West Coast to be lifted, many chose to move to the Midwest or the East rather than go back to where they had lost everything that they had built. Those who chose to return to their homes and farms often faced hostility in their former peaceful neighborhoods. Many of those leaving camp had few financial resources and ended up depending on makeshift 'hostels' in Buddhist churches or hospitals. Nearly everyone who had been incarcerated experienced some form of material or financial loss. In 1948 the Evacuation Claims Act was passed to allow people of Japanese ancestry to seek compensation from the government. The government only ended up paying out around $37 million, despite the fact that 26,568 claims were filed for an amount that totaled approximately $148 million (Ng 2002:97-102).

It would not be until 1980, with support from the Japanese American members of Congress, that Public Law 96-317 would be passed that would create the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians. This commission would review the facts and circumstances surrounding Executive Order 9066, the directives of the military forces requiring relocation, and would recommend appropriate remedies (Ng 2002:106-108). The commission suggested several steps to make an effort to rectify the events between 1941 and 1945 including: a formal apology passed as a joint resolution through Congress to be signed by the President, a presidential pardon of those who violated statutes involving internment, formal compensation in the form of money appropriated through a special foundation (USCWRIC 2000:462-463).

The Civil Liberties Act of 1988 was signed by President Ronald Reagan which provided a redress of $20,000 each to about 60,000 people who had been interned during the war. Unfortunately the estates of those who had already died before the bill became law were not eligible. For many, the fact that the government had finally formally apologized for its actions was more significant than the money (Ng 2002:109).

While the United States government has finally formally apologized for its actions involving the Japanese and Japanese Americans during World War II, it is still possible for internment to happen again. The Supreme Court never declared that internment was unconstitutional, leaving an open opportunity for a similar situation to happen again in the future. Very recently on February 3, 2014, Justice Antonin Scalia spoke to law students from the University of Hawaii saying, "Well of course Korematsu [the case decision] was wrong. And I think we have repudiated in a later case. But you are kidding yourself if you think the same thing will not happen again" (McAvoy 2014).

The looming threat of another eventual national crisis makes the study and comprehension of everything surrounding Japanese and Japanese American internment that much more significant.

The Modern History of the American Public Education System

In order to understand archaeology's place in the classroom, an examination of the American public education system, how it has evolved, and its political context is vital. For the past century, a debate has been raging between those who believe that education should be centered on the child and those who believe that education should be centered on the bottom line. While these two perspectives are not mutually exclusive, the strategies that these two camps employ could not be more different. Should education eschew standard forms of assessment and employ tactics that value experience and comprehension through active learning? Should standardized testing continue to be refined and improved because the results are uniform and the tests can be easily and widely administered? While there still is no simple answer to these questions, it is important to be aware that they will continue to define the current and upcoming educational debates for the foreseeable future. The public education system of the United States has a very diverse student body, and its history is one of adaptation and inclusion to fit the needs of its ever growing populace.

A brief history of the American public education system is not complete without first addressing the works and influence of John Dewey. While this synopsis will primarily cover the state of education from 1950 and onward, and most of Dewey's work took place before this time, his philosophy continues to be the foundation of the current practices of education.

John Dewey was born in 1859 in Vermont. After receiving a Ph.D. in Psychology from John Hopkins University in Baltimore, he began his work at the University of Chicago in 1894. Dewey's work focused primarily on educational experimentation and reform in response to industrialization and the growth of the urban landscape. The education of children to him was not merely an end, but the means to build a better democratic society (Reese 2005:136-141).

Dewey sought to steer away from the traditional idea of education being textbook and lecture centered. He wished to focus new educational methods on experience rather than a simple transmission of knowledge from teacher to student. "I take it that the fundamental unity of the newer philosophy is found in the idea that there is an intimate and necessary relation between the process of actual experience and education" (Dewey 1938:7). Dewey wished for school teachers and administrators to prioritize the child first when it came to education. If their social, intellectual, emotional, and physical developmental needs were met, then teaching them skills through experience rather than rote memorization would lead to a more prepared society. While the necessity and potency of Dewey's philosophy continues to be debated, he started the conversation about student centered education in earnest.

After World War II, the American education system had two defining characteristics. It bore the responsibility of keeping the nation internationally competitive during an era when nuclear obliteration was a distinct possibility. It also was the perpetrator of mass exclusion. Racial and ethnic minorities, women, and those with disabilities had their potentials limited under the umbrella concept of "separate but equal." In 1950, three-fifths of students graduated high school and about 50 percent of those students went to college (Mondale and Patton 2001:132). Between 1946 and 1964, 26 million children were born and would soon enter the education system. These baby boomers in turn would mostly graduate; 85 percent would either receive their high school diploma or get a GED (general educational development certificate). The American education system had entered a crisis based on too few schools, too few teachers, and too low standards (Reese 2005:219). Soon, however, thanks to competition with the Soviets, a demand for greater academic performance and achievement defined the era. Yet, these growing pains and a national need for achievement would have to be set aside in order to deal with the long ignored plight of those segregated from the majority. The Supreme Court of the United States (SCOTUS) would soon hear the case of thirteen groups of parents from the city of Topeka, Kansas.

In 1896, the SCOTUS ruled in the case of Plessy v. Ferguson that segregation was constitutional as long as the facilities were equal. Beginning in the 1930's, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) had quietly gathered evidence to counter the court's decision. Once the organization felt confident that its case could be brought forth and won, it began encouraging African American parents to enroll their children in public schools populated by white children. Once each of these children

had been refused admission, the case, argued by Thurgood Marshall, was filed as Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka. On May 17, 1954, Chief Justice Earl Warren handed down the unanimous decision that stated that separate institutions are inherently unequal and unconstitutional (Mondale and Patton 2001:137-141). While it would take many years to enforce, the decision not only affected African Americans and their children, but set the precedent that any type of institutional segregation, including the segregation of those with disabilities, was illegal.

Despite the SCOTUS's decision, most of the South defied it. While there would eventually be much spectacle with the National Guard enforcing desegregation in some areas, it would not be until President Lyndon Johnson, a former schoolteacher, found a more effective way to give teeth to the enforcement of desegregation. President Johnson believed that equal education meant equal opportunity, and having taught in an impoverished Hispanic community, he knew that the government would have to take the initiative in order to foster change. Johnson created many educational programs such as Head Start, which assists disadvantaged families in getting their children into early education. When he signed the Civil Rights Act of 1964, he then made federal funding available only to desegregated schools. This is because the act banned discrimination based on race in all federally funded programs, including public school (Mondale and Patton 2001:145-149). It took over a decade for the Brown v. Board of Education decision to become enforced, but after this act was passed, unwilling schools fell in line because their financial stability was threatened.

While admission was guaranteed to school, both respect and a good education were not. In Crystal City, Texas, the student body of the local public high school was 87

percent Mexican American. The education of these students was primarily dictated by white teachers and administrators who would encourage Americanization and discourage the speaking of Spanish or the practice of anything consisting of Mexican cultural heritage. Speaking Spanish held a punishment of either a three day suspension or three hits from a paddle. The community decided to take action. First this took place in the form of a student strike where eventually two-thirds of the student body was absent. Federal mediators from the Department of Justice were dispatched to aid in a resolution and while concessions were made to the Mexican American population, the lesson that the people learned was that the power to control the school resided in the school board whose positions were awarded by the voters. In 1970, Mexican Americans gained four of the seven seats on the Crystal City school board. This movement helped legitimize bilingual education and set a precedent that minorities can change school policy and curricula through peaceful democratic means (Mondale and Patton 2001:150-157).

Girls and women were another group who had yet to be treated equally and inclusively in the public education system at this time. As of 1970, it was legal for many institutions of higher education to simply refuse admission to women, and many high schools did not have equal extracurricular opportunities for both genders. In order to rectify this, Title IX was ratified in 1972 as part of the Educational Amendments that were closely related to the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Title IX was born out of the lack of girls' athletic programs that mirrored ones offered to boys. Gender bias until this point had dictated what activities were permissible for each gender in public education. There was not a program for women's basketball in high schools because women were supposed to be passive, watch, and aid the men. The argument was clear. If the school

was receiving federal funding, it was responsible for providing similar opportunities to both genders. As Title IX was eventually enforced, more coed programs were made available, more gender equal textbooks became available, and in turn more universities began admitting women especially since women's sports scholarships became available (Mondale and Patton 2001:159-162).

With minorities allowed into white schools, bilingual education available for Spanish speakers, and opportunities and programs provided for both men and women, there was one major disenfranchised group left whose needs had to be addressed. This group consists of people with various disabilities. Brown v. Board of Education addressed the issue of separate and unequal, and this also directly applied to students with disabilities. Despite this, local institutions still segregated students with disabilities away from the general populace. This would change with the passage of Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975. This act integrated children with disabilities into the general classroom. It required any school receiving public funds to provide equal access to education as well as to provide an individual education plan with parent input to properly navigate the student's education while mirroring the education of general students as much as possible (Osgood 2008:101). This act would be reauthorized and revised in 1990 to become the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act. This revised bill not only added several new categories of disability covered, such as Autism Spectrum Disorder, but also included the concept of teaching students in the "least restrictive environment" and removed the dated use of the word 'handicapped'(Osgood 2008:123-128).

Similar to the situation involving Japanese Americans and their relationship to the United States government, there have been substantial gains made for minorities to have access to an equal and appropriate education in the past seventy years. Without advancement in civil rights with regards to the Japanese and Japanese American community as well as all of the groups discussed above now receiving a more complete education, a unit discussing the disenfranchisement of a minority group and the importance of civil rights might not be a priority today.

A big issue for someone seeking to involve archaeology in public education to consider is that of the rise in the influence in the 'bottom line' in education. While John Dewey began the conversation of experiential education before World War II, the debate between student centered learning and traditional testing would be the focal point in government policy making from the 1980's to the present.

In 1983 President Ronald Reagan launched a campaign for educational reform. While the need for reform is still debatable, the U.S. Department of Education issued a report to Reagan titled "A Nation at Risk." The report detailed how the nation's public education system had put the welfare of the country at risk due to it failing to keep up with international competition. The report stated that 40 percent of students were unprepared to enter the workforce or college based on test scores and student achievement. Countering this, many educators stated that more students were doing better academically than ever before and that a few decades were not sufficient to correct the deficiency that had been caused by former segregation policies before and during the Civil Rights Movement. The report suggested the creation of higher standards of education, more courses in traditional subjects and computer science, a longer school day

and school year, and more homework. While many debated certain suggestions from the report, many from both political parties agreed that reform was necessary (Mondale and Patton 2001:184-187).

A suggested solution to the shortcomings of the public education system was the creation of competition among schools. In other words, give parents and students a choice of what type of schools to go to and finance the individuals who chose to leave the public schools system with federal funding. Thus a system involving educational vouchers was created. Educational vouchers are debated on a state by state basis still, but the first state to implement the voucher system was Wisconsin in 1990. The results of Wisconsin's voucher system are mixed. By 1997 1,500 students had received funding to attend private schools, and schools like Urban Day boasted small class sizes and a good curriculum, a combination many parents would find attractive. Despite some students attending good alternative schools, many private schools simply did not accept vouchers and the quality of those that did were not consistent. Critics continue by saying that voucher systems threaten public schools by reducing funding for them even further (Mondale and Patton 2001:192-199). It is still to be decided if vouchers are a solution to the woes of public education, since there is no federal mandate for them; the results will continue to be mixed until more states attempt to implement them and provide data.

In addition to reform through allowing competition, another substantial reform to education took place in 2002 with the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB). NCLB again emphasized standards, testing, and evaluation. The cultural and political mandate that allowed the passage of the act draws its roots in a philosophy shared by John Dewey, that education is the means through which society improves individuals

which in turn improve society. While this basic concept is shared by the act and Dewey, the implementation of the suggested change could not be more different. NCLB requires mandatory testing for children in grades 3 through 8 in basic concepts. If schools underperform consistently on those tests, penalties are invoked by withholding federal funds. Unfortunately schools that consistently underperform are usually populated by low-income families (Reese 2005:322-325). The deadline for this evaluation was 2014, but currently there are 34 states that have received waivers extending through 2016 in order to give them extra time to meet the NCLB standards (United States Department of Education 2013). It remains to be seen if the NCLB standards are realistic as far as states being able to meet them in a reasonable amount of time.

Finally the latest in a long line of reforms to the American public education system takes the form of what is called Common Core State Standards (CCSS). CCSS is a state led initiative led by the National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and the Council of Chief State School Officers. They are a consistent set of standards that are shared by participating states. Currently standards have been developed for literacy, math, speaking, and listening. The primary goal of CCSS is to create consistent educational expectations from one participating state to the next while also emphasizing research and media skills, math skills that include students explaining their thinking, and collaboration among educators not just in the same grade but throughout the entire schools system (Dana et al. 2013:3-9). Whether or not CCSS is effective or successful is also yet to be determined as it was adopted by the states in 2010.

It is clear that the American Public education system is still in the process of undergoing significant change. Much has happened since 1950 that has resulted in a

much more inclusive and open system with regards to who gets to attend and learn. The way the system is implemented and assessed is still entrenched in heated political debate. One thing is for certain, much like the treatment of Japanese Americans as well as other minorities, the American public education system is much improved, while at the same time still quite deficient when it comes to providing fair treatment and equal opportunity. Archaeology has much to offer both Japanese Americans and their ancestors as well as the teachers in public school classrooms. What archaeology can offer will be discussed in the following chapters.

Chapter 3: Theoretical Background

This research is centered on combining the scientific inquiry of archaeology with the pedagogical practices of secondary social studies. This combination requires multiple theoretical perspectives, including a holistic approach to the social sciences, the impartation and transmission of culture through material objects, and an understanding of the process of learning. Eric R. Wolf has given a thorough critique of the social sciences in his work *Europe and the People without History* (2013) through the study of political economy. Timothy Taylor's (2008) study of materiality lends insight into how the investigation of various objects can lead to a better and more complete understanding of the peoples of the past. The concept of how active personal experience can directly influence student learning has been explored by the work of David Kolb (1984). Each of these three perspectives has been utilized in this thesis in order to integrate archaeology with a course in United States history so that a student's understanding of Japanese Internment might be improved.

Anthropological Political Economy

Wolf was the primary advocate for anthropological political economy which emerged in the 1980s. The main focus of those working within this perspective was to link global capitalism with the various nations and cultures that had been excluded from the benefits of the system and had been subsequently labeled "the third world".

In order to better understand the world as it is, Wolf concluded that a holistic study of all the social sciences was necessary (Wolf 2013:377).

The social sciences that are taught in public secondary schools today exist as separate entities that each live in separate classrooms. For example, it is rare when the subject of economics is given more than a cursory discussion in a history class despite various economic factors being a major driving force in historic conflict. Wolf discusses how different cultures have been conceptualized as bounded objects due to this separation. The misconception that these entities exist on their own without any outside influence is detrimental to our overall understanding. He refers to this understanding as a "billiard ball model of society", where these cultures exist in their own space and constantly bounce off one another with no lasting effects. Instead of viewing humanity in this limited way, Wolf suggests that understanding be centered about the relationships happening between different groups of peoples defined by their race, ethnicity, language, age, geography, and the long eschewed distinctions of wealth and class. Only through understanding all of these relationships and how they work in tandem with and against one another, as well as how they have existed in this system historically, can a person grasp how groups came to be and what would happen to them next (Wolf 2013:379-380).

One of the major flaws of the separation of the social sciences is that when a subject is isolated, exterior influences are often ignored. For instance, Wolf provides the example of the study of social relationships and disorder in sociology.

> Since social relations are conceived as relations between individuals, interaction between individuals becomes the prime cause of social life. Since social disorder has been related to the quantity and quality of social relations, attention is diverted from consideration of economics, politics, or ideology as possible sources of social disorder, into a search for the causes of disorder in family and community, and hence toward the engineering of a proper family and community life (Wolf 2013:381).

It becomes difficult to identify external influences of change potentially leading one to conclude incorrectly that a change is only caused by factors studied by one discipline, when in reality that is rarely the case. This is also an issue in secondary education. Students rely on the preconceived notion that the answers to any problem that they encounter in a class will be solved using tools that are exclusive to the discipline that they are studying. In reality, the best solution to an issue is likely to be one that takes several academic perspectives into account.

Wolf relies on the work of Karl Marx to in order to properly conceive of the connections between various disciplines of the social sciences. This is not in the stereotypical proletariat utopia after the fall of capitalism but rather Wolf highlights Marx's ability to account for previously disregarded relationships. Marx focused on explaining the regularities that steer the production of wealth. Wolf explains Marx's importance due to his holistic examination of humanity and his ability to be understood in economic, ecological, social, political, and social-psychological frames. Because of Marx's acknowledgment of all relationships being significant and affecting all parts of humanity, his work, according to Wolf, should be recognized and relied upon in the construction of understanding (Wolf 2013:388-389).

Wolf's critique of the separation of humanities is also shared by his contemporary, Marshall Sahlins (1976). In his analysis of historical materialism and political economy, Sahlins discusses how culture is inseparable from the material world and the means of production. Culture cannot be removed from the means of production since economy is dependent on the tastes of the surrounding culture. "Thought can only kneel before the absolute sovereignty of the physical world. But the error consists in this: that there is no material logic apart from the practical interest, and the practical interest of men in production is symbolically constituted" (Sahlins 1976:207). Sahlins goes on to describe how certain food markets are based on cultural preference such as how western society tends to consume cattle and not dog. Culture affects local economies which, in turn, affect international economics and politics. A holistic approach to how we research and investigate the interactions between cultures and societies are required to understand and teach about them.

It is only through a holistic pedagogical approach that a two dimensional moral success story of the United States can be avoided. Rather than viewing the Pacific front of World War II in the simplistic terms of Japan being an aggressor and the United States a victim, students should learn that both Japan and the United States are occupied by large populations of people that all have vastly different origins and motivations. These populations cannot easily be labeled either "ally" or "enemy". The theory of political economy allows for the acknowledgement of various relationships across the social sciences.

Materiality

While the word materiality had been used in passing by E. B. Tylor and John Lock, the practical origins of materiality as a theoretical perspective began in the mid-1990's. The study of material culture required an approach that could engage physical objects, both natural and human produced, and the meaning and value that is ascribed to them. Timothy Taylor outlines the concept of materiality as, "a style of inquiry that engages with unavoidable qualities of a material" (Taylor 2008:297-299). The idea is to analyze objects not just by what they are made of or how we understand them currently, but to attempt to understand them as the people who originally created or owned them did.

Materiality attempts to construct how people categorized and classified their own objects in the past in order to better understand the people themselves. It is important for historians and archaeologists to look past their own categorical understandings of artifacts (such as intention, agency, energy, material, and cost) and to attempt to examine the values that an artifact held for people in the past (such as duty, loyalty, blessing, or curse). If present investigators only look at objects from their cultural perspective, their understanding of the past will remain shallow at best. It is also important to understand that materiality does not attempt to marry the metaphysical with the science of archaeology, but rather to emphasize cultural context of artifacts that do not have people willing or able to explain their significance (Taylor 2008:297-298).

Materiality also shares some of its foundations with political economy thanks to the work of Marx. The urge to gather material wealth and to control resources and production has driven countless conflicts. Marx's study of the inequalities that result

from this urge led to the creation of the theory of historical materialism. While Marx's perspective of materialism leading to a conflicted materialist society is the primary focus of his work, the emphasis on things and how they affect humanity are explored in his term "fetishism of commodities". Commodity fetishism describes the tendency of people that are part of a capitalistic society to believe that value is something that is inherent to various commodities. Marx was critical of commodity fetishism, but the idea that people could give an item value and meaning is significant to the concept of materiality (Tayler 2008:300-302).

The theory of materiality has two major implications according to Taylor. The emphasis on the tangible qualities of materials mimics the old art of connoisseurship in that a small detail could lead to understanding a significant part of the culture that created the artifact. The other implication is that there must be some common themes for these interpretations of how the people of the past understood and valued their objects to have any grounded archaeological interpretations. This runs contrary to postmodernism and the abandonment of any all-encompassing anthropological theory, but relying on certain regularities to understand the people of the past does not attempt to place all the cultures of the world under one theoretical umbrella (Taylor 2008:315).

Further clarification is given by Paul Graves-Brown, who states that the crux of this venture is to re-examine familiar objects and to understand how they both shape and are shaped by the practice of individuals. Culture does not simply exist exclusively in the heads of people or within the social interactions between them. Culture has the capacity to be embodied within objects, not just symbolically, but within social expectations of an object's utilization. Graves-Brown also explains that a materialist perspective is not a

determinist or functionalist perspective. Instead of the fate of people being determined by things, the relationship is mutual. Social beings create and manipulate objects that communicate culture, and the materials available influence the surrounding culture (2000:1-2).

Students can approach artifacts (or replicas of artifacts) and begin to conduct their own investigation of past culture using the lens of materiality. Being able to think outside of one's own perspective is critical to a democratic society. Being able to understand and engage the people of the past by investigating the cultural context and values that are embedded into artifacts can be an effective tool that prepares students to engage people who belong to different cultures in the present.

Experiential Learning

"Learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (Kolb 1984:38). The foundation upon which my research methods and lesson plans are based is the theory of experiential learning as described by David A. Kolb, who draws his perspective from the work of many educational theorists, including John Dewey, Kurt Lewin, and Jean Piaget. Learning is a social process based upon carefully cultivated experience. Simply put, students learn more effectively not by being told but through active experience, as Kolb explains in the following.

> Human beings are unique among all living organisms in that their primary adaptive specialization lies not in some particular physical form or skill or fit in an ecological niche, but rather in the identification with the process of adaptation itself- the process of learning (Kolb 1984:1).

Being able to understand how people engage the learning process is pivotal in being able to maximize the student learning in a classroom. Experiential learning is an approach that acknowledges that learning is a lifelong process and that the classroom and the "real world" can be effectively linked (Kolb 1984:3-4).

John Dewey's significance to the field of education was addressed earlier, but his educational philosophy was the first and most influential to the theory of experiential education. In 1938, Dewey wrote *Experience and Education* and emphasized that experiential education was in fact older than the American education system since it was central to the concept of apprenticeships. To Dewey, experiential learning is the process through which personal development, work, and education are all connected. Dewey wished for learners to be in direct contact with the subject that learners were studying. An encounter with the subject would give a person the skills to properly engage and succeed in work involving the subject rather than just thinking about it or considering theoretical possibilities (Kolb 1984:4-5). Dewey's model of the learning process is a repeating cycle of impulse, observation, knowledge, and judgment.

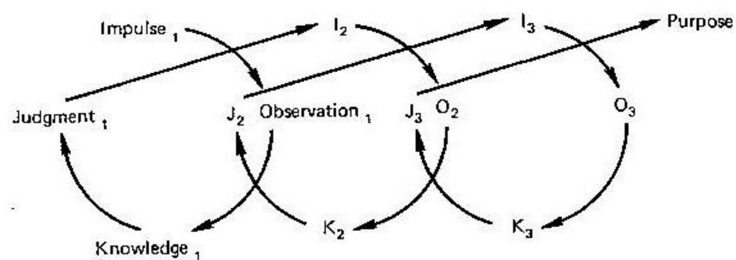

Figure 1: Dewey's Model of Experiential Learning (Kolb 1984:23)

The founder of American social psychology, Kurt Lewin, investigated how the repeated combination of immediate experience with reflection and evaluation could be a successful learning process. Lewin based his understanding of education on the integration of theory and practice. The Lewinian learning model is a four step cycle that students use to construct new knowledge through personal experience. Beginning with concrete experiences, the learner then transitions to observation and reflection.
The cycle continues with the formation of generalizations or abstract concepts, which flows to the testing of these concepts in new situations, bringing us back to new concrete experience (Kolb 1984:9-21).

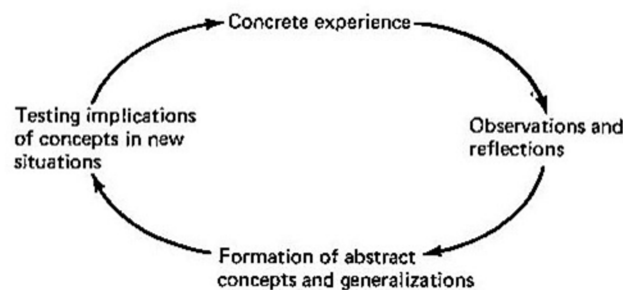

Figure 2: The Lewinian Experiential Learning Model (Kolb 1984:21)

French developmental psychologist and genetic epistemologist Jean Piaget researched the process of cognitive development. Piaget believed that intelligence is not an innate characteristic but rather it arises between a person and their surrounding environment, and that intelligence is developed during actions that are conducted to explore the environment. The balance between accommodation and assimilation, or imitation and play, leads to higher levels of cognitive functioning (Kolb 1984:12-23).

Kolb then writes:

> In Piaget's terms, the key to learning lies in the mutual interaction of the process of *accommodation* of concepts or schemas to experience in the world and the process of *assimilation* of events or experiences from the world into existing concepts and schemas (1984:23).

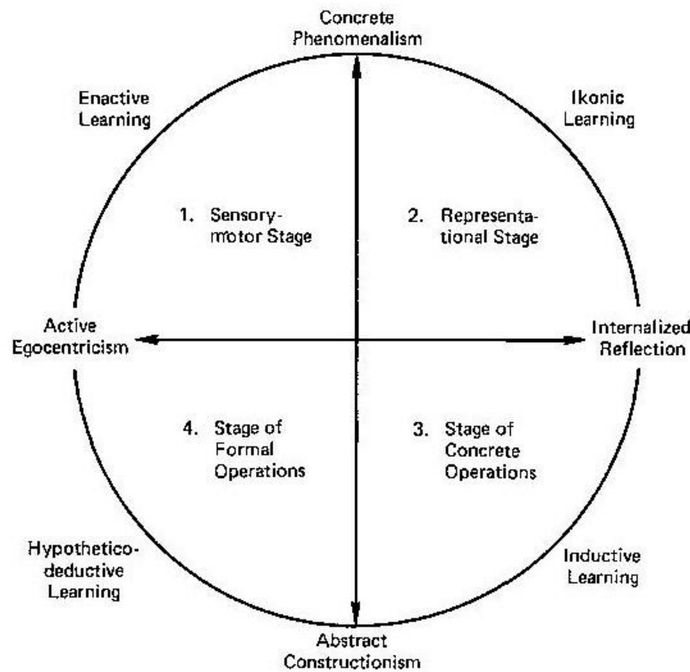

Figure 3: Piaget's Model of Learning and Cognitive Development (Kolb 1984:25)

When combined, these three models show that learning is a process, is continuously grounded in experience, requires repeated resolution of conflict between the concrete and the abstract, is holistic in the human experience, and requires interaction between people and their environment all in order to create new knowledge. Learning requires a person to think, feel, perceive, and behave all at once in response to everything within their environment. Students need to interact with the subject directly while using all of the facets of their cognitive abilities (Kolb 1984:25-38).

Chapter 4: Methods

This study examined how the addition of a unit that involved both archaeological inquiry and a more thorough history of Japanese American internment affected the academic performance and perceptions of ninth grade students. The supplementary curriculum *Common Ground: The Archaeology of Amache* was introduced to four classes of ninth grade students at Cherry Creek High School in Greenwood Village, Colorado. The students learned basic archaeological principles while investigating a recreated Amache block and various historic and scientific resources. These lessons were included as part of the World War II unit in a freshman (ninth grade) United States history course. The instruction and field research took place over a period of seven school days in February and March 2014.

Rationale and Assumptions for the Research Design

The purpose of this study was to create a streamlined and accessible educational unit that could be supplied to teachers in order to enhance learning under state standards and increase appreciation for archaeology and stewardship, all while highlighting a controversial and important part of United States history. Data collection techniques were designed to measure student learning and enjoyment as well as to understand how students perceived both archaeology and Japanese American internment. I either taught or co-taught these lessons and, because of this, was an integral part of the study.

Case Study Design

Three primary research questions guided the development and execution of my thesis research.

1. What areas of social studies curricula most benefit from the inclusion of archaeology?
    a. U.S. and world history are typically organized chronologically for simplicity. Can archaeological activities be inserted into these timelines efficiently?
    b. Government, economics, and world cultures courses are organized by subject. With no chronology, where can archaeological activities be inserted into these courses?
2. What archaeological methods are best suited for educational activities?
3. How effective are archaeological activities in improving learning under CCSS?

My original proposal focused on developing my curriculum guide within the framework of Common Core State Standards (CCSS). While CCSS are a useful set of standards, at the time of this research, they are the center of a highly debated political discussion. I wish for the results of my research to be both accessible and part of the current educational dialog for as long as possible. With this in mind, I altered my third research question and added specific sub-questions, the results of which are to be discussed in the next chapter, to the following:

3. How effective are archaeological activities in improving learning?
    a. Did student performance change between the pre-test and the post-test?
    b. Did any of the classes perform differently to a significant degree with

regards to the activities and assignments that were part of the curriculum?

c. Did students that participated in the case study perform differently on the cumulative unit exam than the students who were part of the control?
d. How did students utilize and synthesize the information provided in the case study, and what where their perceptions of internment and Japanese Americans by the end of the study?
e. What lessons did the students prefer, and which lessons did they dislike?

This study is described as a case study because it is limited by the size of the sample. For this study, the sample is comprised of all of Marjorie Hamburger's ninth grade United States History classes, and how the students experienced *Common Ground* is the "case" or the unit of study. Case studies do not have to be tied to any particular set of research methods and may include a wide variety of data gathering strategies which, in the case of *Common Ground*, are drawn from both an educational and anthropological background (Merriam 1998).

Role of the Researcher

I graduated from Eastern Illinois University in 2012 with a bachelor of arts in social science education and a minor in anthropology. It was my desire to combine my training as a social studies teacher and as an archaeologist in order to produce a product with my research that would improve the education of students and the public's understanding of both internment and archaeological stewardship.

In order to receive support and training in the specifics of archaeological education, I became involved in Project Archaeology in the summer of 2014, when I was accepted into the Project Archaeology Leadership Academy, a program founded by the U.S. Bureau of Land Management (BLM) in the early 1990's and endorsed by the National Council for the Social Studies. The goal of the one week seminar that year was to train teachers, museum educators, and archaeology educators in cultural heritage education. The organization has developed, along with several other curricular enhancements, a nine lesson curriculum guide called *Project Archaeology: Investigating Shelter* (Letts and Moe 2009). The seminar was led by Jeanne Moe, the Project Archaeology director, and Courtney Argenten, the special projects coordinator. The seminar explained how the curriculum guide could be effectively taught by directly teaching lessons with the invited educators as "students." The main goal of Project Archaeology is to further the public's understanding and appreciation of the discipline of archaeology. This is accomplished with an inquiry-based educational model that trains the students in high order thinking skills, including several unique activities that get teacher and students out of the habit of continuous lecture. The diverse activities are cross-curricular, which is highly desired by both teachers and administration (Project Archaeology 2016c). With this training and approval from Moe to use Project Archaeology's resources in my research, I began to construct my own seven lesson curriculum guide based on the archaeology of Amache.

Context of the Study

Site and Sample

Cherry Creek High School is located in Greenwood Village, Colorado and is part of the Cherry Creek School District. The school serves approximately 3,600 students in grades 9-12 (CCHS 2016a). My cooperating teacher, Marjorie Hamburger, taught four classes of ninth grade United States history with a total of 104 students. Research was primarily conducted with three classes (first period, fourth period, fifth period) with the fourth class acting as a control (sixth period) and only receiving survey questions and being taught Miss Hamburger's regularly scheduled unit lessons. First period included 27 students, fourth period included 29 students, and fifth period included 22 students. One student from sixth period opted to not participate as part of the study bringing the total number of students participating in the control group to 25 and the overall number of students participating to 103.

Curriculum Intervention

In order to make the best product possible, I drew upon all three of my academic backgrounds as well as the help of Project Archaeology. As an archaeologist, I evaluated archaeological concepts and materials for their content and educational benefit and used these materials to create the activities that students later participated in and completed. As an anthropologist, I conducted ethnographic research using student work from the three classes that I taught and observed. Investigating student responses that document the culture of the classroom is an effective way to gauge the perceptions and preferences that students have with regards to the material that is being taught. Student interest and

intrinsic motivation cannot be measured quantitatively, but ethnographic analysis can lead to insight on whether or not students enjoy a lesson or if they are having difficulty understanding the content or materials that they are required to engage. As an educator, I have had students complete various activities and exams yielding quantitative results that Miss Hamburger and I measured in the traditional grading scale.

1. Comparative study

I taught/co-taught three periods of freshman U.S. history using the materials created by myself and Miss Hamburger, and I observed a fourth period being taught Miss Hamburger's traditional pre-existing curriculum. This was done in order to compare the qualitative and quantitative data gathered from the new curriculum to the old curriculum.

2. Activity Creation

I created activities and assessments within Project Archaeology's framework using archaeological concepts and artifacts from my work as well as experience as a crew chief at the DU Amache Project field school that took place in the summer of 2014. Materials that I utilized in my curriculum guide include historic images, site forms, and specific artifacts gathered from a collector's pile that was discovered at the site. These artifacts had lost their provenience (the artifact's original location where a substantial amount of archaeological data can be derived) and, therefore, were designated to be used as an education collection by my advisor, Dr. Bonnie Clark. This collection and several other collected artifacts were photographed, and then those photographs were altered in Adobe Photoshop by fellow graduate student Matthew Golsch to appear more like images matching Project Archaeology's particular style. The educational collection and the subsequent photographs included a garden stone, ceramic insulators, a ceramic bottle,

ceramic sherds, a ceramic bowl, an aluminum bucket, a medicine bottle, and two ketchup bottles. Each lesson centered on a specific historical or archaeological topic: history and culture, relocation, scientific inquiry, classification, propaganda, stewardship, context, and research. Each of these lessons was introduced to Miss Hamburger prior to being taught to the students so that she was able to give final approval to whether or not they were appropriate for her classes. The curriculum is included in this thesis as Appendix A. Below, I outline each lesson in further detail:

a. Lesson 1: History and Culture (02/20/2015)

The purpose of this lesson is for students to review their previous knowledge involving the history of Asian immigration to the United States and how the cultural climate that developed in response led to internment. Students listened to the lecture and discussed as a class the events leading to internment and the concept of culture. At the beginning of these class periods, the archaeology pre-test was distributed for students to complete.

b. Lesson 2: Packing Your Suitcase (02/23/2015)

In this lesson, students first completed a short reading from *The Art of Gaman* (Hirasuna and Hinrichs 2005:10-13) about the experience of relocation and became introduced to the concept of how everyday items become artifacts. During this lesson, on a handout, students filled their own fictional "suitcases" with items that were important to them. Afterward, students learned and discussed the process of relocation by the U.S. government.

c. Lesson 3: Observation, Evidence, and Inference (02/24/2015)

Students began this lesson by learning about how different Japanese Americans resisted and coped with internment. Specifically, students discovered the service of the 442nd

infantry regiment and the Supreme Court case, *Korematsu v. United States*. Afterward, students investigated several historic images of Amache while using the tools of scientific and historical inquiry: observation, evidence, and inference.

d. Lesson 4: Classification (02/25/2015)

This lesson begins with an activity where students classified various artifact images into different groups in order to learn about how archaeologists begin work in the laboratory. After the completion of this activity, using the same methods as lesson 3, students learned about propaganda and how it is used during wartime by investigating WWII propaganda posters.

e. Lesson 5: Stewardship, Taking Care of Your Sites (02/26/2015)

Stewardship of archaeological sites and artifacts is the responsibility of not just archaeologists but the surrounding communities and society. Students were introduced to the laws that protect archaeological and historical sites and were instructed on how to treat sites when they find them. NOTE: This lesson may best fit towards the end of the curriculum guide, but due to scheduling constraints this lesson was moved a few days ahead during a half-day for CCHS.

f. Lesson 6: Context (02/27/2015)

This lesson consisted of an activity that lasted the entire class period. Using a painter's tarp that was detailed with a replica of an Amache block, students investigated and then discussed artifacts that were distributed across it. The purpose of this activity was for students to learn how archaeologists study the objects that people leave behind in context with one another in order to learn about the people of the past and how they lived.

g. Lesson 7: Being an Archaeologist (03/02/2015)

In the final lesson, students were given the entire class period, after completing the post-test, to investigate four resources. The purpose was for students to synthesize what they had learned in the previous lessons in the form of a two page narrative that was based off of four sources that were provided in a resource packet. The resources included a brief history of Amache involving its demographic and economic production, an archaeological draft map detailing artifacts and features, an oral history from former internee George Hirano, and four historic images of Amache. Students were given two days to write the narrative outside of class.

3. Quantitative Data

   a. Formative assessment takes place at the beginning of a class or a particular unit and continues until the class or unit is nearly complete. This data is used to determine if students are keeping up with both the new and old curricula. The defining feature of the formative assessment is that it evaluates a curriculum while it is in the process of being taught so that the instructors can make necessary changes before the unit or class ends (Dana, Burns, and Wolkenhauer 2013:23). Formative assessment was conducted in the form of:

      i. Pre-tests- short, simple tests that are conducted not for a grade but for measuring current student knowledge

      ii. Worksheets- short assignments that can be completed individually and without the presence of an instructor

      iii. Multi-day project- A two page narrative was assigned at the end of

the last class. Students were given the majority of the class to conduct their own research using the four sources that were provided. This assignment required more time than a single class period for a student to complete. This assignment was particularly useful in measuring critical thinking skills and how well the students have synthesized information. This assignment also yielded qualitative data such as student perception of internment.

   b. Summative Assessment takes place at the end of a unit or class and usually takes the form of a test or exam in secondary education. It measures how effectively the class or unit was taught with regards to the assigned material. Once completed, formative and summative assessment can be combined to produce a total data set for the class that can be evaluated individually or as a whole (Dana, Burns, and Wolkenhauer 2013:23). In this research, summative assessment was conducted in the form of World War II unit exam and post-tests.

4. Qualitative Data

   a. I conducted participant observation in the form of teaching, co-teaching, and classroom observation. The data gathered from this was recorded every day that I was present in the school for the duration of the study. I recorded my observations and kept the data in a field journal. Specific student identification was avoided through the use of coded language and a key. These notes were organized by date and by lesson. At the beginning of class I used questions to both inform my experience and act as an ice

breaker on a daily basis and any information gathered was acquired from entire classes rather than individuals. The questions focused on whether or not the students held particular interests, for example, in archaeology and science and whether they found lesson activities appropriately challenging. Individual pressure was minimized in these interviews since they were conducted as a class, determined by a majority, and individual participation was not be required (i.e. asking the class to raise their hands)

b. The narrative data source was the result of the final lesson in my curriculum guide. While the assignment was graded with regards to Miss Hamburger's typical grading scale, I conducted qualitative analysis by rereading the student narratives, identifying patterns, and eventually grouping the data into the following seven emergent themes: history, archaeology, oral history, historic images, perception of internment, perception of Japanese Americans, and miscellaneous. The first four themes, which were focused on sources, were evaluated in terms of student utilization as part of an analysis of the effectiveness of the curriculum guide. The last three themes were investigated in order to discover the cultural state of the student body.

c. In order to document student interest and intrinsic motivation directly, a short, two-question survey (with space for additional comments) was given for the students to complete anonymously and voluntarily after I had completed the last lesson.

Data Collection Techniques

Pre-test/Post-test & Grades

The student grades from the study consisted of a pre-test paired with a post-test, four assignments, and the World War II unit exam. The assignments included the "Essential Question Discussion" from lesson one, the "Packing Your Suitcase" worksheet from lesson two, the "Propaganda Film Handout" from lesson four, and the Amache narrative from lesson seven (See Appendix A).

Student Narrative

The seven lesson study culminated in a research exercise that required students to conduct their own holistic archaeological analysis. Students were instructed to write a two page narrative that described what daily life in Amache would have been like using evidence provided from four resources. The resources included an historic document written by Bonnie Clark, an archaeological map of artifacts and features, an oral history from George Hirano, and a group of historic images consisting of three photographs and one silkscreen-produced image. Students were required to focus their analysis on how both adults and children resisted and coped with internment while using all four sources that were provided. Analysis of these narratives is centered on how students utilized the resources provided and their perceptions involving internment and Japanese Americans.

Survey Analysis

Soon after I had completed research at Cherry Creek High School, Miss Hamburger distributed an anonymous opinion survey to the students on my behalf. The survey had two questions and a space for additional comments, "what was your favorite

lesson or activity and why?" and "what was your least favorite lesson or activity and why?" Students were informed that answering the questions was not required. Student responses were tallied and analyzed using heat maps (based off of counts) in order to find concentrations.

Informed Consent

The Institutional Review Board granted my research an exemption on August 12th, 2014 due to the project involving a public school district which would institute its own investigation. The Cherry Creek Schools Office of Assessment and Evaluation approved my research application on November 4th, 2014, stating that the study complied with accepted research practices, procedures, and guidelines. The application to the Cherry Creek School district included an Informed Consent Form for students, which is located in Appendix B.

Data Management

Anonymity of the subjects was maintained through the use of coding. Student names were replaced by pseudonyms involving a letter representing the class that they belonged to and a randomized number. My personal research notes referred to particular classes as a whole and did not reference individual students. Student documents, grades, and research notes were stored within the secure archaeology laboratory at the University of Denver Department of Anthropology and the research carrels inside of the Anderson Academic Commons.

Data Analysis Procedures

Analysis began quickly with grading and returning student work so they might receive proper feedback in order to perform well in their upcoming exam of the entire World War II unit and in other academic endeavors. Daily observations were kept in a field journal which aided in adapting my instruction as the study progressed.

After all these data were collected, analysis of student grades took place in the form of statistical analysis using a t-test and an ANOVA test.

A statistical analysis of the pre-tests and post-tests was completed with the goal of discovering whether or not there was a difference in student performance between the two. A paired comparison t-test was utilized for this analysis since the test is effective in determining differences between groups that are independent of one another (in this case, students before lessons/students after lessons) (Quirk 2012).

In order to check my work with regards to how I taught each class, as well as whether I remained consistent in my role as an educator and researcher, I needed to detect if there was a change in student academic performance between the three classes that I taught. If there was a change I would have to conduct further analysis to see what caused that change and how it affected student performance. In order to do this I ran an ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) single factor test which is used to determine if there is a significant difference between three or more groups (Quirk 2012). This test analyzed the classes as a unit rather than the individual students. Further research may include a study of individual student variance. I combined the overall grades from the four assignments and the exam into a new category called “Unit Total” for each period.

One of the research methods that I outlined within the proposal of this study was to include a comparative study between the three classes that I taught and a control period that would be taught the curriculum that Miss Hamburger regularly teaches. The purpose of this was to see if the inclusion of this short seven lesson curriculum altered student performance within the larger World War II unit in any way. This was also analyzed using an ANOVA single factor test.

Analysis of the student narrative was undertaken in the form of finding themes within the narrative and an overall examination of the significance of each theme. Themes can be found through the prior understanding of the data and through expressions of data. In this case study, the themes were grouped under preexisting categories and through the repetitions and missing data (Bernard and Ryan 2010). There were seven overall themes discovered. These themes were based partially upon the structure of the assignment as well as the perceptions that students included in their work. Four of these themes focused on how students did or did not utilize sources as well as how students understood the four resources provided as part of the assignment (an historical resource, an archaeological resource, an oral history, and historic images). Three of these themes focused on the perception of various subjects (Internment, Japanese Americans, and miscellaneous quotes of significance).

Once my seven days teaching this curriculum were completed, students were given a survey that included questions asking student preference of lessons, as well as an opportunity for further comments.

Summary

This case study involved the development and testing of a seven lesson curriculum. This curriculum utilized historic, archaeological, and oral source material all in order to enhance learning and increase appreciation for archaeology, the stewardship of sites, as well increase the public awareness of the military strategy of confining whole populations as part of United States History.

A total of 103 students and one cooperating teacher participated in this study. Data was analyzed through the use of quantitative statistics and qualitative themes. All of the research methods have been described in this chapter, the results of which will be detailed in Chapter Five.

Chapter 5: Results

I began this research project with the goal of creating and implementing a supplemental social studies curriculum that highlighted the archaeology of Japanese Internment. As I undertook my research, I adapted methods to suit my situation while still operating with the goal of measuring the effect of new archaeological based activities on student performance, understanding, perception, and preference.

In the previous chapter, I outlined the particular methods of this case study. In this chapter, I present the results of the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data and how those results answer my research questions. In the next chapter, I discuss the implications of these results in detail. My initial three research questions were either answered in a way that would not provide any meaningful data or were altered to enable more in depth research.

1. What areas of social studies curricula most benefit from the inclusion of archaeology?
    a. U.S. and world history are typically organized chronologically for simplicity. Can archaeological activities be inserted into these timelines efficiently?
    b. Government, economics, and world cultures courses are organized by subject. With no chronology, where can archaeological activities be

inserted into these courses?

This question was answered early when I contacted the teacher that I would later work with, Marjorie Hamburger. She indicated that she would be able to make time for my curriculum guide during the World War II unit of her freshman U.S. history course. This is because she desired to develop the domestic front of the war to include a thorough discussion of issues of social justice involving internment. Marjorie Hamburger was my only cooperating teacher, and during the 2014-2015 school year, she taught four periods of freshman U.S. history. In this study, I was able to easily insert the lessons into the WWII unit of the US history course based on the schedule of my cooperating teacher. Because I was only able to work with one teacher, it is unclear whether or not this could be easily inserted into all US and World history course timelines. Further research is required to explore part b of my first research question since I did not have access to those courses.

2. What archaeological methods are best suited for educational activities?

My work with Project Archaeology, was helpful in answering this research question. A number of useful activities developed by Project Archaeology could be adapted to bring archaeology into most classrooms. Since they had already developed a curriculum structure and studied its effects as part of a dissertation (Moe 2011), I shifted the focus of my research to how such activities could be adapted to a ninth grade audience under a new academic subject, Japanese American internment.

3. How effective are archaeological activities in improving learning?
    a. Did student performance change between the pre-test and the post-test?
    b. Did any of the classes perform differently to a significant degree with

regards to the activities and assignments that were part of the curriculum?

c. Did students that participated in the case study perform differently on the cumulative unit exam than the students who were part of the control?

d. How did students utilize and synthesize the information provided in the case study, and what where their perceptions of Internment and Japanese Americans by the end of the study

e. What lessons did the students, prefer and which lessons did they dislike?

Question 3 (and its five sub-questions) was the primary foundation for the subsequent data analysis whose results will now be detailed in this chapter. These results describe the overall effects that this curriculum had with the students in various classes.

Question 3a: Did student performance change between the pre-test and the post-test?

The results of the t-test demonstrated that there was a significant difference between the two groups. The average overall score of the tests also rose 2.2948 points, though variance also rose by 1.78505 points. Some students performed better on the post-test compared to the pre-test to a statistically significant degree, though some may have performed worse (See Table 1).

The student average of the pre-test was a score of 10.54, and the student average of the post-test was 12.83. There appears to be a possible increase in the student average, but the paired comparison t-test was necessary to discover if that change is significant. My hypotheses for the tests are the following:

H_0- There is no difference between the archaeology pre-test scores from the beginning of the unit compared to the post-test scores from the end of the unit.

H_1- There is a significant difference between the archaeology pre-test scores from the beginning of the unit compared to the post-test scores from the end of the unit.

Table 1: Pre-test/Post-test Paired Comparison t-Test Results.

α =.05	*Pre-test*	*Post-test*
Mean	10.5385	12.8333
Variance	4.84915	6.6342
Observations	78	78
Pearson Correlation	0.23355	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
Degrees of Freedom	77	
t Stat	-6.8191	
P(T<=t) one-tail	9.1E-10	
t Critical one-tail	1.66488	
P(T<=t) two-tail	1.8E-09	
t Critical two-tail	1.99125	

The calculated value of t (6.8191) is greater than the critical two-tail t value (1.99125). This means that the null hypothesis can be refuted. There is a significant difference between the archaeology pre-test scores from the beginning of the unit compared to the post-test scores from the end of the unit. That difference is a 2.2948 increase in the average score.

Question 3b: Did any of the classes perform significantly differently with regards to the activities and assignments that were part of the curriculum?

The results for the test showed that there was no significant difference between the compiled grades of each period due to a failure to meet the critical value needed (See Table 2). The hypotheses for the test were:

H_0- There is no difference between the compiled grades of each period.

H_1- There is a significant difference between the compiled grades of each period.

Table 2: ANOVA Single Factor Test Results for Periods 1, 4, and 5 Overall Grades.

Groups	*Count*	*Sum*	*Average*	*Variance*		
1st Period	27	2364	87.5556	294.891		
4th Period	29	2449.5	84.4655	302.338		
5th Period	22	2110.5	95.9318	472.269		
Source of Variation	***SS***	***df***	***MS***	***F***	***P-value***	***F crit***
Between Groups	1705.57	2	852.783	2.4552	0.09272	3.11864
Within Groups	26050.3	75	347.337			
a =.05						
Total	27755.8	77				

The calculated F value (2.4552) is less than the critical F value (3.11864). After running the ANOVA test, it is apparent the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. There is no significant difference between the compiled grades of each period. While the class average fluctuated between each period, there was nothing that demanded further analysis.

Question 3c: Did students that participated in the case study perform differently on the cumulative unit exam than the students who were part of the control?

The results of the ANOVA single factor test between the exam scores of the three classes that experienced my supplemental curriculum and the class that did not as part of the control showed that there was no significant difference between the two groups (See Table 3). The hypotheses for this test were outlined as such:

H_0- There is no difference between the exam grades of the four periods of U.S. history.

H_1- There is a significant difference between the exam grades of the four periods of U.S. history.

Table 3: ANOVA Single Factor Test Results for WWII Unit Exam Scores.

Groups	*Count*	*Sum*	*Average*	*Variance*		
1st Period	27	1616	59.8519	107.054		
4th Period	29	1688	58.2069	192.67		
5th Period	22	1412	64.1818	293.68		
6th Period	25	1540	61.6	350.667		
Source of Variation	***SS***	***df***	***MS***	***F***	***P-value***	***F crit***
Between Groups	486.484	3	162.161	0.70531	0.55107	2.69647
Within Groups	22761.4	99	229.914			
a =.05						
Total	23247.9	102				

The calculated value of F (0.70531) is less than the critical value of F (2.69647). The null hypothesis cannot be refuted. There is no significant difference between the exam grades of all four periods.

Question 3d: How did students utilize and synthesize the information provided in the case study, and what were their perceptions of internment and Japanese Americans by the end of the study?

The seven lessons of *Common Ground* were meant to prepare students for the final activity where they explored four provided resources in order to synthesize a short narrative that comprised of what they learned about Amache. Student's tended to rely on the historic source for the information in their narrative and less on resources that they had not yet regularly utilized in their academic careers (See Figure 4).

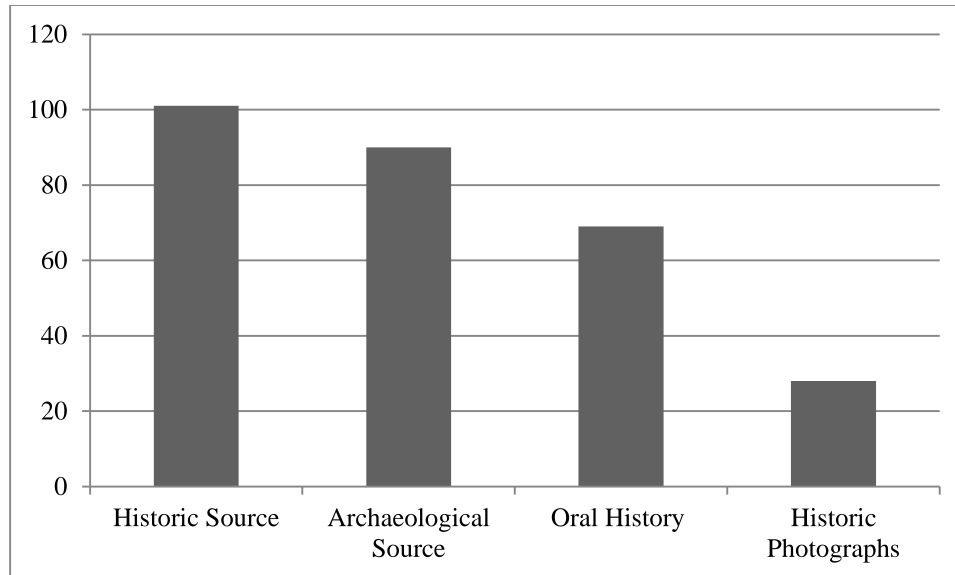

Figure 4: Chart of the Number of Times Each Source was used in the Total Number of Student Narratives.

History

The first resource in the student narratives was an historical document titled, "Amache (Granada) – The WRA Camp". This is a one page document that details the demographics of the internment camp and the resources produced by Amache's two industries, agriculture and the silkscreen production of posters.

Students relied on this document primarily for direct or paraphrased quotes involving population, agricultural production, and silkscreen production. The majority of references were either relating to agricultural or silkscreen production. Quotes such as, "in 1943 alone, the inmate farmers produced approximately 4 million pounds of vegetables, over 50,000 bushels of field crops, as well as successfully raising a wide range of livestock" (student B18) and "the internees at Amache would produce 250,000 color posters along with calendars and programs under a contract with the navy [sic]"

(student D11) were frequent. Students also chose to write about Amache's population and religious demographics to a lesser extent (See Figure 5).

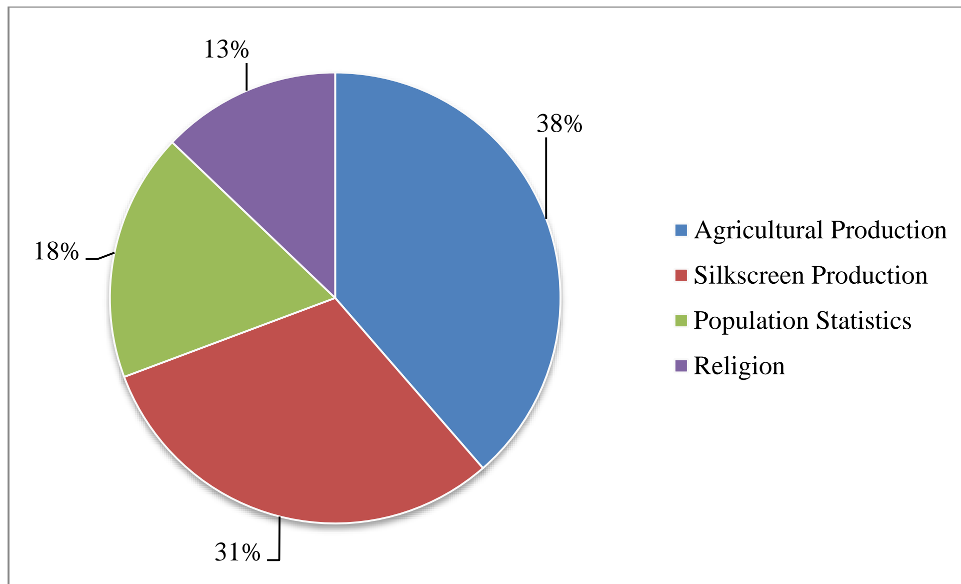

Figure 5: Proportion of Student Historic References.

It is interesting that students relied on the historic resource so heavily, with the dominant reference being the agricultural production of Amache. Student's had a tendency to use the quotes involving raw numbers the most frequently.

Archaeology

The archaeological data source that was provided to students was a draft map that displayed Amache Block 8F. A crew of University of Denver students surveyed Block 8F, including myself, in the summer of 2014 during the DU Amache Project field school. The map was labeled with relevant information, including the artifact distribution and location of garden features, which had been discussed during the previous lessons.

In order to write something of significance about the draft map, students would have to make inferences about the distribution and location of both artifacts and gardens. While some students still relied on mentioning that certain artifacts or gardens were present, others made inferences about the people of Amache based on the context of features and artifacts (See Figure 6). "There are also artifacts scattered throughout the map. Many of these artifacts were used in the everyday lives of the people who lived there. For example, we can see there is a metal fishing net on the map, indicating someone went fishing, while a garden infers they gardened. The artifacts also help us assume where certain things happened in certain places. Where we find marbles, we can assume that location was where children went to play…" (Student D18).

While the inferences made by this student were not particularly elaborate, they demonstrate the knowledge that archaeological analysis relies on context. While many students did not directly make inferences, they still discussed children's play areas frequently based on the objects that children left behind as well as the internees' heavy reliance on gardening. Student C16 wrote, "the map from the packet depicted that there were lots of gardens and that even though the people of Amache were living in the desert, they still made the land look beautiful with their amazing agricultural skills."

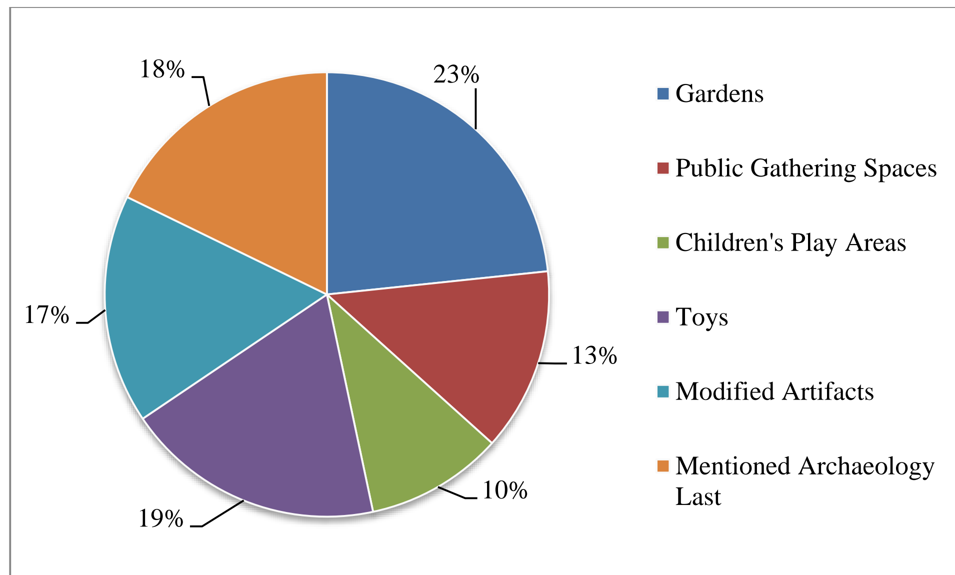

Figure 6: Proportion of Student Archaeological References.

Despite the fact that most of the students discussed and explored the evidence provided in the draft map, sixteen of the narratives only mentioned archaeology in the last paragraph of the narrative without discussing any conclusions that could be drawn from it.

Oral History

The source that students seemed to readily and thoroughly engage with consistently was the oral history provided by George Hirano (DU Amache Project). In this source, Hirano describes what life was like for him entering and living in the internment camp when he was 13. George went to school, helped with chores, played sports, and strived to live the best life possible under the harsh circumstances of the camp.

Students most effectively addressed how the people of Amache resisted and coped with internment using this source. The most frequently quoted or paraphrased

topics from the oral history were George's struggles with his family, the family rules of "Go to school. Be the best," and his desire to play all the American sports. The most discussed topic about George's childhood was his love of American sports, with nearly half of the narratives addressing it (49 percent, see Figure 7).

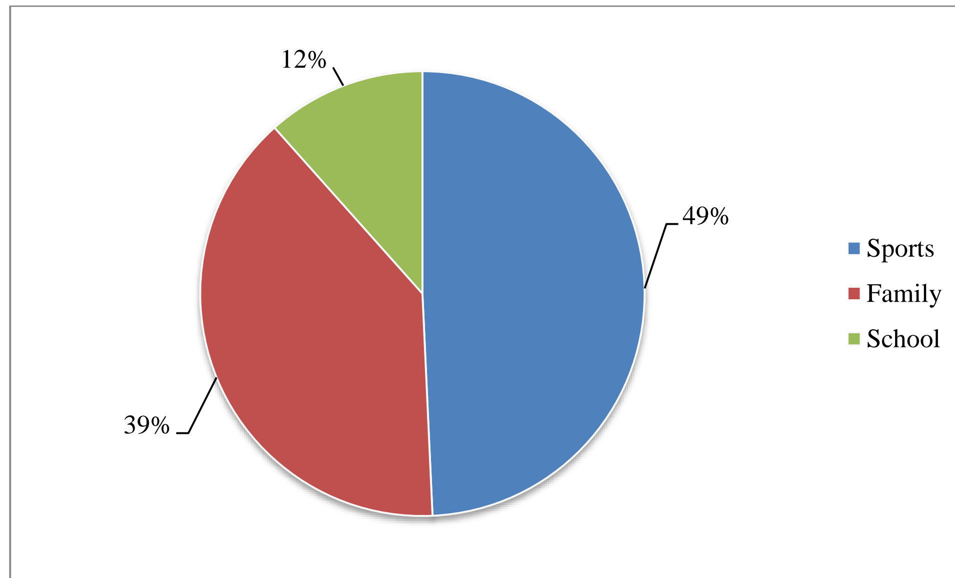

Figure 7: Proportion of Student Oral History References.

One of the students remarked in the anonymous survey (later discussed in detail in this chapter) that George's narrative was their favorite part of the study. "Believe it or not writing the narrative was my favorite activity because I got to learn more about how the internees actually lived within the camps. Also, because one of the sources was actually written by an internee which to me was really cool."

Historic Images

The collection of historic images was the least utilized or explored by students. The images consisted of a silkscreen production of the Amache water tower, a photograph of people producing silkscreen images in the shop, a photograph of most of Amache taken from the height of the water tower, and a photo of trees and gardens located next to some barracks (see Lesson 7 in Appendix A).

Students had been prepped for this part of the assignment during lesson 3, "Observation, Evidence and Inference." Students were supposed to write about the details of Amache life that they could learn from the images, but most students did not use the source at all. Only twenty-eight narratives discussed the images at any length (39 percent). Students wrote about the Amache water tower, gardening and trees, space and privacy, and the silkscreen shop (See Figure 8) in very direct and brief references, if discussed at all. The most thoroughly discussed images were the ones that involved the water tower. Student C20 wrote, "A photo of Amache from above displays subtle resistance as well. No one was allowed on top of the water tower, but someone decided to climb it regardless." Student C18 also discussed the resistance through photography, "In one of the pictures we can see that this picture must have been taken from high above, either on a roof or from the top of a water tower. The internees were not allowed to be on the top of the water tower so they obviously had to be resisting the rules to take the picture."

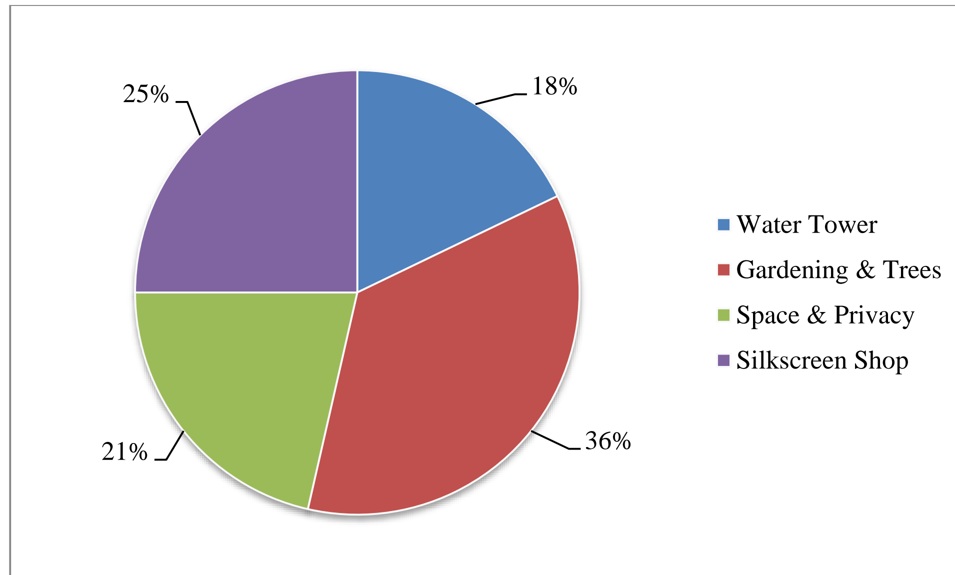

Figure 8: Proportion of References to Historic Images.

Due to their infrequent use, I inferred that students seemed hesitant to make inferences based upon the historic photographs as part of their narrative. The students that did utilize the photos focused on what was present in the photograph and not why or how what was seen was significant.

Perception of Internment

Student perception of the act of interning Japanese Americans was overwhelmingly negative. Several students used words and phrases such as "shameful," "inhumane," "dehumanizing," or "against American values." Many students commented on the upstanding behavior of Japanese Americans despite the situation. Several students commented on the fact that the internees "thrived" and worked hard to effectively prove their loyalty even when they should not have had to. "The internment of Japanese Americans was not only about the dates and rational for detention, or the number of camps and the number of people they held, but rather the amazing resourcefulness, tolerance, and loyalty of the Japanese Americans was revealed…" (Student C21).

Despite the majority's negative reaction to internment, there was still some rationalization of the event. "Even though the camp's intent was to keep people of Japanese heritage detained during WWII, it provided the people with a safe living space with food and shelter. There was no real violence that was intended towards the people in the camp from the guards" (Student C10).

Perception of Japanese Americans

In the same way that most students perceived internment in a negative light, most students spoke of Japanese Americans very positively. For example, Student C4 had this to say about Japanese Americans: "…the Japanese people have benefitted society in many huge ways. They helped the agriculture greatly, and helped the military by giving them huge amounts of food to be sent to the troops." Other students pointed out the fact that they were no different than other Americans. "We were mistaken, these people were Americans like us, but our fear and judgmental mindset led us to thinking differently…These people were and will always be a part of this country" (Student D18).

Despite the fact that most students viewed the Japanese Americans as no different than other American citizens, some students still registered difficulty in not making that distinction. Student C11 states, "At the beginning of the war, the Americans had thought that the Japanese would rebel, create riots, and or damage the camp."

Miscellaneous

There are several student quotes that deserve to be discussed but do not quite fit into any other category. The first is a quote from student B5, "Amache wasn't a place you wanted to go, but it was nothing to the concentration camps. Internment camps were no comparison to the concentration camps." This student is making the same flawed argument that many have made. The idea is that since the American internment camps were not as severe as German concentration camps, that internment can be easily dismissed as an issue that is no longer relevant or a threat to American citizens.

This statement is contrasted by one made by another student. “Even though conditions weren’t as bad as the Holocaust German concentration camps what the United States did to these individuals should not be looked passed [sic] it was dehumanizing and we can not [sic] let this incident happen again” (Student D9). It is interesting that only two students made the comparison of American internment camps to German concentration camps, and those students each took up a different interpretation of the juxtaposition. One student (C2) even called the internment camps concentration camps without being prompted. “The people of Amache were forced to move… to concentration camps all around the West coast.”

<u>Question 3e: What lessons did the students prefer, and which lessons did they dislike?</u>

Data regarding student preference was gathered through a voluntary anonymous survey administered the week after the supplementary curriculum was completed. The survey included the questions “What was your favorite lesson or activity and why?” and “What was your least favorite lesson or activity and why?” Room was provided for additional comments, some of which were included in these results (See Table 4).

Table 4: Student Survey Results Represented by Heat Maps.

Liked	Period 1	Period 4	Period 5	Total
Lesson 1	1	1	0	2
Lesson 2	0	0	0	0
Lesson 3	2	0	1	3
Lesson 4	1	1	3	5
Lesson 5	0	0	0	0
Lesson 6	13	19	14	46
Lesson 7	0	1	1	2
Notes & Lecture	0	0	0	0
Everything	1	0	0	1

Disliked	Period 1	Period 4	Period 5	Total
Lesson 1	1	1	2	4
Lesson 2	0	0	0	0
Lesson 3	1	0	0	1
Lesson 4	1	2	2	5
Lesson 5	1	1	0	2
Lesson 6	0	0	0	0
Lesson 7	1	1	2	4
Notes & Lecture	8	12	4	24
Everything	1	1	1	3

Liked by Most
Liked by Some
Liked by None

Disliked by Most
Disliked by Some
Disliked by None

The lesson that students overwhelmingly preferred (78 percent) was lesson six "Context". The activity that students indicated that they disliked was note taking and lecture (56 percent).

Discussion

Each of my research questions was addressed by this data analysis. Most of the students showed an improvement in their performance between the pre-test and the post-test and there was not a significant difference in the grades of each of the classes that experienced the supplemental curriculum or between those classes and the control class that did not experience *Common Ground*. Students were able to utilize each of their resources in their narrative about Amache, with the general exception of the historic photographs. After learning an in-depth history of interment and Amache, students perceived of the process very negatively and the people experiencing it very positively.

Question 3a: Did student performance change between the pre-test and the post-test?

The students' scores were statistically significant on the post-test when compared to the scores of the pre-test, but the variance in student scores also increased. The change in student scores could be attributed to the introduction and discussion of archaeology in the unit. This is important to the overall case study because it verifies that the basic archaeological concepts that were introduced in the supplementary curriculum were retained by some of the students (though possibly not all) and that some misconceptions about archaeology and the stewardship of sites had been sufficiently addressed in order to change some of these misconceptions.

Question 3b: Did any of the classes perform significantly differently with regards to the activities and assignments that were part of the curriculum?

According to the results detailed in the previous chapter, there was no statistical difference in the student performance of each class that experienced the supplementary curriculum. If the academic performance of one of the classes had stood out in this analysis, further study would have been required in order to determine the cause, regardless of whether or not the difference was a decline or an increase in academic performance. Consistency in the academic performance of students is likely as much of a reflection of myself as an educator as it is a reflection of the quality of *Common Ground*.

Question 3c: Did students that participated in the case study perform differently on the cumulative unit exam than the students who were part of the control?

There was no significant difference in the exam grades of the four periods of U.S. history that were part of this study. This result is meaningful to my research because it

demonstrates that teachers can include archaeology and an extended history of Japanese American internment without it affecting the academic performance of their students. While it would have been fortunate if the addition of these new lessons and activities brought about a positive increase in the students exam scores when compared to the control class, I believe it is just as fortunate that there was not a decrease in these exam scores. Many teachers might be hesitant to try a supplementary curriculum such as *Common Ground* because they might be worried such a change may disrupt their classroom. Student performance with regards to the rest of the WWII unit will not suffer from the inclusion of a small unit featuring archaeology.

Question 3d: How did students utilize and synthesize the information provided in the case study, and what were their perceptions of Internment and Japanese Americans by the end of the study?

History

Students tend to rely on practices that have provided them success in the past. Since they were already acquainted with how to write essays in history classes, these results are in line with student training and ability at this stage in their academic careers. While the Colorado state standards for history seek to prepare "students to develop critical thinking skills in an effort to explain the human experience through events of the past" (The Colorado Department of Education 2015), students still tend to rely on some form of quotation to show that they have read the material. The other resources provided were less quotable and relied on students to make their own inferences.

Archaeology

Making original conclusions based on evidence is something that social studies educators strive to teach students at the high school level. Several students demonstrated this ability, yet there were many that struggled to engage the material. This could be related to the student habit of relying on reiterated facts to complete assignments in a way similar to relying on statistical quotes with regards to the historical source already discussed. For instance, one student (Student D11) relied on both the statistics, “4 million pounds of vegetables” and “250,000 color posters”, and a very brief discussion of archaeology at the end of their paper, “I learned all of this through archaeology”. In order for students to become more comfortable with making inferences based on archaeological data, they likely need more practice and feedback in doing so. These results reflect the level of immersion reached in seven lessons.

Oral History

Students enjoyed reading and applying the oral history to their research because the content was relatable and easily understood, whether it be George’s participation in sports, his work with chores, or his family struggles, such as if you ate with your parents you were considered a “sissy”. A common issue with history classes that students have to overcome is a lack of empathy for the people of the past. This is difficult since the information can easily be presented in an unimaginative way. Eric R. Wolf’s (2013) argument for the importance of a holistic examination of humanity in the social sciences is substantiated here. Because an oral history was included as part of their research, students were able to include social relations in their analysis of this historic event and

come to more thoughtful conclusions about Amache as a whole. Oral histories have a potential to provide students with a powerful connection to history if presented correctly. Connecting students with the stories of real people in their own words is an effective method that can be utilized in history and archaeology curricula as well as the other social study disciplines.

Historic Images

The Colorado Department of Education (2015) details that the study of history enables students to develop the skills for "discerning clarity from the jumble of conflicting facts and sources, students get a clearer picture of how individuals, communities, and the world connect, both past and present." Overall, students struggled with coming to original conclusions with regards to historic images in the same way that they struggled with investigating the draft map but to a greater degree. This is neither a shortcoming on the part of the students nor with the sources themselves. Students at this grade level are just beginning to be consistently challenged with tasks involving higher order thinking (answering how and why rather than just who, what, when, and where). Another way of describing this is through David R. Krathwohl's (2003) revisions of Bloom's Taxonomy in his categories of analyzing, evaluating, and creating. Rather than being the marker of a deficiency in the students' education, I believe that this is simply an indicator of their status as high school freshmen.

Perception of Internment

The negative perception of internment that was held by a majority of the students demonstrates the effectiveness of the unit in connecting students with the people of the past in order to empathize with the Japanese Americans. The minority of students that rationalized the event shows that it will take more than one seven day unit to alter perceptions of drastic measures taken in the name of national defense during wartime. Despite this, the impact of this case study is clear: students are more able to make thoughtful and empathetic connections to the people of the past when they have greater access to both the historical context and the voices of the people that experienced those events. Such connections are invaluable in present day American culture where the cultural outsider is constantly shifting based upon current events.

Perception of Japanese Americans & Miscellaneous

It is clear that a seven lesson unit will not totally extinguish differentiation between who is American and who is not, but the discussion is an important one to have. Many students evidenced in their writings an empathy for Japanese Americans and, in some cases, admiration (such as Student C4 who wrote how they contributed to American society). It is also interesting that this dichotomy was represented in the terminology that students used in describing Amache. Most students used the term "internment camp" matching the language of the unit, but not all. The debate between the types of camps and the usage of the terms "internment" and "concentration" will continue long after this case study is completed and shared.

For those who justified the actions of the U.S government, the best remedy is likely more personal experience with different cultures within the U.S. In order for a greater level of cross-cultural empathy and understanding within the United States to take place, education, including a thorough historic/archaeological context incorporating the voices of real people, must extend past one supplementary unit to the entire educational experience.

Question 3e: What lessons did the students prefer, and which lessons did they dislike?

Lesson six, “Context”, was the lesson that students overwhelmingly preferred, and the activities that the largest number of students indicated that they disliked were note taking and lecture. These results are interesting because these two choices are essentially opposites. Lesson six was the only lesson not to have a grade or require notes. It required students to get up and move around the classroom while they investigated the replicated Amache block. Students were able to make their own assessments about artifacts and were able to analyze objects from the perspective of the Japanese Americans, which is the same style of inquiry as the concept of Materiality as described by Timothy Taylor (2008).

Lesson six also had a foundation constructed in the earlier lessons of the unit that gave students the experience they needed to attempt to synthesize possible Internee experiences tied to the “artifacts”. Students had encountered the subject of archaeology repeatedly in the five lessons leading to this lesson in context, which is the process that was advocated by David A. Kolb (1984). In history classes, usually against a teacher’s best efforts, the material regularly relies on note taking and lecture. Students want to do

something different and active rather than be told the details of history. In order to create meaningful experiences, students must have a foundation of knowledge and experience to rely upon during new activities. Students want to have an active experience involving history.

Chapter 6: Conclusions

My time with the students and staff of Cherry Creek High School was as enjoyable as it was invaluable to my research. Many students were excited to have conversations about archaeology and internment, especially once they were able to make connections to the past in new ways as part of this supplemental curriculum. Students enjoyed experiencing different ways of learning and relished any chance that they had to get up out of their seats and get active. Students really enjoyed investigating the recreated Amache block in lesson six, and the conversations that we had about internment after their investigations facilitated a great review. Students were able to place themselves in the role of an interred American while simultaneously creating their own hypotheses about the past. I believe that in order for students to take the lessons that history teaches us to heart, they must first realize that they are partial owners and stewards of the past. Being able to make personal connections allowed students the opportunity to accept some of this responsibility. Lesson six involved the least amount of data recorded for analysis, but I feel that was the lesson that brought the whole unit together.

It is very important to find creative ways for students to stop and consider the information that they have been taught, and it is sometimes difficult for teachers to balance the time needed for that type of cognitive synthesis along with every other unit that needs to still be taught and then followed up by assessments. I believe that I was able

to produce a useful and accessible product that allows for a U.S. history course to take its time considering the impacts that prejudice, uncertainty, and fear can have on civil rights, and now that product can be distributed to both educators and community members. Marjorie Hamburger and the district administration of Cherry Creek High School will receive copies of this completed thesis (including the curriculum) so that they may examine and use this product however they see fit.

Before the completion of this thesis, I had the privilege of attending an Amache reunion in Las Vegas, Nevada in the spring of 2015. During the reunion, several attendees expressed interest in this project and signed up to receive the curriculum itself. I was excited for this opportunity because it would allow *Common Ground* to be vetted by stakeholders in the Japanese American community, which I considered to be a critical step in this project's process. Since I have shared *Common Ground,* several community members have contacted me in a variety of ways, including a personal telephone call, email correspondence, and even a "Thank You" card. Robert (Bob) Fuchigami sent a card saying, "Your history curricula [sic] was very interesting. Thanks for sending it to me" (personal communication 2016). These community members above all else expressed gratitude for this work. One such community member has already shared *Common Ground* with their nearby library so that local teachers would have access to this resource.

This research does not stand alone. Dr. Jeanne Moe completed a dissertation in 2011 that focused on discovering how students understood the concepts of scientific inquiry through the study of archaeological inquiry. That research also provided an opportunity for Moe's professional development where she gained insight on how the

curriculum that she developed affected student learning. Dr. Moe discovered that archaeological inquiry could be used to deepen and broaden student understanding of science in ways similar to how the students of Cherry Creek High School were able to deepen their understanding of the domestic issues during WWII that still impact us today (Moe 2011).

Upon completion, this thesis will be shared with Project Archaeology and Dr. Moe so that it might be utilized as a potential expansion point for the creation of educational materials intended for high school courses. Project Archaeology has dedicated itself to the creation of high quality educational materials, professional development for educators, and continued professional support for those interested in teaching scientific and historical inquiry, stewardship of cultural resources, and increasing cultural understanding (Project Archaeology 2016b).

As of my participation in the Project Archaeology Leadership Academy in 2014, Project Archaeology's inventory of educational resources primarily consisted of resources intended for elementary or middle school classrooms. Dr. Moe, who is now the leader of Project Archaeology, expressed interest in expanding their resource library to include more educational materials that were prepared for a high school classroom in mind. I am excited to add my research and *Common Ground* to their library.

My first two initial research questions were answered in a limited way due to the constraints of my field research. Archaeological inquiry can be potentially utilized in more social studies courses than just history and has the potential to enhance learning in the study of government, economics, geography, and other courses. The study of archaeology could be utilized bridge the gap between the social studies and science to

create a more holistic understanding of our world, much like Eric R. Wolf discussed. New teaching methods using archaeology might also be devised once other organizations emulate or cooperate with the efforts of Project Archaeology. It is my hope that my research can be expanded by teachers and curriculum developers adapting these existing materials and creating new activities that could be used in a variety of other courses.

While my research questions adapted to fit within the scope of my project, the overarching goals and desired impacts remained the same. This research can be used to benefit the American public education system, to spread knowledge and understanding about the importance of archaeological stewardship, and to increase awareness of the injustice of internment along with the dangers of cultural prejudice. It is my hope that this work might be used by any interested party in order to show that teachers, administrators, and members of various communities can all find common ground upon which to learn about the past.

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Appendix A: The Curriculum

Lesson 1: History and Culture

Enduring Understanding

Students will learn about the history of Asian immigrants to the United States and what created the cultural climate that led to internment. During this lesson students will also learn about culture and how it shapes the lives of people in the past and present through the tension between U.S. citizens and Asian Immigrants.

Essential Questions

- What events and decisions led to Japanese American internment?
- What is culture and how does it present itself in the interacting populations?
- How can cultural differences cause tension?

What Students Will Learn

- Anti-Asian sentiment after the gold rush led to the Chinese Exclusion Act, which in turn led to more Japanese people arriving in the United States.
- Prejudice and exclusion of Asians and Asian Americans was well established before Pearl Harbor.
- Culture is everywhere, and can define how people interact and meet their needs, which affects what people leave behind.
- Cultural differences can cause friction between different peoples.

What Students Will Do

- Listen and then discuss the events leading to the internment of the Japanese Americans and the concept of culture.

Materials

- Discussion Handout
- (optional) Presentation for Background Information

Background Information

During westward expansion, events such as the California gold rush and other large projects such as the Transcontinental Railroad led to the demand for cheap labor. Chinese immigrants arrived on the West Coast and began to supply this labor. As the projects were completed and the demand for cheap labor began to drop, animosity toward the Chinese grew due to them competing with Americans for jobs, eventually leading to one of the most restrictive immigration policies in U.S. history. This prohibited the immigration of all Chinese laborers. While the Chinese were excluded, other Asian populations were not, allowing the Japanese to immigrate and fill jobs that were previously given to the Chinese (Wilson & Hosokawa 1980:37).

The Japanese immigrants set themselves apart from the Chinese with their adoption of Western style clothing and foods. This was due to the Japanese government instituting major changes to their government and society that also encouraged people to immigrate to the United States. They adopted many Western practices in order to emulate the West so that they might be as successful. As the number of Japanese immigrants grew in the United States, so did the anti-Asian sentiment (Wilson & Hosokawa 1980:38-43). As Japan grew into a world power, Americans, especially in the West Coast, began to fear an invasion, either by force or by cultural shift. The response was increasingly restrictive diplomacy and laws that reduced the number of Japanese immigrants allowed and restricted their ability to become citizens or ability to own land. These laws included the Gentleman's Agreement, the Alien Land Laws, and the Immigration Act of 1924. The latter barred all Japanese immigrants from entering the United States (USCWRIC 2000:30-33).

While separate in some circles, anthropology is often seen as the parent discipline of archaeology. Anthropology is the study of culture and how it affects human behavior. In many cases anthropologists study groups of people by observing daily life and how they interact with others. Anthropologists focus on behavior, ideology, and how people use technology in their respective environment. Many anthropologists today base their study on the principle of Cultural Relativism which is the idea that the practices and ideology of a certain culture should be understood from the perspective of that culture. The use of this principle allows anthropologists to more objectively investigate why certain ideas and practices are important or shunned in certain cultures. Culture can also be studied by examining the artifacts that people leave behind. What types of objects are saved and repaired can reflect what resources are highly valued or rare at a certain place and time (Letts and Moe 2009:35-36).

<u>Preparing to Teach</u>

1. Make copies of discussion handout.
2. Prepare to share background information.
3. Post Essential Questions and Word Bank words.
4. At the beginning of class, distribute the discussion handout containing the Essential Questions.

<u>Word Bank</u>

- Chinese Exclusion Act- a United States federal law signed on May 6, 1882 prohibiting all immigration of Chinese laborers. This contributed to an influx of Japanese immigrants to the United States
- Culture- the customs, beliefs, laws, ways of living, and all other results of human work and thought that people of the same society share

Uncover Prior Knowledge

1. Discuss with students their prior knowledge of the Gold Rush, the Chinese Exclusion Act, culture, and how immigrants have been mistreated in the past.

Discover New Knowledge

1. Ask students to write in answers to the questions on the discussion handout as they are discussed in class.
2. After the presentation sharing the new information, discuss the answers to the Essential Questions as a class, allowing students to fill in any missing answers.
3. Collect Discussion Handout.

Reflect on New Knowledge

*Near the end of class
1. Ask students, "What parts of this situation in the United States would contribute to the internment of Japanese after Pearl Harbor?"
2. Discuss with remaining time.

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Letts, Cali A., and Jeanne M. Moe
2009 *Project Archaeology: Investigating Shelter.* Project Archaeology, Montana State University.

Wilson, Robert A., and Bill Hosokawa
1980 *East to America: A History of the Japanese in the United States.* Morrow, New York.

United States Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (USCWRIC)
2000 *Personal Justice Denied.* The Civil Liberties Public Education Fund, Washington, D.C.

Essential Question Discussion

What events and decisions led to Japanese internment?

What is culture and how does it present itself in the interacting populations?

How can cultural differences cause tension?

Lesson 2: Packing Your Suitcase

Enduring Understanding

Students will learn about the experience of Japanese relocation and become introduced to the concept of items becoming artifacts. During this lesson, students will construct their own suitcases and become introduced to the suitcases of former Japanese internees and the artifacts that they would eventually leave behind.

Essential Questions

- If you were forced to leave your home and only had 30 minutes to pack, what would you bring?
- What do these objects that you bring tell others about yourself?
- How do these objects become artifacts? What would remain after decades have passed?

What Students Will Learn

- The process of forced relocation by the WRA was conducted quickly and had a serious negative impact on the Japanese and Japanese Americans and their families.
- Objects become artifacts as soon as they are left behind by their former owners. Certain pieces of those objects remain intact longer than others and allow archaeologists to begin to reassemble the story of the past.

What Students Will Do

- Students will complete a short reading, “The Camps in Context” (Hirasuna, 2005), either alone or as a class.
- Students will complete part 1 of the handout and “pack” their own suitcases with objects that are important to them.
- Students will listen to and then discuss the process of relocation by the WRA while being introduced to some of the objects that internees packed in their own suitcases.

Materials

- “The Camps in Context” Reading
- Suitcase Handout
- (optional) Presentation for Background information

Background Information

The United States entered WWII when the Japanese military attacked Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941. This was just as much of a surprise to the Japanese and Japanese Americans living in the U.S. as it was to the rest of American citizens. While the attack itself would precipitate to forced removal, the anti-Asian sentiment that had been building on the West Coast for decades also greatly influenced the government's actions. To this day the removal is claimed by some to be a "military necessity". This was justified in many ways, such as Japanese living close to highly sensitive military areas and the presence of immigrants who were raised in Japan and may still be loyal to the Japanese emperor. To be clear, espionage and sabotage appear to have never taken place in the U.S., and most Japanese and Japanese Americans were either not considered a threat or even supported the U.S. in the War (USCWRIC 2000:18+95).

Soon after the attack on Pearl Harbor, President Franklin Delano Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066 which allowed the Secretary of War to create military zones on the West Coast. This meant that they could also exclude certain populations from these zones, which allowed the removal of the Japanese and Japanese Americans. Many families were removed and given very little time to gather their important belongings. Many items were not allowed where they were going, and they were not allowed to bring more than they could carry. While the suitcases were mostly packed with essentials such as clothing, many people brought a few items of personal value such as Japanese porcelain or certain small toys (Ng 2002: 18-22).

Many people were forced to pack up their lives in less than a week and most of their belongings were left behind. Archeologists can discover what the internees valued through the artifacts that they left behind at the camps. If an object is found that was not available at the camp or through mail purchase, then it is likely that it was an object of personal value that was brought to the camp. It is through these objects that archaeologists can learn part of the personal stories of the internees, and it is possible that future archaeologists will use the same methods to learn about both teachers and students today.

This lesson prepares students for future artifact analysis by having them begin to examine their own valued personal objects. Is it an object that they would have had to leave behind? Is it something that could survive decades after it is lost or discarded? What kind of story may an archaeologist construct about a student from the things that they may leave behind?

Preparing to Teach

1. Make copies of discussion handout and reading.
2. Prepare to share background information.
3. Post Essential Questions and Word Bank words.
4. Place/distribute handout and reading for students to take.

Word Bank

- Artifact- any object made or used by people
- Relocation- the forced removal of Japanese and Japanese Americans from their homes as a result of Executive Order 9066 and other executive orders
- WRA- War Relocation Authority, the government agency established to organize and administer the relocation of Japanese Americans from the West Coast and their incarceration in the interior of the United States

Uncover Prior Knowledge

1. Ask students: What prejudices and events led to FDR approving relocation and internment?
2. Review that the culture of the United States at the time had built up a sentiment that allowed for internment to happen.

Discover New Knowledge

1. Instruct students to read the hand out titled "The Camps in Context". Have them read silently or take turns out loud.
2. Have students then fill out questions 1 & 2 of the "Packing Your Suitcase" handout.
3. Begin presentation or lecture about relocation and artifacts.
4. After the presentation, have students answer question 3 on the discussion handout.

Reflect on New Knowledge

1. Discuss with students how the objects that internees brought with them held great importance. Relate those objects to the ones that students brought their own suitcase.
2. Discuss with remaining time.

The Camps in Context
1941–1942

In the spring of 1942, just a few months after Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor, the United States government began rounding up and imprisoning the entire Japanese American population on the West Coast, from California to Washington state.

Nearly 120,000 Japanese Americans—men, women, children, the elderly and infirm—were forcibly removed and detained in inland concentration camps for the duration of the war. They represented 90 percent of the entire Japanese American population in the United States. In addition, some 1,100 ethnic Japanese were sent into the camps from the then-territory of Hawaii, and nearly 6,000 babies were born in camp. Two-thirds of those incarcerated were U.S.-born citizens, a large portion of whom could neither read nor write in Japanese and had never visited Japan. The median age in the camps was seventeen.

No act of sabotage, subversion, or fifth column (enemy sympathizer) activity was committed by a Japanese American (a point conceded by the government even in early 1942) before or during World War II. But the possibility of such an incident became the pretext for imprisonment.

A vociferous anti-Asian faction existed even before the war. The concentration of Japanese and Chinese on the West Coast and the impressive economic inroads they had made were perceived as threats to what one writer in the 1920s called "white world supremacy."[1] As early as 1913, the federal government passed the Alien Land Act, which barred Japanese immigrants—all of whom were ineligible for American citizenship—from owning land in California. The so-called Japanese Exclusion Act of 1924 went further by closing off all immigration from Japan.

Given this preexisting anti-Japanese bias, Imperial Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, prompted swift and indiscriminate action against ethnic Japanese in America. Within forty-eight hours, the Federal Bureau of Investigation arrested nearly three thousand Issei whom it had classified as "dangerous enemy aliens" based solely on their

1. Roger Daniels, Harold M. Hyman, ed., *The Decision to Relocate the Japanese Americans* (New York: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1975), p. 4.

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Figure 9: "Camps in Context" reading.

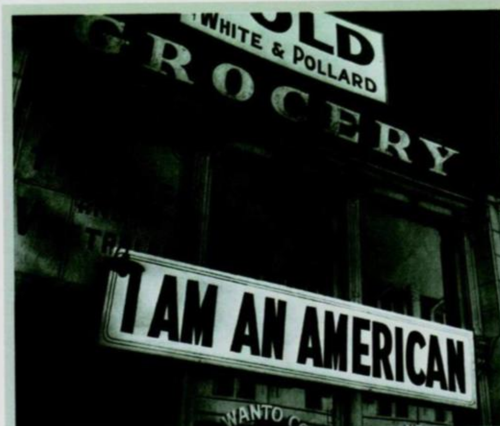
profession or community affiliations, not on any credible evidence. Commercial fishermen, martial arts instructors, Buddhist priests, Japanese language school instructors, successful businessmen, and community leaders were jailed without cause. Those imprisoned represented more than 5 percent of the adult males in the Japanese American population, including many of the leaders that the community would normally turn to in times of crisis. This move was quickly followed by the freezing of Issei bank accounts, leaving most adult Japanese in the United States unable to access their own money.

YOUNG EVACUEE
The evacuation order covered anyone of Japanese ancestry, regardless of age or citizenship. This child waits with the family baggage to be transported to an assembly center in the spring of 1942.

Panic was rampant in the Japanese American community. The FBI routinely searched homes, and as the agents clearly did not know how to read in Japanese, anything foreign was considered suspect. Afraid that the FBI would arrest them, people burned and destroyed anything Japanese, including comic books, phonograph records, and calligraphy scrolls.

In the days after the bombing of Pearl Harbor—which crippled the Pacific Fleet and claimed more than 2,400 American lives—West Coast residents indiscriminately saw the enemy in every Japanese-looking face. Newspaper and radio commentators fed on their fears. In a piece titled "The Fifth Column on the Coast," liberal columnist Walter Lippmann charged "... the Pacific Coast is in imminent danger of a combined attack from within and without ... It is a fact that the Japanese navy has been reconnoitering the coast more or less continuously." Right-wing columnist Westbrook Pegler declared, "The Japanese in California should be under armed guard to the last man and woman right now—and to hell with habeas corpus until the danger is over." Newspapers printed wildly exaggerated or completely untrue stories under such headlines as "Map Reveals Jap Menace: Network of Alien Farms Covers Strategic Defense Areas over Southland"; "Japanese Here Sent Vital Data to Tokyo"; "Jap and Camera Held in Bay City."

The source for many of these unsubstantiated and misleading stories was Lieutenant General John L. DeWitt, who was in charge of the Fourth Army headquartered in San Francisco's Presidio. As head of the Western Defense Command, DeWitt was assumed to be a credible authority. His remarks were reported as fact and heeded and repeated by legislators, even though more than one of DeWitt's colleagues derided them as "wild imaginings."



THREATENED BUSINESSES
Before being ordered into camp, a Nisei store owner, who was a graduate of the University of California, tried to keep his business from being vandalized by pointing out that he was an American too.

13

Figure 10: "Camps in Context" reading, cont.

References

Clker

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2005 *The Art of Gaman: Arts and Crafts from the Japanese American Internment Camps, 1942-1946.* Ten Speed Press, Berkeley, Calif., p 10+11.

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2002 *Japanese American Internment During World War II: A History and Reference Guide.* Greenwood Press, Westport, Conn.

United States Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (USCWRIC)

2000 *Personal Justice Denied.* The Civil Liberties Public Education Fund, Washington, D.C.

Packing your Suitcase

1. If you were forced to leave your home and only had 30 minutes to pack, not knowing where you were going, what would you bring? List 5 items. (They must fit into a suitcase.)

Figure 11: Colorless Suitcase (Clker 2016)

2. What do these objects that you bring tell others about yourself?

3. What does a suitcase full of personal objects mean to those forced to relocate in 1942? Why did they choose the items that they took with them?

Lesson 3: Observation, Evidence, Inference

Enduring Understanding

Students will learn that while the Japanese and Japanese Americans may have been subject to unfair prejudice and policies that were enforced by the United States government, they were not a helpless community. There were several ways that the community could resist without using force and still act as good American citizens. During this lesson, students will use tools of scientific and historical inquiry. Students will investigate historic photographs involving Japanese American Internment.

Essential Questions

- How did Japanese Americans cope with their new environment?
- What actions did some Japanese Americans take to resist internment?
- How can archaeologists begin to construct an accurate view of the past?
- What evidence can be found in historic photographs?

What Students Will Learn

- How the Japanese and Japanese Americans both supported and challenged the U.S. through service in the 442nd Infantry regiment and the case Korematsu v. United States.
- Archaeologists analyze various pieces of evidence from the past to come to meaningful conclusions.
- Daily life at Amache was a struggle between being good American citizens while embracing Japanese family values and heritage.

What Students Will Do

- Differentiate between observation, evidence, and inference.

Materials

- Historic Images of Amache

Background Information

While many families awaited the outcome of the war, many enlisted individuals to fight in it. Initially the army rejected the enlistment of Japanese Americans due to their supposed inability to trust them as soldiers, but by mid-1942 the army began to reconsider this. By February 1, 1943, the 442nd Regimental Combat Team was created and was soon fighting on the front in Europe. The group, because of their situation, was tightly knit and worked well as a unit. They earned the nickname The Purple Heart Battalion because by the end of the war, the battalion members had achieved 9,486 Purple Hearts as well as 5,309 other awards and distinctions, the most in U.S. military history. They fought in 8 major campaigns in Europe, were known for their capability and their ability to surprise the Italian and German armies. They were viewed as heroes in the towns and the small cities that they eventually liberated (Ng 2002:63-69).

While others arrived at assembly centers to eventually be relocated to the internment camps, Fred Toyosaburo Korematsu decided instead to go to Nevada and not report to an assembly center. This singular act of resistance would become a lifelong battle for the civil rights of all Americans. Korematsu was eventually picked up by police on May 30, 1942. While he awaited trial, an attorney offered to take his case to test the constitutionality of the evacuation and relocation of the Japanese and Japanese Americans. Korematsu's case was eventually represented by Wayne Collins and Clarence E. Rust, and they raised many issues of relocation in court, the most important being Korematsu's due process rights being violated. The Supreme Court responded in the case Korematsu v. United States with a 6 - 3 decision that stated the evacuation orders were

constitutional because of wartime necessity (Ng 2002:84-86). While the court upheld the decision, this case along with others would continue to be debated into the present day.

While scientists may apply these techniques differently, most rely on a very precise application of observation, inference, and data collection. In order to understand something, it first must be observed. This can take place with the naked eye or through a microscope. Then an inference is created to explain the possible reasons behind what is observed. This part usually tends to add more questions. It is then the scientist's job to discover which inference is correct through collecting data. It is with this evidence that scientists then justify their answers.

These methods are also applied to archaeology. Archaeologists make observations with a variety of objects. This could be in the form of artifacts left behind by people, reading historical documents, and even through investigating historic photographs that may not have been taken with the purpose of preserving a story. At Amache, pictures that were taken by the internees often show daily life: children walking to school, families attending a summer festival, and even boy scouts working at a group meeting. Through these photographs, archaeologists can discover the locations of certain artifacts or events.

In this lesson students will take their first steps towards becoming archaeologists by examining historic photographs from Japanese homes and business before the war and from Amache. How did life change for the internees? What is different in the photographs and what is the same? What details in their personal stories can we infer from the evidence they left behind?

Preparing to Teach

1. Prepare to share background information and images.
2. Post Essential Questions and Word Bank words.

Word Bank

- 442nd Infantry Regiment/Nisei- regiment made up of nearly all second generation Japanese Americans that became the most decorated unit in U.S. military history
- Inference- a conclusion derived from observations
- Interpretation- the action of explaining the meaning of something
- Internment- the imprisonment or confinement of people, commonly in large groups, without trial
- Internee- term used historically to refer to people in the camp
- Korematsu v. United States- controversial case where Supreme Court upheld Executive Order 9066 and Internment

Uncover Prior Knowledge

1. Ask students: Does anyone have a veteran in their family and would like to share something about them with the class?
2. Review how Japanese Americans were relocated and what the conditions were for them when they arrived at the camps.
3. Before investigating photographs, ask students: What kind of clues do crime scene investigators look for? What types of clues might we be able to look for in historic photographs?

Discover New Knowledge

1. Begin presentation or lecture about the 442nd and Korematsu v. United States.
4. Begin the second part of the presentation, have students investigate historic photographs as a class. Explain how each detail that is identified helps archaeologists and historians understand internment.

Reflect on New Knowledge

1. Discuss with students how families altered their environment in order to make the camp into a safe and productive home.
2. Discuss with remaining time.

References

Ng, Wendy L.
2002 *Japanese American Internment during World War II: A History and Reference Guide.* Greenwood Press, Westport, Conn.

Clark, Bonnie
2016 DU Amache Research Project. University of Denver, Denver.

Figure 12: Amache, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society, Akaki Collection.

Figure 13: Amache during winter, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society.

Figure 14: Mess Hall, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society.

Figure 15: 7H Mess Hall, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society.

Figure 16: Amache garden growth, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society, the McClelland Collection.

Figure 17: Amache barracks and gardens, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society, the McClelland Collection.

Figure 18: Amache garden growth with woman, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society, the McClelland Collection.

Figure 19: Selling crops, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society.

Figure 20: Silkscreen Shop, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society.

Figure 21: Amache decorative pond, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society.

Figure 22: Boy scouts raising flag, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society, the McClelland Collection.

Figure 23: Boy scouts walking, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society, the McClelland Collection.

Figure 24: Children walking past guard post, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society, the McClelland Collection.

Figure 25: Meal near Arkansas River, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society.

Figure 26: Meal near Arkansas River cont., photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society.

Figure 27: Cooking, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society.

Figure 28: Amache v Granada Football Game, photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society.

Figure 29: Amache v Granada Football Game cont., photo courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society.

Lesson 4: Classification & Propaganda

Enduring Understanding

Students will learn that archaeologists study the objects that people leave behind using tools of scientific and historical inquiry. A scientific system is needed in order to make sense of the many artifacts that are discovered at different sites all over the world. Students will investigate how the use of propaganda produced by governments can be used to affect public opinion and how it is still used today.

Essential Questions

- How do archaeologists begin to study the past?
- What do archaeologists do once they return to the lab?
- How did WWII propaganda affect people's perception of Japanese and Japanese Americans?

What Students Will Learn

- Students will learn that archaeologists use classification to study artifacts in order to understand the daily lives of people who lived in the past.
- Students will learn that propaganda is used by governments to increase public support and fear of an enemy, especially during wartime.

What Students Will Do

- Classify objects based on various attributes in order to begin answering questions.
- Explain how the investigation of objects can vary and how archaeologists use classification to answer research questions.
- Investigate various WWII propaganda posters and discern the messages as a class.

Assessment

- Students will analyze and classify Amache objects to understand how classification helps answer questions.

Materials

- *For each group:* An archaeology kit, each containing various cards with images of artifacts found distributed in a residential block from the site.
- Presentation Including Propaganda Pictures

Background Information

During work in the field, and especially when lab work begins, archaeologists begin analysis of the artifacts that they have discovered often by starting with classification. Classification is a basic tool for organizing different objects, situations, and thoughts. We group objects together in order to make sense of the collection as a whole and so that we don't have to begin analysis anew with every single object. Classification is used in many different fields, activities, and daily life to help make sense of large bodies of information.

Classification is an important part of many different types of scientific analysis. Scientists use classification to reduce the complexity of a subject and then begin examining the relationships that the groups have. A good example from biology is the classification of life. In order to begin to understand the relationships that different organisms have with each other it is important to separate the different types of life based on various attributes. This is how the current biological classification system (Life, Domain, Kingdom, etc.) came to be (Letts and Moe 2009:45-46).

We begin the classification of objects by choosing certain attributes on which to base groups. Attributes are qualities that are an inherent part of an object. We instinctively focus on some attributes and ignore others that may yield less information. It is impossible to group objects based on all their attributes at once. For example, if

classification were to be done on a group of objects by color and size, there may be several objects that may be small but are different colors. Due to this, archaeologists choose which attributes that are the most important based on the subject they are investigating.

The number of artifacts discovered by archaeologists, while not as innumerable as types of life, can become quite overwhelming if a classification system is not quickly used. After classification, these objects form an archaeological database. Using this database, an archaeologist can better begin to analyze the relationships between artifacts rather than comparing a single object to another. Deeper questions can be asked such as, "Why are certain objects reused by one population and not others?"

During the war, various governments combined art with advertising in order to mobilize their populations. It is in this way that support of the war effort could become part of everyday life. Messages about the war and the enemy could be effectively and conveniently communicated anywhere a poster was allowed to be placed. Using these posters, war policy could gain public support (Bird and Rubenstein 1998:1-2).

Preparing to Teach

1. Make a copy of the Classification Analysis Handout for each student.
2. Print and Prepare Amache Kit cards for each group.
3. Prepare propaganda poster presentation. Due to the sensitive nature of some posters, this has been left to teacher discretion. A good resource for WWII propaganda posters is *Design for Victory* (Bird and Rubenstein 1998).
4. Post Word Bank Words and Essential Questions.

Word Bank

- Attribute- characteristics or properties of an object such as material, size, or style
- Classification- systematic arrangement in groups or categories

Uncover Prior Knowledge

1. Ask students: When you have many items to keep track of, how might you organize them?

Discover New Knowledge

Archaeology Kits:

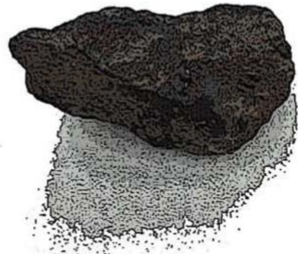
1. Divide the class into teams according to the number of kits you have prepared and distribute the kits. (2 students to a team recommended)
2. Have each group sort the objects into categories chosen by their team. Be sure not to tell students how to sort the artifacts.
3. As a class, have teams share how they organized their artifacts. Write each category on the board or screen where students can observe.
4. Discuss the most useful categories, such as material or function. Compare to other scientific categorization systems, such as taxonomy in biology, based on previous student knowledge.
5. Present classification words for word bank.

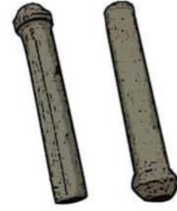
Propaganda Discussion:

1. Begin presentation of propaganda posters and have students investigate them as a class in the same manner as the historic photograph investigation. Discuss the hidden messages of the pictures: Why were certain colors chosen? Who is the hero/villain? What is the artist trying to communicate?

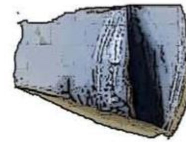
Reflect on New Knowledge

1. Discuss with students how propaganda is used today. Where do we see it? What messages are trying to be communicated?
2. Discuss and investigate with remaining time.


Garden Stone


Ceramic Insulators

Ceramic Bottle


Ceramic Sherd

Ceramic Sherd

Ceramic Bowl

Figure 30: Stylized images of Amache artifacts.

Bucket

Medicine Bottle

Ketchup Bottle

Bottle

Figure 31: Stylized images of Amache artifacts cont.

Artifact Cards (Additional Cards in Handout)

Figure 32: Artifact Cards from *Project Archaeology: Investigating Shelter*.

References

Bird, William L., and Harry R. Rubenstein
1998 *Design for Victory: World War II Posters on the American Home Front.* 1st ed. Princeton Architectural Press, New York.

Letts, Cali A., and Jeanne M. Moe
2009 *Project Archaeology: Investigating Shelter.* Project Archaeology, Montana State University.

Lesson 5: Stewardship, Taking Care of Your Sites

This lesson takes approximately 25 minutes. It can be used during a shortened school period, or an additional activity based in the surrounding WWII unit may be added.

Enduring Understanding

Students will learn that stewardship of archaeological sites and artifacts is everyone's responsibility.

Essential Questions

- How can we help protect archaeological sites and artifacts?
- What are my personal responsibilities?

What Students Will Learn

- Laws that protect archaeological and historical sites.
- Guidelines for visiting and finding archaeological or historical sites.

What Students Will Do

- Listen and then discuss and evaluate the laws (NHPA and ARPA) and guidelines for visiting archaeological sites.

Materials

- (optional) Presentation for Background Information

Background Information

Archaeologists rely on objects and their context to learn about the past. Illegal collecting or digging damages the context of artifacts and can make it difficult or impossible for archaeologists to learn about the people of a particular site. Another problem for students to consider is vandalism and destruction of a site. Descendant groups such as Native Americans or Japanese Americans would be hurt and greatly offended if sites associated with their history were looted or vandalized.

The United States Congress has taken steps to protect historic and archaeological resources. In 1966 the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) was passed to protect these resources from inadvertent damage due to development or neglect. Under the NHPA, sites could qualify for the National Register of Historic Places. The four qualifying criteria for making the list are: association to historic events, association to significant historic persons, if it has a unique architecture or engineering, and if the site has a lot of archaeological data potential. In 1979 Congress also passed the Archaeological Resources Protection Act (ARPA). This act prohibits unauthorized digging and collecting from archaeological sites and public lands. This is managed and enforced by federal agencies including the Bureau of Land Management, Forest Service, National Park Service, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Bureau of Reclamation, and the Fish and Wildlife Service. Many states also have their own respective laws protecting historic or archaeological sites and sometimes these laws include sites on private lands (King 2013: 275-278).

Protecting historic and archaeological sites is everyone's responsibility. It is important to understand that by protecting the heritage of one group, we are protecting the shared heritage of all groups because no group's history is isolated, especially in the United States. Also, students should know that archaeologists today may decide to not investigate a site if it is not under a threat such as development. This is because archaeologists recognize that their techniques, while thorough, are not perfect. Sometimes a site is left alone to await better investigation techniques that may be developed in the future. From archaeologists to students, stewardship is the responsibility of everyone because everyone shares the same history.

Preparing to Teach

1. Prepare to share background information.
2. Post Essential Questions and Word Bank words.

Word Bank

- Preservation- maintaining or protecting something from injury or harm
- Stewardship- a sense of personal responsibility for taking care of something that is not one's own

Uncover Prior Knowledge

1. Ask Students: Why is important to preserve the past? How can artifacts contain history?

Discover New Knowledge

1. Share background information and word bank in a presentation or lecture.
2. Be sure to reiterate that the best thing to do if one encounters an archaeological site is pay close attention, but to touch nothing. It is best to leave a site alone to preserve it.

Reflect on New Knowledge

1. Ask Students: What should we preserve? Have students list places significant to them as a class.
2. Ask students: What makes these sites special? Discuss how an ordinary place could become worth preserving over time.
3. Discuss with remaining time.

References

King, Thomas F.
2013 *Cultural Resource Laws & Practice.* 4th ed. AltaMira Press, Lanham, MD.

Lesson 6: Context

Enduring Understanding

Students will learn that archaeologists study the objects that people leave behind using tools of scientific and historical inquiry.

Essential Question

- What is the most critical information that archaeologists need to study the past?

What Students Will Learn

- Archaeologists study artifacts in context to learn about people from the past.
- Loss of context can be the greatest loss of information that archaeologists may face.

What Students Will Do

- Students will demonstrate the importance of artifacts in context as they investigate a recreation of an Amache block.

Materials

- Painter's Tarp of Appropriate Size for your Classroom
- 1-2 Rolls of Duct Tape
- 1-2 Extra-large Permanent Markers
- Tape Measure
- Picture Cards Representing Artifacts
- Large Open Space (moving desks in classroom may be sufficient)
- Recreation of Amache Residential Block (See below on how to create)

Background Information

One of the most commonly known pieces of information about a scene of a crime is that the evidence should not be disturbed. This is because of the relationships that pieces of evidence have with one another. Without these relationships, law enforcement officials may not be able to accurately reconstruct what events occurred in the crime scene.

Much like a crime scene, an archaeological site contains evidence that should not be disturbed. The relationships that the objects have with one another often yield more information to the archaeologist than just the objects alone. The complete story can only be discovered and told if all of the objects are present and in the state that the people who originally used them left them. For example if a person discovered a baseball bat in a field, that may not tell much to the investigator what may have taken place. If the investigator then finds a baseball and then also finds four canvas plates evenly spaced in the field, then the investigator would be able to reasonably conclude that a baseball game has taken place in the field.

Archaeologists preserve the context of artifacts that they recover from sites by meticulously recording the location of everything that they find. Knowing the exact location of even the most seemingly mundane objects can yield the most fruitful information about the daily life of the people of the past.

Preparing to Teach

1. See appendix for instruction sheet for how to recreate the Amache block
2. Post Word Bank and the Essential Question

Word Bank

- Context- the relationship artifacts have to each other and the situation in which they are found

Uncover Prior Knowledge

Ask students:

- How do crime scene investigators construct a story?
- Why is the stewardship of sites important?

Discover New Knowledge

1. Instruct students to split into teams of two.
2. Have students walk around the map in order to investigate each of the artifacts and their position on the map. After enough time has passed for all of the students to investigate the map's entirety, have them sit in order to discuss their discoveries.
3. Instruct students to tell you and others what they think the story of the people who lived at the block is, based on the position of the artifacts.
4. After full discussion of all the artifacts, remove the most "interesting" artifacts.
5. Instruct students to investigate the map again. Ask students to look for what part of the history is now missing based on which artifacts were removed.

Reflect on New Knowledge

1. Ask students: why is context is important?
2. Discuss what is lost with the removal of artifacts and the importance of stewardship with remaining time.

Instructions for Recreating the Amache Block

1. Procure materials

- Painter's Tarp of Appropriate Size for your Classroom
- 1-2 Rolls of Duct Tape
- 1-2 Extra-large Permanent Markers
- Tape Measure
- Picture Cards Representing Artifacts
- Large Open Space (moving desks in classroom may be sufficient)

2. Using the scale below, recreate the Amache block on a painter's tarp. A cloth tarp is recommended to ensure durability for multiple uses.

3. Placing the picture cards:

- ➢ You have a variety of artifacts represented with these cards that you can use to create your own stories about the people of Amache. Students will then investigate these cards based on where you placed them. Here are a few example stories:

- ➢ There are several cards that represent gardening. Amache residents often gardened to supplement their own diet or their income, as seen in historic photographs in other lessons. Place these artifact cards in front or behind barracks. When students investigate, they should be able to discern that if there are garden stones and plant remnants that it was the location of a garden.

- ➢ Children lived in Amache. There are several cards that represent toys. Place these in areas both near barracks and far away from barracks. Children played and explored various areas of Amache. The location of these artifacts reveal where they explored in the past.

- ➢ The mess hall is where meals took place on a daily basis. Surround the mess hall with the broken plates and various bottles. Let the students discover what the use of this building was through these artifacts that you have distributed around it.

- ➢ There were various locations where both adults and teenagers chose to congregate other than the barracks. For these, use an assortment of artifacts. Students can hypothesize who was using these areas and why.

- ➢ The remainder of the artifact cards can be distributed randomly. This is because often there are artifacts that either provide little or no relevant

information or have been moved from their original locations for various reasons. In order to be like archaeologists, students must work around these artifacts to discover the stories that you have hidden. Feel free to use these artifact cards to create your own based upon the information that has been provided in the historic background.

How to Create the Map

Each barrack is approximately 120 feet long and 20 feet wide. The Amache Block 8F in this example is approximately 400ft x 540 ft. Depending on the size of your painter's tarp, you will have to recreate the barracks proportionally. A good sized painter's tarp would be 12 x 15. If you get that sized tarp, one barrack would be 3 feet long and a half foot wide.

The following map has measurements for a 12x15 painter's tarp. These measurements are approximations and do not have to be exact. To recreate the map, use a measuring tape and an extra-large permanent marker to mark the corners of each building on the tarp. Then fill in the buildings using duct tape, as shown below.

Figure 33: Completed block recreation.

<u>Reference</u>

Letts, Cali A., and Jeanne M. Moe
2009 *Project Archaeology: Investigating Shelter.* Project Archaeology, Montana State University.

Granada Relocation Center / Camp Amache

Block 8F

Date: 1/27/2016

1 ft x 6 ft

3 ft x ½ ft

3 ft x ½ ft

3 ft x ½ ft

3 ft x ½ ft

3 ft x ½ ft

3 ft x ½ ft

1 ft

½ ft x 3 ft

½ ft x 3 ft

3 ft x ½ ft

3 ft x ½ ft

3 ft x ½ ft

3 ft x ½ ft

3 ft x ½ ft

3 ft x ½ ft

Figure 34: Dimensions for Amache block in feet.

Figure 36: Place artifact cards.

Figure 35: Activity is ready for students.

Lesson 7: Being an Archaeologist

Enduring Understanding

Students will learn that studying the evidence firsthand that past peoples have left behind can help us understand our collective history.

Essential Questions

- How can investigating various types of evidence help us understand the people and cultures of the past?
- How can we use what we learn in the present and the future?

What Students Will Learn

- Archaeology is a method for collecting primary data about the lifeways of past cultures.
- Archaeologists are scientists who study past cultures.
- Evidence found and studied at sites can tell something about how people lived.
- Human activity leaves an identifiable archaeological footprint.

What Students Will Do

- Conduct an archaeological investigation of Amache by analyzing artifacts and historical documents.
- Interpret data and make inferences.
- Synthesize a short narrative of what they learned from the evidence.

Assessment

- Students will write a final composition (1-2 page narrative) of what they learned about the daily life of Amache.

Materials

- *For Each Student:*
    - An evidence packet containing a site map with artifact descriptions and locations, historical photographs, and a short historical document to read (see appendix for sources).

- *For the Teacher:*
    - A presentation displaying the directions and assignment expectations to the class (also with packet)

Background Information

Using the methods of scientific inquiry, Archaeologists examine the evidence left behind to learn about the peoples and cultures of the past. Archaeologists most often use artifacts as their primary data source, but they also use historical documents and photographs, oral histories told by people associated with the site, and any other type of evidence left behind.

Students will investigate Amache in the same manner that archaeologists do today, by synthesizing the information from all the data sources available. Students will read historical documents, investigate historical photographs for clues, and analyze a site map with artifacts all in an effort to better understand the daily lives of people interned at Amache. Once the analysis is complete, the students will write a short 1-2 page narrative synthesizing all of the information they have gathered.

It is important for students to understand that with the information that they have gathered from an archaeological investigation, they can do more than just write a more complete version of history. By understanding the daily lives of those in the past, students can make a stronger connection between the past and the present. With this knowledge and connection to history, students will be better able to relate past events to current events. It is in this way that students will be more prepared to make decisions as good citizens.

Preparing to Teach

1. Make copies of the Evidence for each student.
2. Post Essential Questions and Word Bank words.
3. Post and share activity directions and assignment expectations.

Word Bank

- Archaeologist- a person who studies past human cultures
- Archaeology- the scientific study of past human cultures through artifacts and sites

Uncover Prior Knowledge

Ask students:

- What is an archaeologist?
- What resources do archaeologists rely on?

Discover New Knowledge

1. Remind students what an archaeologist is and what they study with the posted Word Bank.
2. Explain to students that they are going to use the archaeological skills that they have learned in the past lessons in order to conduct their own investigation.
3. Explain that they will use the four sources in the evidence packet to construct a narrative about the life of internees in camp.
4. Allow students a full period of class time to conduct this investigation alone or in groups no larger than four. Answer student's questions as they arise.

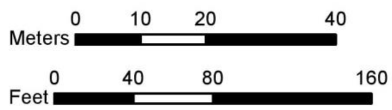


Figure 37: Archaeological Survey Map of Amache Block 8F.

Figure 38: Silkscreen Picture of Amache Water Tower: Courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society.

Figure 39: Silkscreen Shop, Courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society.

Figure 40: Amache, Courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society, Akaki Collection.

Figure 41: Amache Barracks, Courtesy of the Amache Preservation Society, the McClelland Collection.

Amache (Granada) - The WRA Camp

Authored by Bonnie J. Clark, University of Denver

Amache had the smallest population of the ten WRA camps, but because of transfers from other camps, over 10,000 inmates passed though the camp. Despite a peak population of under 8,000, Amache was the 10th largest city in Colorado during the war. The original population derived from three main geographic areas, all in California: the Central Valley, the northern coast, and southwest Los Angeles. In time this original group would be joined by inmates transferred from other WRA facilities, including over 900 from Tule Lake, and over 500 from Jerome. They hailed almost evenly from rural and urban areas, and both Buddhist and Christian denominations were well represented in camp. Something that many shared in common was a connection to agriculture and horticulture, whether as farmers, produce and nursery men, or landscapers and gardeners. Among the more notable other professionals in the camp were two professors, two cartoonists from the Walt Disney studios, a concert singer, and a female lawyer.

Although many of the WRA camps had war-related industries, Amache was the only camp with a successful silkscreen shop. At the time, silkscreening was one of the best ways to crisply print in color, something required by the U.S. Navy for their training materials. Established in June of 1943, the Amache silkscreen shop produced over 250,000 color posters under a contract with the navy. The staff of forty-five also created many prints for use in camp, including calendars, programs for camp events, even souvenirs for the yearly carnival. The Amache silkscreen shop produced a colorful and visually distinctive record of life at the camp.

The agricultural efforts of the Amache inmates were also very successful, both inside and outside the camp. In 1943 alone, inmate farmers produced approximately 4 million pounds of vegetables, over 50,000 bushels of field crops, as well as successfully raising a wide range of livestock. Not only did the farms of Amache make the camp self-sufficient for many foodstuffs, but surplus was sent to other WRA camps. For example, in the fall of 1943, Amache sent 600 bushels of spinach each to Poston and Gila, with another 1,000 bushels sent to the U.S. Army. Surrounded by farms and ranches, many Amacheans found ready temporary or permanent employment as agricultural laborers in the vicinity. The generally positive relationship with regional farmers was fostered in part by the efforts of Amacheans in the fall of 1942. Due to the wartime labor shortage and weather, the Colorado sugar beet harvest was under threat. Amacheans came out of the camps, some as paid laborers, but nearly 150 as volunteers, to help the surrounding farmers bring in the crop.

Reference

Clark, Bonnie
2016 "Amache (Granada)," *Densho Encyclopedia.*
http://encyclopedia.densho.org/Amache%20(Granada)/

DU Amache Project Oral Histories
Los Angeles Area, May 2011
This interview was also recorded. The notes that follow are not transcriptions, but individual notes taken by the DU Amache personnel.

Name: George Hirano
Date: May 24, 2011

When they were relocated, the family was 5 boys and Mom and stepdad. They had a few suitcases but also just used cardboard boxes. They were taken by bus and ended up in Santa Rosa. There were soldiers with guns all around. George was 13 and didn't know what was happening. He had never seen so many Japanese people in his life.

At the assembly center the guard tower with a machine gun was right there.

At Amache their barracks were tan colored. They slept together at home. The main problem in building beds for the barracks was finding a saw. Someone in their block bought one and they all used it. There was no room to walk around in their barrack. They used the walls to hang their clothes on.

We asked how they got the lumber. George recalled that they procured their lumber as crews were getting ready to build the high school. The five boys split into crews of 2 to carry the long boards. The youngest carried the 2x4s. They had a hammer, but also got the nails from the high school.

George bought a cross for his girlfriend (later his wife) Shig in Lamar. He left camp on his own to go to Chicago. His step dad did temporary farm work in Las Animas [a farming town 50 miles to the west of camp].

George's mother had a vegetable garden in front of their barrack. We asked who watered the gardens. It was the boys. They had to go to the mess hall and fill the buckets and then carry the water back. It took 2 buckets per day. Their mom had a scoop and she carefully watered around each plant. They grew squash and also cucumber, which she made into Japanese pickles. She used a crock and a piece of wood to remove the moisture.

George's mother worked in the 6E Mess Hall. She brought dishes from home – Japanese ceramics. They didn't have to eat with their families – "That was for sissies" The Mess Hall was distancing for parents and children. Their children didn't need them – They weren't providing for them.

Their family rules: Go to school. Be the best.

His Block, 8F, had a dance band. They would hold dances in the Mess Hall. They would take all the furniture outside – Sweep up and then get corn meal from the Mess to sprinkle on the floor to dance on. The LA people knew how to jitterbug.
His mother taught him that if something isn't right, you fight it. He knew camp wasn't right. "We were captives."

George played a lot of sports—all the American sports.

He went to Obon. He made paper lanterns with candles. The girls were beautiful. It was an eye opener. He used to pretend he knew how to dance to get close to the pretty girls.

George made $8 a month washing dishes part time in his block.

The sumo ring was west of the High School and west of the baseball field. It had to be managed, it was built up around the sides with bags of sand-so it was used infrequently. We asked, “How did you know when there would be a sumo tournament?” It was word of mouth. Everyone knew what was going on.

The baseball field was a dugout and a backstop – No stands.

George first went back to camp in 1964. He took his family and kids.

<u>Reference</u>

Hirano, George
2011 DU Amache Research Project. University of Denver, Denver.

Appendix B: Miscellaneous Forms

Word Bank

- Chinese Exclusion Act- a United States federal law signed on May 6, 1882 prohibiting all immigration of Chinese laborers. This led to an influx of Japanese immigrants to the United States
- Culture- the customs, beliefs, laws, ways of living, and all other results of human work and thought that people of the same society share
- Artifact- any object made or used by people
- Relocation- the forced removal of Japanese and Japanese Americans from their homes as a result of Executive Order 9066
- WRA- War Relocation Authority, the government agency established to organize and administer the relocation of Japanese Americans from the West Coast
- Analysis- detailed examination of something, typically as a basis for discussion or interpretation
- Inference- a conclusion derived from observations
- Interpretation- the action of explaining the meaning of something
- Internment- the imprisonment or confinement of people, commonly in large groups, without trial
- Internee- term used to refer to people in the camp historically
- Attribute- characteristics or properties of an object such as material, size, or style
- Classification- systematic arrangement in groups in groups or categories
- Rationing- allowing someone to have only a fixed amount of a certain commodity
- Context- the relationship artifacts have to each other and the situation in which they are found
- Preservation- maintaining or protecting something from injury or harm
- Stewardship- a sense of personal responsibility for taking care of something that is not one's own
- Archaeologist- a person who studies past human cultures
- Archaeology- the scientific study of past human cultures through artifacts and sites

<u>Archaeology Pre-test</u>

1) Any object made or used by people that is found at an archaeological site is called a/an

A) Relic B) Artifact C) Treasure D) Antique

2) When you find yourself at a place that could be an archaeological site you should

A) Dig B) Explore C) Find rare items D) Do nothing

3) An archaeologist is a person who scientifically studies

A) Weather B) Dinosaurs C) The Earth D) Past Culture

4) Context: the relationship artifacts have to ____ and the situation in which they are found

A) History B) Politics C) Culture D) Each Other

5) The scientific study of past human cultures through artifacts and sites

A) History B) Archaeology C) Economics D) All of the above

6) Archaeology can inform us about...

A) Daily life B) Trade C) People's Health D) All of the above

7) When you take care of something that isn't your own, you are practicing

A) Stewardship B) Archaeology

C) Anthropology D) Paleontology

8) The customs, beliefs, laws, ways of living, and all other results of human work and thought that people of the same society share

A) Society B) Politics C) Culture D) History

9) Once an archaeologist finds an object, it is theirs to keep.

True False

10) Interpretation is the action of explaining the meaning of something.

True False

11) We know most of human history, so archaeology has little to tell us.

True False

12) Inference is a conclusion derived from rumors.

True False

13) Classification is not required to do good archaeology.

True False

14) Attributes are characteristics or properties of an object such as material, size, or style.

True False

15) Analysis is a detailed explanation of something that you have heard from someone else.

True False

Archaeology Post-test

1) The scientific study of past human cultures through artifacts and sites

A) History B) Archaeology C) Economics D) All of the above

2) Archaeology can inform us about...

A) Daily life B) Trade C) People's Health D) All of the above

3) An archaeologist is a person who scientifically studies

A) Weather B) Dinosaurs C) The Earth D) Past Culture

4) When you take care of something that isn't your own, you are practicing

A) Stewardship B) Archaeology

C) Anthropology D) Paleontology

5) Any object made or used by people that is found at an archaeological site is called a/an

A) Relic B) Artifact C) Treasure D) Antique

6) When you find yourself at a place that could be an archaeological site you should

A) Dig B) Explore C) Find rare items D) Do nothing

7) The customs, beliefs, laws, ways of living, and all other results of human work and thought that people of the same society share

A) Society B) Politics C) Culture D) History

8) Context: the relationship artifacts have to ____ and the situation in which they are found

A) History B) Politics C) Culture D) Each Other

9) Once an archaeologist finds an object, it is theirs to keep.

True False

10) Analysis is a detailed explanation of something that you have heard from someone else.

True False

11) Attributes are characteristics or properties of an object such as material, size, or style.

True False

12) Inference is a conclusion derived from rumors.

True False

13) We know most of human history, so archaeology has little to tell us.

True False

14) Classification is not required to do good archaeology.

True False

15) Interpretation is the action of explaining the meaning of something.

True False

Opinion Survey of Lessons

NO NAME PLEASE

You do not have to answer these questions if you do not want to. If you do answer please be honest and thorough. Your answers will remain anonymous.

1. What was your favorite lesson or activity and why?

____
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2. What was your least favorite lesson or activity and why?

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Any other comments:

Teacher Participant Form

I would like to invite you to participate in a research study.

I am Jeremy Haas, a graduate student at the University of Denver. I am studying the effects of using archaeology and its concepts to supplement the U.S. History course which you are teaching- The research will primarily take place during the World War II unit, using artifacts and concepts from Amache, a former Japanese internment camp located near Granada, a town in Southeast Colorado.

Purpose of the study. The purpose of this study is observe whether using archaeological inquiry and analysis enhances learning in U.S. History courses and helps enhance college readiness for the students. By using hands on activities and archaeological inquiry, we will incorporate multiple subjects in the history classroom.

Description of the Procedure for the Study. Your students will be asked to participate in lessons and activities during their regular class time that will teach U.S. History as well as include these new archaeological concepts. These concepts are meant to include critical thinking, science, mathematics, and literature in order to come to new conclusions about the home front of World War II.

Confidentiality. Student identities will be protected through the use of coded language. Students will be given a letter representing their class and a random number representing themselves. This information will be contained in the University of Denver Archaeology Lab, which is secured with both a lock and a security system. No student will be asked to provide personal information. All surveys will be conducted informally by a show of hands and no names will be recorded during that process.

To the extent we are able, within the requirements of applicable state and federal laws and/or the Board of Education policies, all information gathered in this research will be kept confidential.

Voluntary Participation and Right to Withdraw. Your students' participation in this study is voluntary. There will be no consequences if either you or your students decide to opt out of this study. If your students find any questions uncomfortable they will have the right to skip questions or discontinue at any time.

Potential Risks and Benefits. The possible benefits of teaching a U.S. History course with archaeological concepts and activities are a continued exposure to multiple subjects and practice bringing those subjects together to make a meaningful conclusion. This process should help students with their personal college preparedness as well as demonstrate that they can practice and perform their own inquiry and support their conclusions with evidence from multiple subjects. The risks of this study appear to be minimal. However, some of the questions may ask your student to share something about his or her personal feelings. Your students have the right to skip questions or discontinue at any time; however, there is still a risk that your student may be uncomfortable with the process. There is a remote possibility that data could be accessed without

authorization, but this will be minimized by maintaining coded language and containing data on either the campus of Cherry Creek High School or the University of Denver.

Contacts and Questions and Concerns: If you have any questions or concerns about this research project or about your student's rights as a participant, you may contact the following people:

Jeremy Haas (researcher) jhaas29@du.edu

Bonnie Clark (research supervisor) bonnie.clark@du.edu

Authorization: I am a teacher at ___________________________________. I have read and understood the description of the research project. I agree to participate in this study. I understand that I may withdraw my consent at any time. I have retained a copy of the cover letter and have returned a signed copy of the consent form.

_______________________________ _________________________________

Signature Date **Printed Name**

_______________________________ _________________________________

Address **Telephone Number (if applicable)**

____

School

Parent/Guardian and Student Consent Form

I would like to invite your child to participate in a research study.

I am Jeremy Haas, a graduate student at the University of Denver. I am studying the effects of using archaeology and its concepts to supplement the U.S. History course in which your student is enrolled. The research will primarily take place during the World War II unit, using artifacts and concepts from Amache, a former Japanese internment camp located near Granada, a town in Southeast Colorado.

Purpose of the study. The purpose of this study is to observe whether using archaeological inquiry and analysis enhances learning in U.S. History courses and helps enhance college readiness for the students. By using hands on activities and archaeological inquiry, we will incorporate multiple subjects in the history classroom.

Description of the Procedure for the Study. First you and your child will complete this consent form. After this, the students will complete an archaeology pre-test that will inform the teacher and researcher of their previous knowledge of the subject. The students will then be asked to participate in lessons and activities during their regular class time that will teach U.S. History as well as include these new archaeological concepts. These lessons will take place over seven days and will be included on the WWII unit exam. These concepts are meant to include critical thinking, science, mathematics, and literature in order to come to new conclusions about the home front of World War II. Once these lessons are completed, the students will complete a post-test similar to the pre-test in order to gauge what the students have learned.

Confidentiality. Student identities will be protected through the use of coded language (Ex. Student A). This information will be contained in the University of Denver Archaeology Lab, which is secured with both a lock and a security system. No student will be asked to provide personal information. All surveys will be conducted informally by a show of hands and no names will be recorded during that process.

To the extent we are able, within the requirements of applicable state and federal laws and/or the Board of Education policies, all information gathered in this research will be kept confidential

I am required to inform you that there are two exceptions to the promise of confidentiality. Any information revealed concerning suicide, homicide, or child abuse or neglect is required by law to be reported to the proper authorities.

Voluntary Participation and Right to Withdraw. Your child's participation in this study is voluntary. There will be no consequences if either you or your child decides to opt out of this study. If your child finds any questions uncomfortable he/she will have the right to skip questions or discontinue at any time.

Potential Risks and Benefits. The possible benefits of teaching a U.S. History course with archaeological concepts and activities are a continued exposure to multiple subjects and practice bringing those subjects together to make a meaningful conclusion. This process should help

students with their personal college preparedness as well as demonstrate that they can practice and perform their own inquiry and support their conclusions with evidence from multiple subjects. The risks of this study appear to be minimal. However, some of the questions may ask your child to share something about his or her personal feelings. Your child has the right to skip questions or discontinue at any time; however, there is still a risk that your child may be uncomfortable with the process. There is a remote possibility that data could be accessed without authorization, but this will be minimized by maintaining coded language and containing data on either the campus of Cherry Creek High School or the University of Denver.

Contacts and Questions and Concerns: If you have any questions or concerns about this research project or about your child's rights as a participant, you may contact the following people:

Marjorie Hamburger (classroom teacher)	mhamburger@cherrycreekschools.org
Jeremy Haas (researcher)	jhaas29@du.edu
Bonnie Clark (research supervisor)	bonnie.clark@du.edu

Parent/Guardian Authorization: My child is a student at ___________________________. I am the parent/primary caregiver/legal guardian of my child, and I have read and understood the foregoing description of the research project. I have asked for and received a satisfactory explanation of any language that I did not fully understand. I consent to my child participating in this study. I understand that I may withdraw my consent at any time and that my child may withdraw his or her consent at any time. I have retained a copy of the cover letter and have returned a signed copy of the consent form.

Student Authorization: I am a student at ____________________________________. I have read and understood the description of the research project. I have asked for and received a satisfactory explanation of any language that I did not fully understand. I agree to participate in this study. I understand that I may withdraw my consent at any time. I have retained a copy of the cover letter and have returned a signed copy of the consent form.

___________________________________ ____________________________

Parent/Primary Caregiver/Legal Guardian of **Printed Name**

Participant Signature and Date

___________________________________ ____________________________

Adolescent Participant Signature and Date **Printed Name**

___________________________________ ____________________________

Address **Telephone Number**

Student Control Group Consent Form

I am asking you to decide if you are willing to participate in a research study.

I am Jeremy Haas, a graduate student at the University of Denver. I am studying the effects of using archaeology and its concepts to possibly improve the U.S. History course in which you are enrolled. The research will primarily take place during the World War II unit, using artifacts and concepts from Amache, a former Japanese internment camp located near Granada, a town in Southeast Colorado.

Purpose of the study. The purpose of this study is observe whether using archaeology enhances learning in U.S. History courses and helps enhance college readiness for you. By using hands on activities and archaeological inquiry, we will include multiple class subjects in the history classroom.

Description of the Procedure for the Study. If you agree to be in this study, you will take part in the form of a control group. What this means for you is that you will be participating in the same lessons that Miss Hamburger normally teaches. Your performance will then be compared to the other classes that are participating in the archaeological lessons.

Confidentiality. Your identity will be protected through the use of coded language (Ex. Student A). This information will be contained in the University of Denver Archaeology Lab, which is secured with both a lock and a security system. No student will be asked to provide personal information. All surveys will be conducted informally by a show of hands and no names will be recorded during that process.

To the extent we are able, within the requirements of applicable state and federal laws and/or the Board of Education policies, all information gathered in this research will be kept confidential.

I am required to inform you that there are two exceptions to the promise of confidentiality. Any information revealed concerning suicide, homicide, or child abuse or neglect is required by law to be reported to the proper authorities.

Voluntary Participation and Right to Withdraw. Your participation in this study is voluntary. There will be no consequences if you decide to opt out of this study. If you find any questions uncomfortable you will have the right to skip questions or discontinue at any time.

Potential Risks and Benefits. The possible benefits of teaching a U.S. History course with archaeological concepts and activities are a continued exposure to multiple class subjects and practice bringing those subjects together to make a meaningful conclusion. This process should help you with your personal college preparedness as well as demonstrate that you can practice and perform your own inquiry and support your conclusions with evidence from multiple subjects. The risks of this study appear to be minimal. However, some of the questions may ask you to share something about your personal feelings. You has the right to skip questions or discontinue at any time; however, there is still a risk that you may be uncomfortable with the process. There is a remote possibility that data could be accessed without authorization, but this

will be minimized by maintaining coded language and containing data on either the campus of Cherry Creek High School or the University of Denver.

Contacts and Questions and Concerns: If you have any questions or concerns about this research project or about your student's rights as a participant, you may contact the following people:

Marjorie Hamburger (classroom teacher)	mhamburger@cherrycreekschools.org
Jeremy Haas (researcher)	jhaas29@du.edu
Bonnie Clark (research supervisor)	bonnie.clark@du.edu

Authorization: I am a student at ___________________________________. I have read and understood the description of the research project. I have asked for and received a satisfactory explanation of any language that I did not fully understand. I agree to participate in this study. I understand that I may withdraw my consent at any time. I have retained a copy of the cover letter and have returned a signed copy of the consent form.

________________________________ ___________________________________

Signature **Date** **Printed Name**

________________________________ ___________________________________

Address **Telephone Number (if applicable)**

____

School