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Language in the Classroom: K-12 Resources on 9/11

Introduction:

Nearly nineteen years have passed since the terrorist attacks of September 11th. Several cohorts of young people have now undergone social studies education in the United States, exploring, in particular, the events of September 11th. A great deal of research on the effects of 9/11 examines how individual perceptions are reached from mystified rhetoric in the classroom. Political scientists, sociologists, psychologists, among many other researchers in varying disciplines, have identified flaws in the ways that young people are being educated about the events of September 11th in the classroom. Much of the research up to this point has synthesized several aspects of education including but not limited to student knowledge, language cues for patriotism, the use of imagery and the role of the media, and whitewashing - or covering up - of historical and accurate information.

Specifically, the research about the education of 9/11 in high school textbooks is nuanced. Diana Hess, Jeremy Stoddard, and Shannon Murto have studied how certain types of textbooks, namely American history, world history, and government/civics textbooks, define concepts like “terrorism” and deconstructs phrases like “day of infamy,” and then codifies interrogatives presented in texts as either high order thinking (HOT) or lower order thinking (LOT) to measure historical knowledge (Hess, et al., 2008). They find that the language in the textbooks leads to highly heuristic conclusions of 9/11 that portray the United States as “victimized” by terrorism decontextualizing the historical evidence of what actually happened and why (Hess, et al., 2008). Furthermore, Michael H. Romanowski has continued a similar

approach through his analysis of textbooks and finds the omission of key terms like “Jihad” and other information that helps explain the conflicts in the Middle East and provide insights into terrorists’ motives (Romanowski, 2009). Similarly, historian Jon Weiner in his analysis of textbooks, finds that they resort to vague words “Saudi dissident” to describe Osama bin Laden and “group” to describe the Taliban which offer mystified understandings of who these people are and the motives for their actions (Weiner, 2005).

September 11th has also been researched from a broader perspective focusing on language and symbols of the media coverage of the event. Denton discusses the role of the media in producing and reinforcing emotionally evocative content immediately following the attacks of September 11th. Denton further elaborates on content that was considered “taboo” including the falling man, which dehumanized the loss of an individual, while also explaining the use of visual content in the media to coalesce public support for U.S. immediate military action abroad (Denton, 2004). This is also directly connected to another study conducted by Roza, which explores the implicit litmus test of socially acceptable content and art in the aftermath of 9/11. Roza analyzes a poem submission that discusses the nature of imperialism and capitalism that have allowed for marginalized communities to endure “domestic terrorism” for years (Roza, 2009). Roza explains that the poem’s lack of empathy for victims largely does not conform to the norm especially portrayed in mainstream media outlets espousing values of mourning and patriotism in response to the attack, as evident in its title, Somebody Blew Up America (Roza, 2009). Additionally, James Loewen has done a great deal of research on historical whitewashing - the intentional act of covering up or withholding information that counters a desired cognitive outcome - and provides a less patriotic narrative to historical events of American history focusing on the classroom and the use of textbooks. Beyond creating a narrative in textbooks that

exerts patriotism, Loewen also discusses another aspect in his analysis, which is the information that is intentionally removed from the discussion (Loewen, 2018). Lastly, Diana Hess and Paula McAvoy explore the nature (and ethics) of teachers sharing political views in the classroom, and ultimately measure the merits and downfalls by conducting interviews and observations (Hess and McAvoy, 2015). While this is not explicitly linked to 9/11, the research done on conservative arguments against a multiculturalist approach to learning about 9/11 directly relates to partisan cues in language structure as well. In this respect, classroom policies matter, and teachers' discretion with political views can have an effect on classroom dialogue.

While there is a considerable amount of existing literature on the study of educating young people on the events of September 11th, there is a lack of research on pedagogical resources; the specific area of K-12 resources on 9/11. It is known that the language and information in textbooks can be wrong, nuanced, or misleading. It is known that the media has had an impact on reinforcing excessive patriotism and that symbols are useful in doing so. What has been unclear up to this point, however, is how K-12 resources fit into this dynamic, if at all. It is reasonable to assume, especially in the age of technological advances, that K-12 resources are often easily accessible to educators and can be easier to unpack instead of using more cumbersome textbooks or instructor manuals especially for lower grade levels. This study attempts to analyze both the language structure and the typology of reasoning that is being employed in K-12 literature and lesson plans on 9/11. The results will indicate that the political language of 9/11 in the classroom, is perhaps, just as nuanced and misleading as textbooks.

Methodology:

A critical discourse analysis will be employed utilizing concepts established from multiple researchers. This research inquiry will combine the works of Murray Edelman and

George Lakoff in recognizing the application of metaphor theory. Furthermore, Otto Santa Ana's technique of discourse analysis will be applied to identify metaphorical language to assess the validity of these K-12 resources in providing students with factual information. Santa Ana describes discourse analysis to include "linguistic elements and the layers of analysis of this interdisciplinary enterprise: phonetic and intonational expression (speech); graphic expression (writing); syntactic and lexical structure; semantic structure within a sentence...etc." (Santa Ana, 2002, pg. 21). After analyzing the literature, data will be produced that identifies several things, including the level of factual information presented, the employment of metaphors and condensation symbols, and the origin of these resources (where they are coming from). Applying language in this study is particularly significant, hence, the use of discourse analysis. As Murray Edelman has produced through his research, language conveys hidden symbolic meanings through cues embedded within the text. They are symbolic in the sense that they offer heuristic responses over synthesizing information. It references theatrics over empirical information.

Initially, prior to conducting preliminary research, I thought it best to limit the lesson plans available to sites of official knowledge, such as the World Trade Center Memorial and Museum and the New York Times. However, after some consideration, I deemed it necessary to have a representative sample of lesson plans from more mainstream sources. Hence, multiple sources will be examined in this research inquiry. These sources are accessible online and at no cost to those who wish to view and/or use them. Upon thoroughly reviewing the sources, content will be codified into the following categories: the number and employment of metaphors and images, and a typology of questions posed (high order vs. low order thinking - similar to the methodology employed by Hess, McAvoy, and Murto). After reviewing the ensuing data, an analysis of the content will be provided by dissecting metaphors and the utilization of heuristic

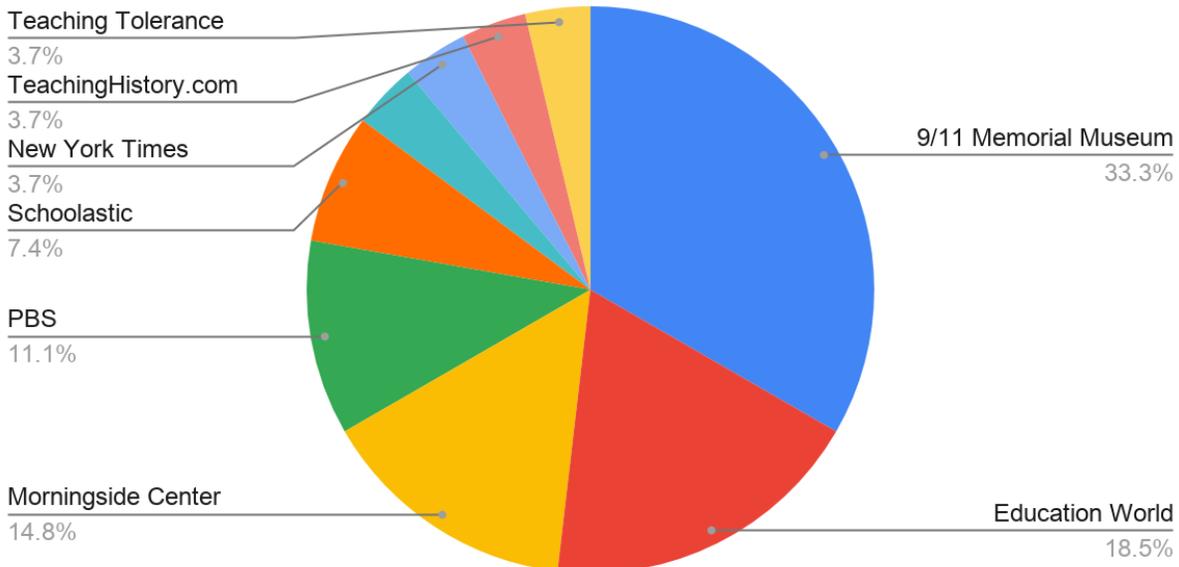
cognition that linguist George Lakoff has studied. A final conclusion of the results will be offered with respect to K-12 resources and the merit of their content and compared to pre-existing literature on student knowledge of 9/11.

There are two limitations with this study. First and foremost, the frequency and usage of these K-12 resources by educators is unknown. It is entirely unclear as to when, where, and how these lesson plans are employed or if teachers even access these resources. Second, what is also unknown is the immediate impact of these lesson plans on students. Given that in-person interviews and observations will not be conducted for this study, inferences based on existing literature may be derived. This study will reveal how easily accessible K-12 literature on 9/11 for educational purposes are portrayed with respect to language framing. Furthermore, this study will also engage with measuring the official, verifiable information that is offered to students through these resources, as well as the level and amount of content analysis offered, if at all.

For this research inquiry, a total of 27 K-12 lesson plans and resources were sampled. Many of these sources were located from a common primary source, such as the September 11th Memorial and Museum Website or Education World. With respect to location primary sources, google was utilized. This was intentionally done, as the goal was to locate easily accessible sources that educators may or may not be using. By not limiting the parameter in the search for primary sources that offer lesson plans and resources, a more diverse sample is yielded to have a better chance of identifying common themes or contrasts with respect to the various measures being employed in this study. Graph 1A below illustrates the diversity of primary sources included in this study.

Primary Sources for Lesson Plans

Graph 1A



Having examined the data, one thing that is apparent is that, while the study included all resources designated for grades kindergarten through twelfth grade, a majority of sources (approximately 63%), were designated for grades six and up. There appears to be a baseline year for when content is introduced the most to students with respect to 9/11, though this is only a hunch. This study does not incorporate official learning standards, as it only measures available online resources.

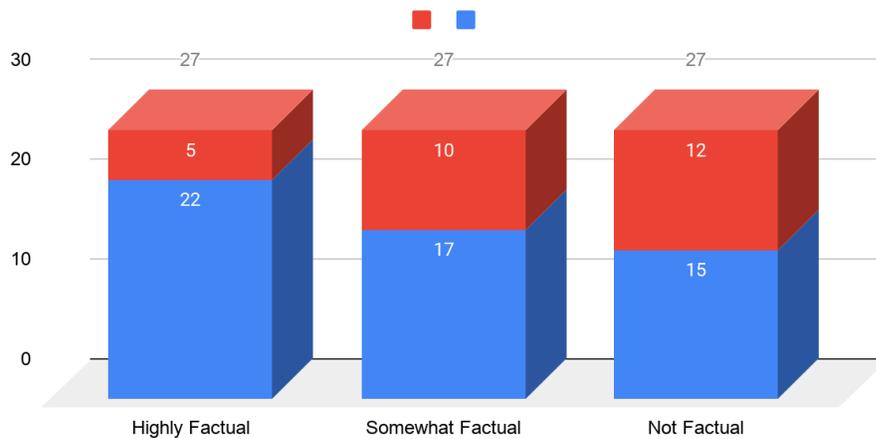
Factual vs. Non-Factual:

The first measure of the methodology in this study is purely based on content evaluation. All 27 sources were thoroughly read and examined, and the first control to be measured is the offering of official knowledge. By official knowledge, the implication is that sources are, to some extent, offering information about the events of 9/11 that are factually accurate. To analyze this, all 27 lesson plans and resources were codified into three categories: highly factual, somewhat factual, and not factual. The factual information being considered is fairly basic, and

largely considers the inclusion of information with respect to the events of 9/11 and events related to it, such as the Iraq War, and elements of multiculturalism and U.S. foreign policy. For the purpose of this study, factual information is considered to be official knowledge that is evidently accurate and backed by sources of official knowledge. To measure factual information for the purpose of categorization, resources that offer official knowledge, such as the 9/11 Memorial and Museum and reputable news sources such as the New York Times, were utilized for this purpose. Next, the three categories of highly factual, somewhat factual, and not factual were distinguished. This was done utilizing normative judgement. If about one third of the content being presented was factual, it was deemed to be somewhat factual. For the purpose of this study, consider one third to be only a portion of the webpage displaying the lesson plan to offer factual information AND/OR about five factual statements regarding the events of September 11th. Lesson plans and resources that offered at least half a webpage worth of factual information AND/OR more than five factual statements regarding the events of September 11th were deemed highly factual. If neither of the above criteria were met, the lesson plan and/or resource was deemed not factual. While this specific section does not directly interact with the employment of metaphor theory and Edelman's scholarly work on symbolic language, it is imperative to see the correlation between the level of factual information being presented in conjunction with the frequency of symbolic language used in K-12 resources and lesson plans. Graph 2A below illustrates the level of factuality in these resources and lesson plans. The red coded section reflects the amount applicable to the respective category. The blue section represents the remainder of sources. Graph 3A below that illustrates the number of resources and lesson plans that embedded external content, such as a graph, video, or worksheet, etc.

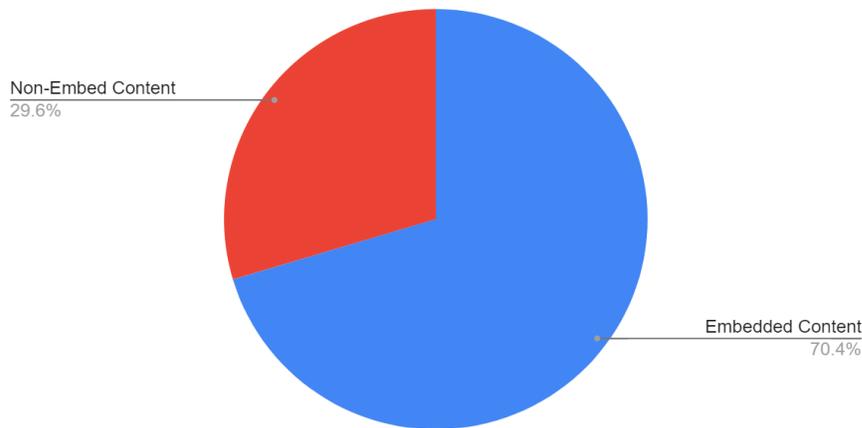
Total Sources Sorted by Level of Factual Information Provided

Graph 2A



Percentage of Sources with Embedded Content vs. Not

Graph 3A



Typology:

The next measure of the K-12 resources and lesson plans sampled measures how (and if) critical thinking is employed and embedded within these resources for students to engage with. Again, while this section does not necessarily engage with the crux of the argument in this research inquiry, it is imperative to understand not only what is being presented but also how students are being asked to engage with this content. All resources and lesson plans sampled offered some type of assignment or question posed to students to reflect and/or engage with

content presented. These questions and assignments were categorized into several categories, borrowing from the methodology of Hess, Stoddard and Murto, which is derived from Bloom's taxonomy model of thinking. The first category is Low Order Thinking, or LOT. Low Order Thinking requests students to recite information and does not pose a critical analysis of some kind. An example of this would be to ask a student what caused the Twin Towers in New York to collapse (Hess, et al., 2008). The next type, as codified by Hess, Stoddard and Murto, is Unintended LOT. An Unintended LOT is a question posed that appears to be analytical is really a low order thinking question beneath the surface. An example of an Unintended LOT question would be "Why did the U.S. Government create a new agency after the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks?" (Hess, et al., 2008). This question, on the surface, appears to warrant critical analysis. However, it is a declarative statement that warrants a "correct" response, which makes it a low order thinking question (Hess, et al., 2008). The other two types of classification are open and/or closed High Order Thinking, or HOT. A HOT question engages in critical analysis of the content and requires students to think beyond recalling, for example, just something that occurred. The difference between open and closed, however, is that an open HOT question requires critical analysis but does not have a "correct" answer, while a closed HOT question requires the same but has a clear conclusion to be reached (Hess, et al., 2008). Lastly, some resources and lesson plans offer a combination of possible questions and activities posed. In this case, a "combination" category was created for those examples. See Table 1B below for the

numerical distinctions between HOT and LOT questions in the lesson plans and resources.

LOT	8
Unintended LOT	6
HOT Open	3
HOT Closed	0
HOT Open/Closed	4
Combination	6

Edelman: Symbols and Language:

This section of the research inquiry now dissects the language and discourse analysis components of the research inquiry. To understand the significance of language and symbols with respect to this research inquiry, a reflection on the work of scholars Murray Edelman and George Lakoff is required. To begin, Edelman in his book, *The Symbolic Uses of Politics*, argues that we, as the human beings of society, largely do not experience politics in the physical sense. Rather, we experience the “language” of politics, and that it is “symbolic” (Edelman, 1985). Furthermore, he describes the notion of politics as a “series of pictures in the mind, placed there by television news, newspapers, magazines, and discussions. The pictures create a moving panorama taking place in a world the mass public never quite touches, yet one its members come to fear or cheer, often with passion and sometimes with action” (Edelman, 1985). In essence, factual information does not permeate so much as perceptions do, and perceptions are created through the language which can lead to a misguided conclusion.

In developing his theory, Edelman presents several forms of evidence to reinforce that this is the case, including but not limited to the role of the media in agenda setting. While he introduces multiple concepts in his research, this study is primarily concerned with - and will utilize - two specific areas. The first is the idea of symbols. Edelman establishes two types of symbols: referential and condensation. Referential symbols allude to a reality, or in essence, are

physical, tangible objects that exist. On the other hand, condensation symbols are not physical things but perceived images that evoke an emotional or heuristic response associated with an act (Edelman, 1985). Edelman also establishes types of language in this book. The four types he describes are: Hortatory (general in its appeal and concealing of emotion); Legal (incomprehensible and mystifying rhetoric); Administrative (directed to a specific public with implied adherence); and Bargaining (the avoidance of public reactions through quid pro quos) (Edelman, 1985). For this project, the primary concern is with hortatory language, which is used to not only conceal information but also reinforce a predetermined conclusion, often an emotional one. The most common with respect to 9/11 is excessive patriotism, which will be discussed and synthesized further down.

Lakoff: Framing and Discourse Analysis:

In his book, *Moral Politics*, George Lakoff argues that metaphors are far more than methods of linguistic expression. In fact, he asserts that in many ways, they frame how we think and process information. This is cognitive metaphor theory. Instead of processing information in a pure sense, metaphors are used in the cognitive process to often reinforce a desired outcome. The desired outcomes, in a sense, are biased because they are subjective and derivative of morality. The crux of Lakoff's argument is that metaphors are derived from morality, and morality is defined from the family structure in the early years of socialization (Lakoff, 1996). Morality is the reason why liberals and conservatives find certain values to be "common sense" (Lakoff, 1996).

Given that morality is derived from the family, it is imperative to recognize that there are two types of framing for morality, and they are derived from parenting models. The first is the "strict father" model. In essence, this model offers an apprehensive worldview, obligates the

necessity of reward and punishment in order for self-discipline and control to be exercised, and operates under both a hierarchical and meritocracy type structure (Lakoff, 1996). This parenting model, if not cross pressured, typically yields conservative values and alignment with the Republican party. The other parenting model that Lakoff introduces is the “nurturant parent” model. This model prioritizes love and care, two-way communication, interactions of love feeding met desires, empathy and protection, and obedience through respect as opposed to fear (Lakoff, 1996). This parenting model typically aligns with liberals or the Democratic Party. Socialization through parental framing is significant because the subjectivity of one’s morality encourages adherence to the metaphoric language, which in turn, can evoke heuristic or emotional response and/or arrive at misguided conceptions. That said, it is also imperative to recognize that the metaphorical language is intentional and used specifically for the reasons above. With respect to the K-12 resources and lesson plans on 9/11, the data presented below, in conjunction with the discourse analysis, will illustrate the language is in many cases, highly metaphorical. This is problematic, as these resources may not present factual information about 9/11 with respect to what happened, and most importantly, WHY it happened. Metaphors also assist in reducing or leaving out vital information to offer explanations, and instead, assist in achieving certain desired reactions. Metaphors can also be used with factual information. It is how they are used that makes them symbolic conduits for misleading content. Lastly, with respect to the methodology of discourse analysis created by Lakoff and utilized by Santa Ana, Joseph Grady’s theory of primary metaphor (now integrated into metaphor theory) - which correlates conceptual metaphors with an experiential basis - is employed by determining and apparent in the data below by dissecting the source and target domains of words within the metaphor in question (Lenz Costa Lima, 2006). Grady asserts that source domains are: “defined

by sensation or sensorial input,” “refer[ing] to simple experiences in a phenomenological sense,” “related in predictable ways to our goals or actions directed to attainment of the goal,” “refer[ing] to universal elements of human experience,” and “relational, not nominal concepts” (Lenz Costa Lima, 2006). Furthermore, Grady claims that target domains are: “elements of the same experiences that give primary source concepts their meaning,” and “refer[ing] to basic units or parameters of the cognitive function, at the levels we have conscious direct access (or immediately below them)” (Lenz Costa Lima, 2006).

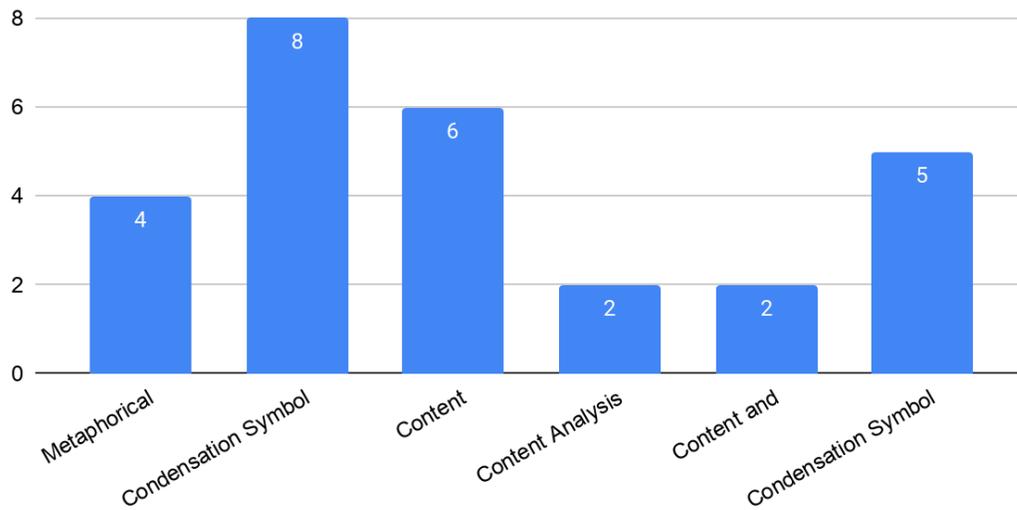
Data

With this information in mind, Graph 4A below presents an illustration of all 27 lesson plans and resources which were analyzed and then sorted into the following categories based on what each lesson plan or resource was applicable to: Metaphorical, Condensation Symbol and Metaphorical, Content, Content Analysis, Content and Condensation Symbol/Metaphor, and Condensation Symbol. To clarify, this research inquiry defines “content” as presenting information related to the subject at hand (more in line with LOT typology). Furthermore, “content analysis” is defined to include content that also employs the student to think critically in some capacity (varying typology). Of the 27 lesson plans and resources, only those with just

“metaphors” and “condensation symbols” respectively were sampled for analysis.

Sources Divided by Language Style and Content

Graph 4A



Metaphorical:

See the data below for an analysis of metaphors that were employed in the lesson plans and resources in this study. For this section, metaphors were employed in 4 out of 27 sources. In some cases, more than one metaphor was employed per lesson plan/resource. Therefore, only one would have been selected for sampling.

Table 2B:

Source:	How can art convey meaning in the immediate aftermath of a tragic event?
Quote	"unbearable loss of life"
Source Domain	life (loss of)
Definition	the existence of an individual human being or animal. (Oxford)
Target Domain	unbearable
Definition	not able to be endured or tolerated. (Oxford)

Table 3B:

Source:	Encountering History: A 9/11 Lesson Plan
Quote	"Terrorist attacks can shake the foundations of our biggest buildings, but they cannot touch the foundation of America."
Source Domain	attack(s) (foundations of our biggest buildings)
Definition	take aggressive action against (a place or enemy forces) with weapons or armed force, typically in a battle or war. (Oxford)
Target Domain	foundation (of America)
Definition	an underlying basis or principle. (Oxford)

Table 4B:

Source:	Teacher Blog: Remembering 9/11 Using Photographs
Quote	"The dichotomy of such freedom promised in the very place where an event like September 11th can imprison your being."
Source Domain	freedom
Definition	the power or right to act, speak, or think as one wants without hindrance or restraint. (Oxford)
Target Domain	dichotomy (imprison your being)
Definition	a division or contrast between two things that are or are represented as being opposed or entirely different. (Oxford)

Table 5B:

Source:	What Are the Most Important Changes, in Your Life and in the World, in the Last Decade?
Quote	"He is among some 3,000 children under 18 who lost not only a parent in the attacks, but also their very sense of security."
Source Domain	lost (loss)
Definition	denoting something that has been taken away or cannot be recovered. (Oxford)
Target Domain	security (sense of)
Definition	the safety of a state or organization against criminal activity such as terrorism, theft, or espionage. (Oxford, political)

Condensation Symbols:

See the data below for an analysis of condensation symbols that were employed in the lesson plans and resources in this study. For this section, condensation symbols were employed

in 5 out of 27 sources. In some cases, more than one condensation symbol was employed per lesson plan/resource. Therefore, only one would have been selected for sampling.

Table 6B:

Source:	Local Heroes
Condensation Symbol	"hero" (repeated several times)
Definition (if applicable)	a person who is admired or idealized for courage, outstanding achievements, or noble qualities. (Oxford)

Table 7B:

Source:	Muslims in America after 9/11, Part III
Condensation Symbol	"Muslim"
Definition (if applicable)	a follower of the religion of Islam. (Oxford)

Note: this source breaks down the association of “Muslim” with “terrorism.”

Table 8B:

Source:	9/11 Anniversary Teaching Guide
Condensation Symbol	"minutes of silence"
Definition (if applicable)	a short period of silent thought or prayer. (Merriam-Webster)

Table 9B:

Source:	9/11 Anniversary Teaching Guide (3-5)
Condensation Symbol	"ground zero" (repeats 3x)
Definition (if applicable)	the point on the earth's surface directly above or below an exploding nuclear bomb. (Oxford)

Table 10B:

Source:	Write Letters to Commemorate 9/11
Condensation Symbol	"service heroes"
Definition (if applicable)	a person who is admired or idealized for courage, outstanding achievements, or noble qualities. (Oxford)

Analysis:

Given a total of 27 sources were sampled, a great deal of information can be found among just the four metaphors and five condensation symbols extracted. Bear in mind, some sources were coded under multiple categories as they had overlapping criteria, such as a condensation symbol and metaphor employed. That said, with respect to the metaphors, the target and source domain model offers an explanation for heuristic cognitive response. For example, in table 2B, the phrase “unbearable loss of life” is employed within the text.” While this may appear on the surface as a simple contextualization of those who perished on September 11th, it offers no more no less an explanation for the events of 9/11. This research inquiry does not intend to argue against the notion of national solidarity in the aftermath of a devastating event. However, it does not offer an empirical and digestible explanation for the events of 9/11. It instead offers an explanation for the “we were all attacked” phenomenon that was expressed post-9/11. This is an example of heuristic cognition at its best. The hortatory language style that Edelman describes here is apparent as the language is vague yet official. There is no quantifiable “loss of life” being exerted in this lesson plan/resource, and yet, instruction is being commenced by the teacher, which makes it official in its own capacity.

The same could be said for the other three metaphors dissected for the study. In table 3B, an implied connection between “attacks” and “foundation” is being made to suggest a change in the way of life. The source domain of “attacks” is the physical event and the author is suggesting “foundation” to be the target domain, as it is the intended effect to imply a fundamental change. Again, the language is vague but also official given the contextualization of a classroom setting. This metaphor in its physical presence, appears to evoke a sense of fear-based heuristic cognition with the use of the word “foundation,” given that the definition of the word does not necessarily

match with the intended use in this excerpt. The language is just simply that: inflamed language that offers little contextual information to the study of 9/11.

The metaphor in Table 4B is particularly interesting, as it implicates “freedom,” which in and of itself, is a loosely defined word. The use of “dichotomy” is also indicative of the predetermined response to be yielded by questioning if the same “freedoms” that America has historically offered are still available or existent. The “imprison your being” part is also useful in understanding the predetermined cognitive process that is being employed through language. Sure, in the years following 9/11, things became a bit stricter especially in regard to air travel. However, what “freedoms” were reduced that “imprisoned the being” as a result of 9/11? Here, the solidarity “we are all victims” philosophy isn’t as apparent as the freedom is at stake and ‘we’ must respond” is. The same could be said of Table 5B and its respective metaphor.

With respect to the five condensation symbols presented, the same function of heuristic cognition is being served, only in a different way. Language is as essential here as it is with the metaphors and the discourse of them. However, the condensation symbols, often embedded into metaphors, are employed to resort to a value-based cognitive process. Given that it is value-based, these types of symbols within language make it much easier to not only digest heuristic content but to also conform it without the notion of fact-checking or considering cross pressures, such as multiculturalism. “Hero” is a condensation symbol that was sampled twice in two of the five samples. It is a vague term because it cannot be clearly defined to one particular example. However, the cues of, for example, fireman or policeman, help the cognitive process resort to, or in some cases, create a value structure for the children adhering to this lesson plan or resource(s). This is problematic because it can assist in developing a pattern for value-based, heuristic cognition in analyzing future societal issues. With respect to socialization, it is known that as an

individual progresses through age and the institutions, one's values tend to become more solidified. Condensation symbols play a persistent role in this process by implicitly allowing children to determine the "good guys" and "bad guys." In doing so, there is no room for assessing nuance, such as the fact that Islamic extremism is such a small fraction of the overall Muslim community. That said, the value-based, heuristic style cognition negates the ability to synthesize these problems, and with particular respect to 9/11, persuades students to recognize the personal over the plural, factual, or political. Each of the five condensation symbols presented helps reinforce this notion.

Conclusion:

This study hoped to accomplish several things. The first is to understand to what extent these readily available lesson plans and resources on the subject of 9/11 for K12 were useful in portraying empirical content and/or content analysis. Based on the coding standards applied on all 27 sources, 12 were deemed non-factual, 10 were deemed somewhat factual, and 5 were deemed to be factual. This study also set out to examine the typology where applicable, understanding how students are intended to think either critically or non-critically. Based on coding standards from previous studies as mentioned above, a typology was utilized to assess the critical thinking skills being employed in these lesson plans if at all. The data reflects that a majority of these sources, after having been codified, fit into the low order thinking and unintended low order thinking categories. This suggests that informational and critical thinking skills are not applied in a majority of these sources.

After assessing information standards, the most critical and quintessential part of this study was to explore the language of these lesson plans and resources. What has been discovered is largely in tandem with what was predicted in the beginning. The language style creates nuance

and a lack of understanding in a great deal of these lesson plans and resources. The employment of metaphors with predetermined heuristic responses and the utilization of condensation symbols creates an atmosphere of heuristic regurgitation similar to that of the nuanced high school textbooks studied by Hess, et.al. This is significant given that this information is readily available for instructors online and can give misguided, non-multicultural and civics-based understandings of the events of 9/11, and most importantly, why it happened. While it is unknown as to who is using these sources if at all, what is known is that the information provided may be detrimental to creating a solid understanding of the events of 9/11 and why it happened. Some of these sources were good at providing factual information and content analysis. Nearly all, however, employed some type of heuristic language device. With that in mind, it is essential that educators be careful in selecting these resources for classroom instruction. While some have merit and quality to their instruction method, it is imperative that educators consider the language style and its effects that are embedded in these resources. Educators should ask themselves what students will learn from these sources, and will it help them to understand why 9/11 happened. That is arguably the most important part, as time and time again, individuals have struggled to offer an explanation for why the events take place. While curricula on this subject matter is controversial, educators should be encouraged to think not only about the content but also the language style too, because it does matter.

Source List:

Source Title	Link
How can art convey meaning in the immediate aftermath of a tragic event?	https://www.911memorial.org/learn/students-and-teachers/lesson-plans/911-events-day
Local Heroes	https://www.911memorial.org/learn/students-and-teachers/lesson-plans/lesson-plans/local-heroes
Targeting American Symbols	https://www.911memorial.org/learn/students-and-teachers/lesson-plans/targeting-american-symbols
Moving Forward After Tragedy	https://www.911memorial.org/learn/students-and-teachers/lesson-plans/moving-forward-after-tragedy
Muslims in America after 9/11, Part I	https://www.911memorial.org/learn/students-and-teachers/lesson-plans/muslims-america-after-911-part-i
Muslims in America After 9/11, Part II	https://www.911memorial.org/learn/students-and-teachers/lesson-plans/muslims-america-after-911-part-ii
Muslims in America after 9/11, Part III	https://www.911memorial.org/learn/students-and-teachers/lesson-plans/muslims-america-after-911-part-iii
Paying Tribute to the Attacks	https://www.911memorial.org/learn/students-and-teachers/lesson-plans/paying-tribute-attacks
American Anxiety After 9/11	https://www.911memorial.org/learn/students-and-teachers/lesson-plans/american-anxiety-after-911
Elizabeth Schaefer on the Impact of 9/11 in the Classroom	https://teachinghistory.org/nhec-blog/24274
9/11 Anniversary Teaching Guide	https://www.morningsidecenter.org/teachable-moment/lessons/911-anniversary-teaching-guide#K2
9/11 Anniversary Teaching Guide	https://www.morningsidecenter.org/teachable-moment/lessons/911-anniversary-teaching-guide#K3
9/11 Anniversary Teaching Guide	https://www.morningsidecenter.org/teachable-moment/lessons/911-anniversary-teaching-guide#K4
9/11 Anniversary Teaching Guide	https://www.morningsidecenter.org/teachable-moment/lessons/911-anniversary-teaching-guide#K5
Encountering History: A 9/11 Lesson Plan	https://www.scholastic.com/teachers/lesson-plans/teaching-content/encountering-history-911-lesson-plan/
Remembering September 11 With an Oral History Project	https://www.scholastic.com/teachers/blog-posts/jeremy-rinkel/ten-years-later-remembering-september-11th-with-an-oral-history-project/
My Name is Osama: A September 11 Lesson	https://www.educationworld.com/a_lesson/02/lp277-05.shtml
Hang a Flag Mural	https://www.educationworld.com/a_lesson/02/lp277-01.shtml
Write Letters to Commemorate 9/11	https://www.educationworld.com/a_lesson/02/lp277-02.shtml
September 11: Proverbs of One World	https://www.educationworld.com/a_lesson/02/lp277-03.shtml
Use Literature to Teach Tolerance	https://www.educationworld.com/a_lesson/02/lp277-04.shtml

Afghanistan Today: Civil War and Human Rights	http://www.pbs.org/americaresponds/afghanistantoday.html
The American Flag	http://www.pbs.org/americaresponds/theamericanflag.html
Conflicting Views	http://www.pbs.org/americaresponds/conflictingviews.html
TEACHER BLOG: REMEMBERING 9/11 USING PHOTOGRAPHS	http://www.learnabout9-11.org/
What Are the Most Important Changes, in Your Life and in the World, in the Last Decade?	https://learning.blogs.nytimes.com/2011/09/09/what-are-the-most-changes-in-your-life-and-in-the-world-in-the-last-decade/
Debunking Stereotypes About Muslims and Islam	https://www.tolerance.org/classroom-resources/tolerance-lessons/debunking-stereotypes-about-muslims-and-islam

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