Science Fiction of the Fifties: Reflections of Cold War Themes

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Overview

Some high school students view the early Cold War of the 1950’s as camp. Many look at pictures of students huddled under desks to avert the kind of blast that leveled Nagasaki and snicker. They see America’s vanquished Cold War foe and their hindsight seems to them to be 20/20; the Soviets were not the threat America made them out to be and we kicked their behinds anyway. The more they learn, the more ludicrous the scenario seems to become. Students question: ‘Why were we so afraid of communists?’ and the more troubling echo ‘what is a communist?’ High school students of history rarely venture out of their own skin to explore people’s feelings and motivations in an era as complex as the Cold War era.

In an inquiry-based curriculum unit designed for 11th grade US History and AP US History, students will explore themes, feelings, and motivations that lie beneath the events of the Cold War. Science fiction films and novels of the era will serve as a gateway to the themes and mindset of the era. By exploring American and Soviet sides of the conflict and paying close attention to early Cold War American cultural, political, and technological developments, students will root out misconceptions about the era and synthesize research into a deeper understanding of the culture that dug backyard bomb shelters and held Senate hearings to avert communist mind controllers in Hollywood. Students will analyze and evaluate themes of alienation, fear, control, conformity, and destruction through the lens of science fiction to better understand just how different or similar our current era is to early Cold War times.

In a five-week submersion student groups will research and teach their peers about four different themes, science fiction novels, and science fiction movies. The themes will relate to the novels and films, and common threads of the Cold War will connect each groups theme. Alienation of the Cold War era will be explored through Vonnegut’s Player Piano and the film Invasion of the Body Snatchers. Topics included in this theme are the advances in technology, the growth of suburbia, the dominance of the corporation, the revolt of youth, and their effects on American society. Paranoia and fear of Communist infiltration of American society will be explored through Heinlein’s The Puppet Masters and the 1953 film Invaders from Mars. Students will explore topics related to communist spies, McCarthyism, the Red Scare, and anti-communism. A third student group will explore the fear of nuclear annihilation and its influence on American foreign policy. These students will read Vonnegut’s Cat’s Cradle and view The...
Day the Earth Stood Still, and delve into the development of the nuclear weapons, the arms race, the policy of containment and American interventions around the world. Student centered projects will focus these themes into teachable resources.

Student groups will create PowerPoint presentations and research papers on their themes, and engage their fellow classmates in the exploration of document based questions of their own creation. Student groups will also participate in Literature Circles to help develop their understanding of the novels’ relation to the Cold War themes. Research and collaboration will require class time and homework, as will the Literature Circle assignments. I plan to complete this unit in five weeks.

The School District of Philadelphia core curriculum in US History includes the Cold War as an era of focus and takes a chronological approach that focuses on the aftermath of WWII, early Cold War diplomacy, the home front of the Cold War, and American foreign policy. In both the US and AP US History courses historical and literacy based approaches are encouraged. This unit will also meet with state standards across several disciplines.

Rationale

Introduction: Science Fiction Novels and Films of the 1950s

The main thrust or goal of this unit is to familiarize students with the American mindset during the early Cold War. In seeking to answer the questions ‘why were Americans so fearful during this era?’ and ‘what caused this animosity between two WWII allies?’ students will explore primary source documents and scholarship related to the era. Students will also read a science fiction novel and view a science fiction film from the era. The science fiction of the early Cold War era often served as thinly veiled social and political criticism, and the themes explored by many science fiction authors and filmmakers were often themes being dealt with by our nation and its citizens. Science fiction has become the popular mythology of our modern American culture and no era before the 1950s had such an explosion of science fiction popularity and filmmaking. Writers and directors of science fiction used the tradition within the genre of basing the science in their works in reality, and extended that tradition within science fiction of using relevant social themes of the time as foci for their fictional tales.

WWII left the world wondering what would come next. The dropping of atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, and revelations about atrocities committed during the war left many of the world’s citizens groping for answers about the future of humanity. The changing political landscape in Europe created tension between the United States and the Soviet Union as war torn European countries decided where to turn for future stability. As Roosevelt, Churchill and Stalin forged out plans for a postwar Europe at Yalta in 1945, British and American suspicions about whether Stalin would abide by the agreement to allow free democratic governments to emerge from wartorn Europe (Harbutt 19). After Roosevelt’s death in April 1945, Harry S. Truman adopted a foreign policy conundrum; the American public expected free democracies to emerge in Eastern Europe and had been told as much by FDR, but Roosevelt left out that he had agreed to allow Stalin to exert limited influence over Eastern Europe (Harbutt, 20). Truman, influenced by anticommmunist policy advisors, took a hard line with Stalin, beginning a diplomatic war by
cutting off all lend-lease aid immediately when fighting had ceased in Europe and taking an oppositional stance with the Soviet Union over free elections in Eastern Europe (Harbutt 24). The political and foreign policy landscape that emerged during the mid to late 1940s required a break from traditional American nonengagement in European affairs, and made necessary a military buildup that would allow the US to maintain a military presence worldwide. It was during this early postwar period when threats of a worldwide communist conspiracy directed by Moscow found attentive ears in Washington and laid the roots for the rabid anticommunism of the 1950s.

Uncertainty loomed and fears of war with the Soviet Union were inflamed by the discovery of Americans spying and revealing atomic secrets to the Soviets. Paranoia, fear, and alienation were felt nationwide as the political landscape changed from one of peace and security in a postwar world to one of uncertainty in a world of world powers at odds, each with weapons of mass destruction.

The fears Americans harbored about the destructive powers unleashed by atomic scientists were revealed in the films, literature, and other cultural expressions of the time. Films like *The Day the Earth Stood Still* and *On the Beach* criticize governments who would use atomic weapons and raise questions about the fate of humanity. Science fiction novels such as Walter Miller’s *A Canticle for Leibowitz*, Kurt Vonnegut’s *Cat’s Cradle*, and Pat Frank’s *Alas, Babylon*, delve into post apocalyptic themes based on nuclear destruction (or a weapon of equally massive destruction). All the while Americans try to assuage their mortal fears by practicing civilian defence drills, digging backyard bomb shelters, and embracing the benefits of nuclear science. Cold War foreign policy required civilian cooperation on the homefront and anticommunist mobilization to support a national security focused state (Grossman 42).

*Fear of Communist Infiltration: Paranoia and Politics*

Long before the wartime alliance with the communist Soviet Union, United States citizens were exposed to anticommunist propaganda during the Red Scare of the 1920s and 30s when the prevailing image of the “commie” was the bomb wielding radical embedded in an American labor organization (Barson and Heller 24). During the 30s the first version of the House Un-American Activities Committee (HUAC) began deporting alien communists and investigating alleged communist infiltration of labor organizations. Anticommunist feelings subsided a bit during the WWII alliance, but Stalin had made a nonaggression pact with Hitler in 1939 and that made many Americans uneasy. During the 1950s the anticommunist crusade would look back unfavorably at Americans who had been sympathetic to Soviets during the war.

The American political and cultural landscape had been transformed by World War II; mass mobilizations and migrations shattered sedentary small town notions of the normal American life, the strong leadership of President Franklin D. Roosevelt transformed notions of the presidency, and fears of attack and destruction caused Americans to reevaluate their personal liberties. America became a major player on the world stage and developed a world-view that saw the Soviet Union as its major adversary. Stalin saw this clearly as well. Three events occurred in February of 1946 that would catapult the US and Soviet Union into the Cold War. On February 3, 1946 US newspapers report on Soviet spies pilfering US atomic bomb secrets from inside the Manhattan Project. Six days later Stalin delivered the “Two Camps” speech outlining the Marxist view that the communist state would have to wage war on the capitalist state for there to be communist domination of the world. American diplomat in Moscow,
George Kennan hears of Stalin’s speech and is alarmed. In his ‘Long Telegram’ dated February 22, 1946 Kenan warned that the Soviet plan was world domination and that communist organizations worldwide will be used to infiltrate nations worldwide (Jensen 27). Kennan proposed the policy of containment eventually adopted by the Truman administration and painted an alarming view of Soviet means and ends. Throughout 1946 Truman took an ever-firmer anti-Soviet stance diplomatically, but did not reveal Kennan’s dire assessments to the American people. When British aid to Greece and Turkey dried up in 1947, the anti-Soviet diplomacy was tested and Truman took his case for containment to Congress and the American people. Soviet influence in Turkey and communist takeover in Greece would be thwarted by $400 million in aid according to Truman, because “the seeds of totalitarian regimes are nurtured by misery and want,” and it would be the United States responsibility to stave off postwar poverty and secure western Europe as a capitalist market and ally against communism (Hanes & Hanes 38). The Truman Doctrine stated that it was the moral duty of the US to defend weaker nations against communism, and we would start our defense of a devastated Europe by funding its reconstruction. The Marshall Plan as it was called signaled the official taking of sides in the Cold War, with Western Europe aligned with the US and Eastern Europe aligned with the Soviet Union.

With sides drawn, Truman needed public support in the US for his foreign policy strategies to work and Republicans in Congress were smearing him as soft on communism. In response Truman instituted the Federal Employees Loyalty and Security Program to help ferret out any communists in the employ of the federal government. To help avoid future leaks by communists and communist sympathizers, Truman instituted loyalty oaths and the Loyalty Review Board to investigate government employees who belonged to suspect organizations. Through HUAC investigations Americans were shocked to learn about communist infiltration of the government, spying to gain nuclear secrets, and Soviet led mind controllers in Hollywood. Truman would entertain the Republican communist hunters in Congress and allow them to go much further than he himself would in the name of defeating communism.

HUAC investigated communist influence in the film industry starting in 1947, charging that many Hollywood films promoted the Communist Party message. Many in the industry were called on to testify about their political affiliations and beliefs, and their knowledge of communists and subversives within the industry. HUAC eventually charged ten witnesses with contempt of Congress for invoking their Fifth Amendment right to avoid self-incriminating evidence. Dubbed the Hollywood Ten, they were convicted by the House for their crime. Studio owners had much to lose if their industry was branded a tool of Moscow and a haven for communists. The response of the heads of the studios was indicative of the response of the ownership class as a whole to communist infiltration of their businesses; the studio heads agreed not to hire anyone with communist sympathies and they created blacklists of Communist Party members, sympathizers, and subversives. This top down approach started with the federal government and HUAC investigating communists, filtered down through federal and state legal systems where wrongdoings uncovered or suspected by HUAC were investigated and prosecuted, and ending with individual employers making decisions about their employees based on information about their affiliation with the Communist Party or other subversive organization. In 1948 HUAC committee member Richard Nixon led the investigation of State Department official Alger Hiss. Charged by Communist Party member turned government informant Whittaker Chambers with being a Party member while serving in the State Department Hiss denied having given documents to communists in the 1930s but was tripped up in his lies and
convicted of perjury in 1950. Chambers testimony was flawed, and the controversy surrounding Hiss’s guilt or innocence continued until 1995 when Venona Project Documents (a Soviet project that decrypted telegrams sent to and from Soviet spies and American operatives 1942-45) implicated Hiss as a probable American operative (pbs.org/wgbh/nova/venona/dece_hiss.html). Fanning the anticommunist flames was another exposed spy ring that helped the Soviet Union with atomic weapons secrets. Klaus Fuchs, a German-born physicist worked on the Manhattan Project with the British and in 1950 admitted to spying for the Soviets and passing sensitive materials to the Soviets. When the spy network was investigated, it turned up two Americans, Julius and Ethel Rosenberg, who were accused of passing atomic secrets to the Soviets. The well publicized trial led to convictions and the execution of the Rosenbergs. The Hiss hearings and Rosenberg spy case were popular news items, and the country became engrossed in the hunt for communist infiltrators and spies in all corners of American life.

American anticommunism became more pervasive as the case for Soviet aggression and communist infiltration of American society and government grew stronger and stronger. After Fuchs’ confessions shook the American public, a little known Senator from Wisconsin, Joseph McCarthy gave a speech before a Women’s Republican Club in Wheeling, West Virginia in which he claimed to know of 205 Communist Party members working within the State Department whose “traitorous actions” led to the fall of Eastern Europe and China to communism (Hansen & Hansen 168). McCarthy never offered evidence of these claims, but widespread public support for his crusade against communists and subversives within American industries and government brought him notoriety and his Republican party more popularity for taking a hard line against communism. McCarthy’s tactics were questionable, even if the threat from communism was undeniable. McCarthy often made harsh accusations before obtaining evidence to back up his claims of someone’s communist affiliations. McCarthy rode a wave of public fear and anxiety, sounding the drum of domestic subversion by communist infiltrators. By 1954, McCarthy took his attacks too far, implicating the US Army and President Eisenhower as soft on communism. In a televised trial, McCarthy’s tactics against the US Army were exposed as fear mongering and McCarthy was publicly disgraced. He was censured by the Senate and slipped back into obscurity, but the indelible mark he left on American politics and culture would be felt for many years to come. The threat of communism was in our back yard, our schools, our courtrooms, our government, and many Americans were on high alert thanks toHUAC and the publicity garnered by Joseph McCarthy.

Fear of Nuclear Destruction: Atomic Anxieties

In the postwar world, nuclear destruction became a valid and pervasive fear. In September 1949 the Soviet Union successfully tested their first atomic bomb. This event capped a project that began furiously after the US detonated atomic weapons over Hiroshima and Nagasaki, and led to an a US and Soviet escalation in arms and nuclear stockpiles that would not end for forty years. After learning of the Soviet tests in 1949, Major General Curtis LeMay, head of the newly formed Strategic Air Command, was ordered to prepare his Air Force unit for possible atomic attack. His first war plan, based on an idea called "killing a nation," involved attacking seventy Soviet cities with 133 atomic bombs (Harbutt 70). American policy makers believed that the Soviets were planning similar attacks. As threats mounted the Truman Administration began an overhaul of its policies. The Policy Planning Staff, led by National Security Agent Paul Nitze produced an important document that would lead US policy for decades to come. National
Security Memoranda 68 (NSC 68) stated that the US and the Soviet Union were in a two-sided struggle for world domination, with freedom battling enslavement, capitalism battling communism, and the US defending the world against Soviet world domination (Hanes & Hanes 74).

The fear of nuclear war loomed over the US as anticommunist propaganda led Americans to believe that the Soviet Union had world domination as its goal (Jensen 6). Truman believed that if the Russians had the bomb, they would use it. The physicist Edward Teller pushed for a thermonuclear weapon whose virtually unlimited power would dwarf the atomic bombs produced under the Manhattan Project. In January 1950 Truman approved development of the more destructive hydrogen bomb. Five months later, North Korea, with Stalin's support, attacked South Korea. Later that year, when in retreat, the North Koreans were reinforced by another Soviet ally, Communist China. In 1952 the first hydrogen bomb was detonated, releasing a force some 800 times greater than the weapon that had destroyed Hiroshima. The bomb was made smaller and lighter, allowing its placement on missiles. Nuclear anxieties intensified with the development of strategic intercontinental rockets capable of delivering a nuclear warhead anywhere in the world within minutes. It was then that President Eisenhower's Secretary of Defense, John Foster Dulles, presented the impression that the United States would instigate nuclear war if there were any communist encroachments upon the free world. Peace was maintained through the deterrent of fear: Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD) became the principle nuclear strategy for the next decades making it inconceivable that politicians would risk the destruction of the planet by deploying the weapons they were so busily and alarmingly developing and stockpiling. To ensure retribution following a first strike, stockpiles continued growing to the point where human populations could be killed many times over. In this atmosphere of fear, many Americans responded with patriotism and faith in their government, but also with personal fears of destruction.

The Truman administration believed that control of the civilian population was integral to a successful Cold War containment policy. The Civil Defense Act of 1950 created the Federal Civil Defense Administration (FCDA) which was charged with creating favorable public opinion concerning administration policies and civilian preparedness for nuclear attacks. By 1955, air raid drills had notoriously cynical New Yorkers filing into subway tunnels at the sound of a siren, emptying a crowded Times Square in minutes (Grossman i). As part of the FCDA’s “Operation Alert” New Yorkers and Americans in other large cities participated by the thousands in drills simulating a nuclear attack; those few who did not participate were rounded up by the police and arrested (Ibid i). Civil defense planning became part of Truman’s grand design to combat the Soviets.

American Alienation: Conformity to Radicalism

One of the primary cultural themes in America during the 1950s was alienation. Soldiers returning from war experienced difficulties adjusting to life after war, while social and technological changes transformed American postwar culture. Homemakers became sequestered in the newly developed suburbs while their spouses spent more time away from home working at and commuting to and from their offices or jobs. Feelings of disconnectedness, loneliness, and alienation were expressed in the works of Beat poets and writers, and in the literature of the time; Ralph Ellison’s Invisible Man and J. D. Salinger’s Catcher in the Rye both explore characters who become radical as a result of feelings of alienation (Booker 69). Science fiction writers of
the time also explored themes of alienation, conformity, and radicalism. In *Player Piano*, Kurt Vonnegut explores alienation at the corporate workplace and the creation of a revolutionary radical in a world that mimics the postwar 50s cultural landscape. Changes in the structure of cities with the creation of suburbia and changes in the structure of workplaces with the creation of the modern corporation had unexpected impacts on American culture and Americans themselves.

**Objectives**

The broad goals of this unit include students honing their academic skills in reading, writing, critical thinking, and cooperating. The hidden curriculum in this unit has to do with teaching students to work cooperatively, treat each other with respect, help each other, and value each other’s opinions and work. Structured group activities and a classroom community help make this goal achievable, but student leadership and responsibility are necessary to achieve the goals of the hidden curriculum of improving social skills and empathy. One constant goal of projects in my history class is to better understand oneself in the world and historical context of the time by understanding someone else’s situation and motivations from a time past. Along with these general goals I have included a list of more specific objectives for student learning.

- Students will be able to comprehend Cold War themes.
- Students will identify different viewpoints and interpret research related to Cold War themes.
- Students will analyze Cold War themes and events.
- Students will be able to evaluate the importance of Cold War events and personalities and relate these events and personalities to American and Soviet Cold War policies.
- Students will be able to apply knowledge of Cold War themes and events to American science fiction literature and films.
- Students will be able to collaborate to enhance their understanding of Cold War science fiction novels and films.
- Students will strengthen their listening and speaking skills while working cooperatively in small groups.
- Students will use computer technology and PowerPoint skills to create presentations that synthesize information from multiple sources and analyze their group’s theme.
- Students will be able to interpret and analyze primary source documents.
- Students will appraise their conceptions of the Cold War based on their research.
- Students will be able to empathize with Americans making different choices during the Cold War.
- Students will have self knowledge regarding their habits of mind and personal prejudices.

**Strategies**

*Inquiry Based Group Project*

I believe in a constructivist approach to student learning that guides students in forming their own understanding of a subject matter or body of knowledge. When students are actively engaged in creating something with the knowledge they have gathered through a process of
inquiry they are working some of their highest order thinking skills. I want to excite students about History and I include creative arts based projects as an exciting way for students to express their knowledge on a subject. Students will create Cold War merging timelines and period maps. Much can be learned and expressed through the arts, and writing is an art that can seriously engage students in thinking deeply on a subject. I believe in the power of writing to teach students more about their thinking on a subject and to help students develop the intellectual tools necessary to succeed in school and beyond. This unit will include traditional writing assignments such as primary source analysis responses, journal reflections, and a research paper.

Vygotsky’s theory of learning has been dubbed social constructivism, and one of the building blocks of this theory is that student’s construct knowledge and meaning for themselves in the social context. As young children experience life with their parents and family, they attempt to learn about their world. One of the essential tools of knowledge building is language, and children are constantly attempting to construct their knowledge about the world through their understanding and use of language. Vygotsky identified the use of language as a mediating tool that helps spur the development of other meta-cognitive tools that encourage learning (Karpov & Haywood 115). Children use language to attempt to control or influence their environment; after hearing a parent warning about some danger, a child will repeat the warning aloud as a method of self-regulation or repeat the warning to a friend or sibling as a method of exerting control in the social situation (Ibid 115). Young learners take the socially situated warning of a parent, construct a better understanding of the imitated action by repeating it to a friend, sibling, or themselves, and eventually internalize the warning, learning that the danger should be avoided. This development of self-regulatory tools or meta-cognitive tools is essential to future learning, and is prompted by a social learning situation. Vygotsky’s assertion that children construct knowledge for themselves is not expressly related to the constructivist notions that stress the learner’s reconstruction or rediscovery of already delineated laws and principles that comprise culture. Vygotsky believed that direct instruction in ideas and the procedures from which the concepts were derived can provide children with the framework that will spur learning and development; according to Vygotsky, students should not be expected to recreate culture but that culture should be passed down as tools that will help young students build understanding of their world (Ibid, 117). With the help of a more educated other person, a student can achieve greater learning and development than the same student can achieve alone. This philosophy drives my role as a facilitator of learning who can guide student research and stimulate higher order thinking. Student grouping is another strategy that this unit employs to enhance learning among all students. Sometimes another student can explain concepts and provide the necessary scaffolding for a struggling peer better than a teacher, so student groups are kept responsible for each others progress and learning.

This idea provides the underpinnings of one of Vygotsky’s most intriguing theories: the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Vygotsky found that the level of development or learning that a student can achieve alone was below the level of development or learning that a student can achieve with the help of an adult or better-educated peer learner. The ZPD is the area just outside of the learner’s ability to solve problems or complete tasks on their own. Within the ZPD, the learner can solve problems and complete tasks with the assistance or scaffolding provided by a more experienced learner (Kozulin, et al, 7). In Vygotsky’s approach, engaging instruction continues just outside the student’s development level, this way the learning can foster the development necessary to solve more complex or new problems. As the learner masters a new tool or approach to problem solving, the ZPD and the learners level of
development progress to encompass the new development and delineate the new “space” between what the learner knows and can accomplish alone and what the learner can achieve with assistance. Vygotsky in my classroom can be loud and look chaotic at times as students freely access the internet and thumb through books while they discuss their understanding of the topic, but structured assignments, multiple deadlines and daily progress and engagement assessments help to keep students working in the social learning, resource rich environment. Student groups will be chosen by weighing student interest in a topic of focus and the need for heterogeneous ability grouping. Since I will be teaching this unit in the spring, I should have a good grasp on student abilities and be able to group students for maximum benefit of struggling readers and writers.

Primary Source Document Analysis

Vygotsky’s research has influenced many western educators in the past decade. His theories have had an impact on my own theory of learning, and have better informed my understanding of constructivism. Vygotsky would not be considered a pure constructivist; his reliance on direct instruction to teach ideas and the processes from which they were derived is in conflict with the constructivist view that student’s should be left to explore and create these ideas for themselves. Vygotsky stressed that students need to be given the tools with which they can create meaningful, deep understanding of a subject. I view this approach as a recognition that we are ‘standing on the shoulders of giants’ as learners and teachers. Without a solid, complete, and correct understanding of the principles and ideas (and how these principles and ideas were derived) on which the subjects we endeavor to master were built, we can be lost as learners when our understanding must delve to a deeper level. We may be able to solve the simple problems based on our knowledge of a formula or idea, but if these concepts are based of faulty assumptions our understanding may falter under deeper exploration. I believe in an approach much like the constructivist approach described in Vygotsky’s theory.

In this unit of study, I will introduce the Cold War era with a presentation and students will read to gain a knowledge base from which to explore avenues of their own choosing. The scaffolding of World War II and international relations in the postwar era will be essential for students, and will be reviewed through the lens of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Students will then begin to construct meaning with each other as they interpret groups of primary source documents related to the focus they chose. Within groups, students will explore the contexts of the documents and write a summary of the “story” told by the documents. Groups will share their research, analysis, and evaluation of the documents and begin the first entries on the merging timeline and create a group map of their topic focus. I will begin to probe student understanding and challenge students to dig deeper by providing response in the form of questions that will guide student research. This is where the background reading for the teacher is essential. Having a classroom library where you as a teacher can access relevant scholarship you are familiar with to engage students at a deeper level is a powerful way to teach and model research techniques and the benefits of research and reading.

Student Directed Individual Research

Once students have chosen individual topics to research they will develop essential questions about their topic. These questions require research to answer and will drive the students’
research efforts. Student questions will be supplemented by teacher generated guiding questions for each individual student. Student assertions and theses on their topic will be generated and evaluated for their supporting evidence. Student ideas need to be respected, but students are expected to back up their ideas and assertions with research and support from experts. In the constructivist classroom student choices and ideas are treated with honor and respect, because it is these choices and ideas that promote active engagement with the problem or inquiry at hand. It is the constructivist teacher’s role to enquire about the students’ thought processes that were involved in the honing of ideas and formation of choices and to guide students to become engaged with a deeper level of understanding of a topic or problem-solving approach. In this role, the teacher must be an active participant in the learning in two distinct ways: first the teacher must set up the process by creating an atmosphere that supports student inquiry and respects new or different ideas, then the teacher must have a broad and deep understanding of their discipline’s subject matter to help guide student inquiry with relevant questions and to help answer or clarify questions that arise from student research (Bosworth and Hamilton 22). The teacher and student in a constructivist classroom both take on the role of learners, and this fundamental role change can help transform student attitudes about learning and self-efficacy. So by setting up a research driven classroom where teacher and students are partnered in learning about and clarifying points regarding a topic, student learning and engagement in the project can be enhanced.

Reciprocal Teaching

Research indicates that student achievement is linked to teacher expectations of students and student expectations of themselves (Brooks and Brooks 41). Student attitudes about their abilities as learners can be positively enhanced by the teacher’s respect not only for their questions and ideas but also for the knowledge they bring with them to school (Brooks and Brooks 42). The constructivist teacher respects that each student comes to the class with different background knowledge and experience, and knows that students’ may not be aware of prior knowledge they possess that could be relevant to the subject or problem at hand. It is the constructivist teacher’s role to identify and activate students’ prior knowledge to engage the students in meaningful learning that builds on ideas and ideas with which they are already familiar with (Zahorik 122). When teachers become familiar with students’ prior knowledge they can address misconceptions and misunderstandings before using the students’ prior experience and wisdom as a starting point for learning. A study in Washington State (Abbot and Fouts 6) indicates that when constructivist teaching is implemented in schools with predominantly lower-income students, the gains in student achievement outweighed the negative impact that poverty has on student achievement. Constructivist teachers engage their students in exploring the “big picture” or larger concept and linking it to their existing understanding of the subject or their knowledge of other subjects related to the larger concept. Creating meaningful connections across disciplines and between divergent subject matter within disciplines is a goal of constructivist teaching and student learning in a constructivist classroom. Creating meaningful connections between students and fostering a community of learners who respect, question, and challenge one another is an essential aspect of constructivist teaching theory supported by current research (Abbot and Fouts 9; Bosworth and Hamilton 22; Brooks and Brooks 12).
The social aspects of learning are taken to heart by constructivists; students cooperatively engaged in the co-construction of knowledge are encouraged by the nature of their cooperative inquiry to question one another, explore each other’s thought processes, and to challenge one another to explore new views. This process may take more class time, but it is class time during which students are actively engaged in the learning process. Georhea Sparks (in Reinhartz, ed., 1984) points out that research indicates time spent engaged in academic learning is a direct indicator of academic success. Constructivist teaching philosophy dictates that students become immersed in academics for longer periods of time that correspond with the time it takes for students to grasp a deep, meaningful understanding of a subject. Sparks (in Reinhartz, ed., 1984) also indicates that time spent at the beginning of the school year or semester creating a common understanding of class procedures and expectations concerning student behaviors in different situations also has a direct relationship to student achievement. Whether this correlation exists because it saves time later in the year or because it creates a safe academic environment where students know their questions or contributions will be respected and honored equally within the community created in the classroom is inconsequential. Constructivist teaching takes advantage of this research and necessitates the creation of the learning community described above.

**Classroom Activities**

*Introduction to Unit and Era*

As a facilitator of learning in this Cold War unit, I will begin in the first week of this journey introducing the themes of the era, briefly touching on many subtopics that students may research for their individual writing project, the I-Search paper. I will also introduce the novels, their themes and general story lines, so that students have an idea of which book or books they may be most interested in reading. After these teacher-led introductions, students will take over, indicating individually which book they would most like to read and the theme in which they are most interested. Students will be grouped based on their preferences and needs as readers and writers. I strive for heterogeneous groups to encourage collaboration and improvement of skills. Students will research their group’s theme, complete related readings, and begin to analyze documents I will provide related to their theme. Student groups will complete document analyses worksheets based on the NARA document analysis procedure. Then student groups will create a timeline of the events related to and having an impact on their theme. The different groups will merge their timelines on a large wall size timeline that I will create in the classroom. The document analysis and timeline creation should take the rest of the first week, and students should then be ready with the background knowledge to delve more deeply into a specific aspect of their group theme and a science fiction novel from the 1950s related to that theme.

*Literature Circles: Groups Reading Science Fiction Novels*

In Literature Circles, students interested in the same topic or novel will be grouped together and will explore the same theme. Each member of the Circle will research a sub-topic of the groups theme and become an expert on that aspect of the theme. Circle members will complete weekly reading assignments from the novel and meet for 1 or 2 class periods a week to discuss the novel. During these discussions each group member will play a role. A Discussion Director leads the discussion and creates engaging questions to stimulate the conversation. A Cultural Connector
finds other works of art, historical or cultural manifestations related to the novel or the themes explored in the reading. A Vocabulary Enricher helps peers by identifying and defining unfamiliar terms. A Literary Luminary selects passages or literary devices that propel the theme and read them aloud for discussion. Story Summarizers provide the group with a weekly update on the story up to this point, and contribute weekly an addition to the group story map. Individual roles switch weekly, so each student has the chance to complete each role at least once.

As a member of the literature circles students will contribute regularly to discussions in a variety of ways outside of their regular rotating job contributions. As a regular contributor students will research and share connections from the past and present, question to stimulate discussion, and point out words and grammatical structures that may have caused they or other students trouble. Literacy Circles create more personal and academic connections between students who would not always interact. This creates a learning community. Outside of the structure of the literacy circle students work with group members to create a community that feels inclusive, respectful, and engaged with the discussion and text. Responding to each other and connecting or contrasting their own thoughts and views with others thoughts and views will help make the groups communities of learners. As a facilitator of these positive group experiences, the teacher must model and help create this environment of safe learning.

As students become familiar with the reading and meta-cognitive skills of their peers they can better identify their own strengths and weakness of mind and learn more about identifying and using these skills. This activity has many meta-cognitive and literacy building strengths. Students will support one another with suggestions on how to read the textual clues to meaning and interpret the different styles of text presented in the novels and primary source readings. The rotating schedule of duties allow each member to shine in his or her own way.

Student groups will present their novels and the evaluations of their novels in light of their research on the group themes. Student groups will engage in a “fishbowl discussion” in front of the class where they generate discussion on their novel in a final Literature Circle session. Each group will summarize their story (with the help of their group story map) and discuss its connection to the group theme. In Social Studies there are many opportunities to use literature circles. I believe that literature can be used as primary source material to help students interpret and connect to an age, era, person, or group. I use the literature circle activity because it helps teach meta-cognitive skills that will improve content learning.

I-Search Papers: Individual Research and Writing, Group Themes and Presentations

The theory behind the I-Search paper is that students generate the topic and essential questions they have about the topic. Then students research the answers to their initial questions and hopefully generate more questions that probe the depths of their topics. Students use this research to compose an essay on their topic that includes a thesis or argument and at least three ideas or bodies of evidence supporting their argument. This format engages students in research that is an extension of the students’ own interests.

In this unit, student groups will each have a theme with which they are working and about which they are reading and researching. Within each theme are many subtopics that would serve well as topics for short research supported essays. In each group students will choose different individual topics that complement each other and tell a larger story when read or
presented together. The research and essays will provide a base of knowledge for student presentations. Student I-Search papers will be the basis for the individual presentation. Students will teach the class about their topic and will focus on interpreting a document related to their research. These individual presentations and document analyses will be organized by the group and incorporated into a larger group presentation on their theme. Student groups will have a class period to present their research and teach the class about their theme.

**Annotated Bibliography**


An excellent source for primary documents, speeches, literature excerpts, photographs, and letters. Focusing heavily on political and diplomatic history, this multivolume work brings together many viewpoints on issues and events. A great resource for students and teachers looking to use primary sources of the Cold War Era.


Booker provides an insightful look at the connections between American culture and the themes addressed in some of the major science fiction films of the late 20th Century. This is a good resource for a teacher preparing for this unit and for student reference as an example of how scholars compare and contrast cultural themes and their manifestations.


*After the Fact* includes well written and engaging explorations into the activity of creating historical accounts and interpreting primary sources. The second volume includes an interesting look at the changing roles of American women in the post-WWII era. The chapter entitled “From Rosie to Lucy” will be a valuable resource for those looking at the changing American culture during the Cold War.


This compilation of essays explores various segments of society and aspects of the arts and popular culture. The Alan Nadel essay, “Cold War Television and the Technology of Brainwashing” can be used to augment an exploration of Cold War transference of cultural norms and values. Changing mores regarding individualism can be explored using Hugh
Stevens’ essay, “Confession, Autobiography and Resistance: Robert Lowell and the Politics of Privacy.” Many of the essays will help students explore how other scholars are currently interpreting the Cold War American culture.


A chronological examination of the McCarthy era and phenomena through an exploration of primary source documents of the era, *McCarthyism* is a great resource for an in depth look at the man and the scare. Lots of speeches, congressional records, interviews, and contemporary articles add to the value of this resource. This volume will be an important resource for teachers and student groups focusing on McCarthyism and the Red Scare.


This essay includes many great ideas for teachers trying to facilitate student research into specific Cold War topics. Chocked full of links and explanations of what types of materials can be found where, this essay could be a great help to check out when teachers or students are stumped as to where to find specific information about a Cold War topic online.


This scholarly look at the systems and plans for civilian war readiness in the atomic age, Grossman’s work unearths avenues through which government programs have helped to shape and direct cultural norms and values of the Cold War era. Interesting background reading for teachers or advanced students interested in the psychological and cultural ramifications of living in the atomic age.


A great resource for students. Exploring a multitude of Cold War sources is easy with this volume of documents. Many informative explanations and background information that puts the primary sources in context.


Harbutt’s broad chronological treatment of the era includes lots of good base information to
students and teachers who are less familiar with the politics, diplomacy, and cultural themes of the era. This book is a great starting place for any researcher on the era.


*Cold War at Home* introduces a unique Pennsylvania perspective on the Cold War, and should be valuable for PA and Philadelphia teachers attempting to create some local connections to engage students. Contains many regional examples of national and international themes.


This collection of primary sources provides a spectacular basis for understanding the underlying beliefs and political motivations of both the U.S. and the Soviet Union in the aftermath of WWII. These ‘long telegrams’ allow readers a glimpse into the minds of the analysts and political advisors who shaped the Cold War era. This edition is a great primary source reader for students and teachers who want to understand how America and the Soviet Union went from allies to foes in the early post-war world.


A scholarly analysis of the US capitol’s response to the threat of nuclear war, Krugler’s book examines the federal preparedness and response protocols to nuclear threats. An in depth exploration of the era through the lens of Washington D.C. during the Truman and Eisenhower administrations, this volume is best suited for teachers and advanced researching students.


A conservative look at the use of public relations machines in international and domestic diplomacy and how the use of public diplomacy helped the US win the Cold War. An interesting counterpoint to some of the more liberal analyses of the era and its impact on today’s world.


Several of the essays in this collection would be helpful for the teacher of this era or the researcher/student exploring the propaganda of the Cold War era. Particularly the Rachel Holloway essay, “The Strategic Defense Initiative and the Technological Sublime: Fear, Science,
and the Cold War,” provides insight into Cold War technological innovations and their cultural implications.


Rose’s exploration of the fallout shelter’s place in the national identity is an interesting look at the developing postwar national identity and the factors that shaped it. A great resource for exploring the manifestations of Cold War fears., *One Nation Underground*, helps shed light on this fascinating time for the national psyche.


An indispensable resource for teachers searching for engaging reading related activities that will help improve reading skills and comprehension. *Reading for Understanding* provides teachers with research driven techniques to improve students’ reading.


A fantastic resource for teachers: full of primary sources (with a teacher resource CD) and reproducible activities related to primary source analysis, arts integration, and higher order thinking. This resource brims with great ideas for social studies teachers.

The Harvard Project on Cold War Studies. “Cold War Studies at Harvard University.”  
http://www.fas.harvard.edu/~hpcws/index2.htm. 2/16/08.

An excellent online resource for declassified documents and exhibits of Cold War documents. Histories of nuclear weapons and Soviet/US relations are helpful for teachers and students. The online archives and links to other collections of primary sources are helpful resources.

“The Cold War.”  
http://www.archives.gov/research/cold-war/. 2/12.08.

The National Archives and Records Administration online resources are extensive, and include many pertinent Cold War era documents, conference papers, educational materials, and exhibits for both students and teachers. Presidential materials and federal records comprise of the bulk of this huge resource, and easy to navigate collections make it easier to sort through the wealth of documents.

The ‘Pages from History’ series helps bring primary source documents alive with an accessible and informative layout and analysis by scholars and experts within the discipline. *The Cold War* takes a chronological tour of the major events and figures of the era through the documents of the era. Ripe with contemporary photographs, artwork, maps, and political cartoons these volumes help students understand how historians put together stories of the past through the use of evidence and documents from the time period.


An interesting collection of primary sources that includes many of the voices that have traditionally been excluded from the story of American history but still provides a comprehensive survey of pertinent American documents. Howard Zinn’s progressive lens shapes this volume’s focus, but his work remains as an important milestone in American historiography.


Appendices—Standards

The Curriculum Unit emphasizes the following Pennsylvania Academic Standards for History:

8.1 Historical Analysis and Skills Development

8.1.12. GRADE 12
A. Evaluate chronological thinking
B. Synthesize and evaluate historical sources
C. Evaluate historical interpretation of events
D. Synthesize historical research

8.2 Pennsylvania History

8.2.12. GRADE 12
A. Evaluate the political and cultural contributions of individuals and groups to Pennsylvania history from 1890 to Present.
B. Identify and evaluate primary documents, material artifacts and historic sites important in Pennsylvania history from 1890 to Present.
C. Identify and evaluate how continuity and change have influenced Pennsylvania history from the 1890s to Present.
D. Identify and evaluate conflict and cooperation among social groups and organizations in Pennsylvania history from 1890 to Present.

8.3 United States History

8.3.9. GRADE 9
A. Identify and analyze the political and cultural contributions of individuals and groups to United States history from 1787 to 1914.
B. Identify and analyze primary documents, material artifacts and historic sites important in United States history from 1787 to 1914.
C. Analyze how continuity and change has influenced United States history from 1787 to 1914.
D. Identify and analyze conflict and cooperation among social groups and organizations in United States history from 1787 to 1914.

8.3.12. GRADE 12
A. Identify and evaluate the political and cultural contributions of individuals and groups to United States history from 1890 to Present.
B. Identify and evaluate primary documents, material artifacts and historic sites important in United States history from 1890 to Present.
C. Evaluate how continuity and change has influenced United States history from 1890 to Present.
D. Identify and evaluate conflict and cooperation among social groups and organizations in United States history from 1890 to the Present.
1.1. Learning to Read Independently

1.1.11. A. Locate various texts, media and traditional resources for assigned and independent projects before reading.

B. Analyze the structure of informational materials explaining how authors used these to achieve their purposes.

C. Use knowledge of root words and words from literary works to recognize and understand the meaning of new words during reading. Use these words accurately in speaking and writing.

D. Identify, describe, evaluate and synthesize the essential ideas in text. Assess those reading strategies that were most effective in learning from a variety of texts.

E. Establish a reading vocabulary by identifying and correctly using new words acquired through the study of their relationships to other words. Use a dictionary or related reference.

F. Understand the meaning of and apply key vocabulary across the various subject areas.

G. Demonstrate after reading understanding and interpretation of both fiction and nonfiction text, including public documents.
   - Make, and support with evidence, assertions about texts.
   - Compare and contrast texts using themes, settings, characters and ideas.
   - Make extensions to related ideas, topics or information.
   - Assess the validity of the document based on context.
   - Analyze the positions, arguments and evidence in public documents.
   - Evaluate the author’s strategies.
   - Critique public documents to identify strategies common in public discourse.

H. Demonstrate fluency and comprehension in reading.
   - Read familiar materials aloud with accuracy.
   - Self-correct mistakes.
   - Use appropriate rhythm, flow, meter and pronunciation.
   - Read a variety of genres and types of text.

1.2. Reading Critically in All Content Areas

1.1.11. GRADE 11

A. Read and understand essential content of informational texts and documents in all academic areas.
   - Differentiate fact from opinion across a variety of texts by using complete and accurate information, coherent arguments and points of view.
Distinguish between essential and nonessential information across a variety of sources, identifying the use of proper references or authorities and propaganda techniques where present.

Use teacher and student established criteria for making decisions and drawing conclusions.

Evaluate text organization and content to determine the author’s purpose and effectiveness according to the author’s theses, accuracy, thoroughness, logic and reasoning.

B. Use and understand a variety of media and evaluate the quality of material produced.

Select appropriate electronic media for research and evaluate the quality of the information received.

Explain how the techniques used in electronic media modify traditional forms of discourse for different purposes.

Use, design and develop a media project to demonstrate understanding (e.g., a major writer or literary period or movement).

1.2. Reading, Analyzing and Interpreting Literature

1.2.11. GRADE 11

A. Read and understand works of literature.

B. Analyze the relationships, uses and effectiveness of literary elements used by one or more authors in similar genres including characterization, setting, plot, theme, point of view, tone and style.

C. Analyze the effectiveness, in terms of literary quality, of the author’s use of literary devices.
   - Sound techniques (e.g., rhyme, rhythm, meter, alliteration).
   - Figurative language (e.g., personification, simile, metaphor, hyperbole, irony, satire).
   - Literary structures (e.g., foreshadowing, flashbacks, progressive and digressive time).

D. Analyze and evaluate in poetry the appropriateness of diction and figurative language (e.g., irony, understatement, overstatement, paradox).

E. Analyze how a scriptwriter’s use of words creates tone and mood, and how choice of words advances the theme or purpose of the work.

F. Read and respond to nonfiction and fiction including poetry and drama.

1.3. Types of Writing

1.4.11. GRADE 11

A. Write short stories, poems and plays.
   - Apply varying organizational methods.
   - Use relevant illustrations.
   - Utilize dialogue.
   - Apply literary conflict.
Include varying characteristics (e.g., from limerick to epic, from whimsical to dramatic).
☐ Include literary elements

B. Write complex informational pieces (e.g., research papers, analyses, evaluations, essays).
   • Include a variety of methods to develop the main idea.
   • Use precise language and specific detail.
   • Include cause and effect.
   • Use relevant graphics (e.g., maps, charts, graphs, tables, illustrations, photographs).
   ☐ Use primary and secondary sources.

C. Write persuasive pieces.
   • Include a clearly stated position or opinion.
   • Include convincing, elaborated and properly cited evidence.
   • Develop reader interest.
   • Anticipate and counter reader concerns and arguments.
   • Include a variety of methods to advance the argument or position.

1.4. Quality of Writing
1.4.11. GRADE 11
A. Write with a sharp, distinct focus.
   ☐ Identify topic, task and audience.
   ☐ Establish and maintain a single point of view.

B. Write using well-developed content appropriate for the topic.
   ☐ Gather, determine validity and reliability of, analyze and organize information.
   ☐ Employ the most effective format for purpose and audience.
   ☐ Write fully developed paragraphs that have details and information specific to the topic and relevant to the focus.

C. Write with controlled and/or subtle organization.
   ☐ Sustain a logical order throughout the piece.
   ☐ Include an effective introduction and conclusion.

D. Write with a command of the stylistic aspects of composition.
   ☐ Use different types and lengths of sentences.
   ☐ Use precise language.

E. Revise writing to improve style, word choice, sentence variety and subtlety of meaning after rethinking how questions of purpose, audience and genre have been addressed.

F. Edit writing using the conventions of language.
   ☐ Spell all words correctly.
   ☐ Use capital letters correctly.
   ☐ Punctuate correctly (periods, exclamation points, question marks, commas, quotation marks, apostrophes, colons, semicolons, parentheses, hyphens, brackets, ellipses).
   ☐ Use nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, conjunctions, prepositions and interjections properly.
   ☐ Use complete sentences (simple, compound, complex, declarative, interrogative, exclamatory and imperative).
1.5. Speaking and Listening
1.5.11. GRADE 11

A. Listen to others.
   - Ask clarifying questions.
   - Synthesize information, ideas and opinions to determine relevancy.
   - Take notes.

B. Listen to selections of literature (fiction and/or nonfiction).
   - Relate them to previous knowledge.
   - Predict solutions to identified problems.
   - Summarize and reflect on what has been heard.
   - Identify and define new words and concepts.
   - Analyze and synthesize the selections relating them to other selections heard or read.

C. Speak using skills appropriate to formal speech situations.
   - Use a variety of sentence structures to add interest to a presentation.
   - Pace the presentation according to audience and purpose.

D. Contribute to discussions.
   - Ask relevant, clarifying questions.
   - Respond with relevant information or opinions to questions asked.
   - Listen to and acknowledge the contributions of others.
   - Adjust tone and involvement to encourage equitable participation.
   - Facilitate total group participation.
   - Introduce relevant, facilitating information, ideas and opinions to enrich the discussion.
   - Paraphrase and summarize as needed.

E. Participate in small and large group discussions and presentations.
   - Initiate everyday conversation.
   - Select and present an oral reading on an assigned topic.
   - Conduct interviews.
   - Participate in a formal interview (e.g., for a job, college).
   - Organize and participate in informal debate around a specific topic.

F. Use media for learning purposes.
   - Use various forms of media to elicit information, to make a student presentation and to complete class assignments and projects.
   - Evaluate the role of media in focusing attention and forming opinions.
Create a multi-media (e.g., film, music, computer-graphic) presentation for display or transmission that demonstrates an understanding of a specific topic or issue or teaches others about it

1.8. Research

1.1.11. GRADE 11
A. Select and refine a topic for research.
B. Locate information using appropriate sources and strategies.
   - Determine valid resources for researching the topic, including primary and secondary sources.
   - Evaluate the importance and quality of the sources.
   - Select sources appropriate to the breadth and depth of the research (e.g., dictionaries, thesauruses, other reference materials, interviews, observations, computer databases).
   - Use tables of contents, indices, key words, cross-references and appendices.
   - Use traditional and electronic search tools.

C. Organize, summarize and present the main ideas from research.
   - Take notes relevant to the research topic.
   - Develop a thesis statement based on research.
   - Anticipate readers’ problems or misunderstandings.
   - Give precise, formal credit for others’ ideas, images or information using a standard method of documentation.
   - Use formatting techniques (e.g., headings, graphics) to aid reader understanding.