

Social Studies Journal

An Official Publication of the Pennsylvania Council for
the Social Studies

Volume XXXVII Spring 2017

Social Studies Journal

Editor: Jessica B. Schocker

Volume XXXVII

Spring 2017

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Guidelines for Manuscripts

The Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies seeks manuscripts for publication in the *Journal* that focus on and treat the following areas:

1. Creative ways of teaching social studies at the elementary, secondary, and higher education levels
2. Research articles
3. Explanations of new types of materials and/or equipment that directly relate to social studies teaching, and was developed or implemented by teachers
4. Explanations of teacher developed projects that help social studies students and teachers work with community groups
5. Reviews of educational media that have been used with students
6. Analysis of how other academic disciplines relate to the teaching of social studies

Preparation of Manuscripts

1. Type and double-space all materials
2. Manuscript length: between three and twelve pages
3. Follow guidelines of *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*
4. Do not include author name(s) or other identifying information in the text or references of the paper
5. Include a separate title page that contains the title of the article, your name, the institution where you work, and your email address
6. The manuscript must be original and not published previously
7. Author is responsible for gaining permission to use images in the manuscript
8. Manuscripts must be submitted by email in Word format to the editor, Dr. Jessica Schocker, at jbs213@psu.edu

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PCSS Membership and Publication Information

Membership in PCSS is currently free. Correspondence about membership should go to Executive Secretary, Ira Hiberman: hiberman@ptd.net.

The *Journal* is currently available for free, open access on the Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies website: www.pcsonline.org. Correspondence about editorial matters should be directed to Jessica Schocker: jbs213@psu.edu.

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A Note to Prospective Authors

Social Studies Journal is a biannual publication of the Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies. The *Journal* seeks to provide an exchange of ideas among social studies educators and scholars.

All manuscripts go through a blind review process. In order to encourage and assist writers, the reviewers make suggestions and notations for revisions that are shared with the author before papers are accepted for final publication. We encourage writers in both K-12 and higher education settings to share their knowledge and experiences.

From the Editor

I am excited to share the spring issue of *Social Studies Journal*, a publication of the Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies (PCSS), with our readers in Pennsylvania and beyond. This issue is my second since assuming editorship, and, again, I have thoroughly enjoyed working with our authors. The issue includes a variety of articles that will appeal to a broad spectrum of social studies educators.

Two timely pieces open this issue of *Social Studies Journal*. The first, an invited piece written by Wayne Journell, is entitled “Fake News, Alternative Facts, and Trump: Teaching Social Studies in a Post-Truth Era.” Those of us grappling with how best to teach politics and controversy in the present day will find this article both helpful and provocative. The second article, written by Sarah Brooks, offers a thoughtful approach to teaching against Islamophobia. Her ideas will help teachers to promote tolerance and combat negative stereotypes and misconceptions.

Other articles include an examination of international student teaching experiences in social studies (by Timothy Patterson), an exploration of strategies for engaging 21st century learners in authentic social studies (by Jason T. Hilton, Mary Karavis, and Christopher Miller), and an analysis of strategies for teaching World War I in the centennial (By Lisa K. Pennington and Amanda Williams). The issue concludes with a piece by Heather Leaman (a professor and PCSS member) and two of her undergraduate students, Maureen Sablich and Nicole Whitney, about the professional growth opportunities for pre-service teachers who present at the PCSS annual conference.

Regardless of grade level or subject specialty, I hope our readers will find something relevant to their research and/or practice in the spring 2017 issue of *Social Studies Journal*. Please keep an eye out for the call for manuscripts for the fall issue. I encourage both scholars and teachers to consider submitting work to the *Journal*, as we remain committed to both excellence and access for authors.

Sincerely,

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Associate Professor of Social Studies Education and Women’s Studies
The Pennsylvania State University, Berks College

Fake News, Alternative Facts, and Trump: Teaching Social Studies in a Post-Truth Era

Wayne Journell

The 2016 Presidential Election and the candidacy of Donald Trump introduced Americans to the concept of “fake news,” and this idea that any information contradicting one’s ideology is automatically illegitimate, or fake, appears to be a fixture of American politics for the foreseeable future. Before proceeding, it is important to define what Trump and others mean by fake news, which is how I am using the term in this article. Fake news has been around for decades in the form of satire; publications, such as *The Onion* or *The National Enquirer*, and television programs, such as *Saturday Night Live*, have proudly worn the moniker of fake news, often for entertainment purposes. These outlets typically take aspects of the political world and either exaggerate them or create fictional stories that poke fun at the political issues of the day. While these types of fake news have the potential to influence Americans’ political positions (e.g., Abel & Barthel, 2013; Brownell, 2016), they are not the focus of this discussion.

For Trump and his supporters, fake news consists of mainstream media outlets that are critical of the President or his policies. Of particular concern is Trump and his supporters’ willingness to disregard verifiable facts as fake simply because they contradict their agenda. I do not have the space to list every falsehood, blatant lie, or unsubstantiated allegation uttered or tweeted by Trump since the start of the 2016 presidential campaign, but one Pulitzer Prize-winning fact-checking organization, Politifact (2017), has kept a running tally of Trump’s most prominent statements since the start of his candidacy, and as of this writing, 69% have been labeled either “false,” “mostly false,” or “pants on fire”.

Perhaps the most illustrative example of the Trump administration’s relationship with the truth can be found in a controversy that occurred on the President’s second day in office.

Speaking at the Central Intelligence Agency the day after he was inaugurated, Trump claimed that his inaugural crowd consisted of over a million people and extended to the Washington Monument (Associated Press, 2017). Later that same day, Press Secretary Sean Spicer told reporters that Trump's crowd was the "largest audience to ever witness an inauguration—period—both in person and around the globe" (Robertson & Farley, 2017, para. 6). Yet, a bevy of verifiable evidence—aerial photographs, subway traffic, and testimony from crowd size experts—showed that Trump's inauguration crowd was smaller than President Obama's inaugurations and did not extend to the Washington Monument. Instead of acknowledging the truth, the administration doubled down on the falsehood, and on that Sunday's edition of *Meet the Press*, White House spokesperson and counselor to the President, Kellyanne Conway, argued that Spicer did not lie, but instead presented "alternative facts" to support the administration's position (NBC News, 2017).

These alternative facts often appear to originate from dubious and unsubstantiated sources. Whether it was Trump's attempt during the campaign to legitimize a story from the *National Enquirer* stating that Republican rival Ted Cruz's father played a part in the assassination of President Kennedy (McCaskill, 2016), or more recently, Trump's accusations that President Obama had wiretapped Trump Tower which were based on unsubstantiated claims by a Fox News pundit and the right-wing publication *Breitbart* (BBC News, 2017), Trump and his surrogates appear willing to make claims without vetting them for accuracy. In other instances, such as Kellyanne Conway's repeated invoking of a fictitious "Bowling Green Massacre" to justify the administration's attempted travel ban on several Middle Eastern nations, the claims are even farther removed from reality (Blake, 2017).

To be fair, Donald Trump did not invent lying, nor is he the first president to do so (Alterman, 2004). However, the regularity and voracity with which Trump and members of his administration spread and defend falsehoods, coupled with his supporters' willingness to accept such unsubstantiated claims as fact, have led many to assert that we are in the midst of a "post-truth" presidency that is indicative of the current state of American society (e.g., Glasser, 2016; Todd, Murray, & Dann, 2017). The Oxford Dictionaries, in fact, named "post-truth" the 2016 Word of the Year, which they defined as "relating to or denoting circumstances in which objective facts are less influential in shaping public opinion than appeals to emotion and personal belief" (Oxford University Press, 2017, para. 1).

For social studies educators, who are tasked with ensuring that students are trained to "think critically" and "make reasoned decisions" (National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS], 2016, p. 181), living in a post-truth society poses significant challenges. Students are coming to class having interacted with the political issues of the day at their dinner tables, with friends, and on social media, all of which can serve as ideological echo chambers that reinforce and legitimize alternative facts. The remainder of this article will briefly discuss ways in which teachers can help students learn to debunk alternative facts and identify actual fake news.

Combating Fake News and Alternative Facts

Unfortunately, no silver bullet exists that will turn students into effective evaluators of political information. Both political thinking and media literacy are skills that need to be taught and practiced over time (Journell, Beeson, & Ayers, 2015; Masyada & Washington, 2016). I do not have the space here to delve deeply into ways in which teachers can develop these skills with their students, but I will briefly discuss a few basic steps that teachers can take to begin this effort.

Talk About Politics

This first recommendation might seem like common sense; it is impossible to help students become discerning consumers of political information if politics is not discussed in class. However, research has shown that the inherent risks involved with broaching political issues in class cause some social studies teachers to avoid the topic completely (Hess, 2004). Even when teachers decide to discuss politics in their classes, the polarized political climate that exists in most parts of the United States often forces them to do so reluctantly or with trepidation (McAvoy & Hess, 2013).

Combating alternative facts and fake news has to be a purposeful mission for social studies educators, and the only way these goals can be achieved is if politics becomes a prominent and regular feature of one's instruction. The focus of this instruction, however, must be substantive. I happened to drop in on a student teacher the day after President Trump delivered his first address to a joint session of Congress. The student teacher did not shy away from discussing the speech; he showed a clip from *CNN Student News* and then engaged his students in a brief discussion about their reactions. Yet, this discussion focused solely on style, specifically how Trump had read off of a teleprompter and looked “presidential” compared to the off-the-cuff remarks that had become a staple of Trump's rallies on the campaign trail and in the first weeks of his presidency.

Discussing the style of the speech was not problematic unto itself. How a speech is delivered sends messages and shapes opinions, and Trump did deliver the speech in the style of a traditional politician, which was newsworthy. Yet, never steering the conversation to an analysis of what Trump said in the speech—his policy proposals and whether they were feasible—does little to combat the effects of post-truth politics. When political discourse is fueled by middle-of-

the-night tweets, outlandish claims, and other aspects of Trump's (or any other politician's) style, it distracts from what is truly important and potentially allows alternative facts to be at the forefront of policy decisions. In general, substance should take precedence over style.

Finally, political discussions should extend beyond civics and government courses. I have written elsewhere about the natural ties to contemporary politics in history, economics, and geography curricula (Journell, 2014, in press), and combating the effects of post-truth politics requires an interdisciplinary effort. The reason is simple; being willing to step back from one's emotions and personal beliefs and evaluate claims based on available evidence is an unnatural act that only improves with practice. The more opportunities students have to practice these skills across the social studies curriculum, the better at it they will get.

Putting Alternative Facts to the Test

In many cases, alternative facts offered by politicians and other sources are easily refuted using readily available evidence. When students attempt to support their positions using dubious claims that they may have seen online, teachers should encourage them to support such claims with evidence. Even better, teachers can make claim validation an active process in their classrooms by modeling the skills of searching for and evaluating evidence that supports or refutes claims made by politicians or other partisan sources that students might encounter outside of school.

There are professional fact-checking organizations, such as Politifact or Snopes, that teachers can use to evaluate more prominent claims. These organizations are educative in that they typically "show their work" and explain how they came to validate or debunk a particular claim, and they provide a quick option for teachers. However, they may not always evaluate every claim raised by politicians or brought into class by students, and some students may fall

into the growing number of people who believe that fact-checking organizations are biased, both in what they choose to evaluate and how they determine what constitutes a valid claim (e.g., Lew, 2016).

A potentially better approach, albeit more labor intensive and time consuming, is to turn fact-checking into a form of active inquiry. Not only would this type of approach align with the tenets of high-quality social studies education (NCSS, 2013), but it would also help transform students from being consumers of news to evaluators of news sources. A teacher that I studied during the 2012 Presidential Election, Mr. Monroe, offers an illustration of what this type of approach might look like in practice (Journell et al., 2015). During the campaign, one of the promises made by Republican candidate Mitt Romney was to curb government spending, and during one of the debates, he identified the Public Broadcasting Service (PBS) as an example of a government program that he would cut to help reduce the federal deficit. The comment sparked immediate controversy; Romney's critics stated that the percentage of the federal budget allocated to PBS was not enough to make any significant difference to the federal deficit, and his supporters argued that PBS was just one example of a taxpayer-funded social program that the nation can no longer afford.

After having students read arguments from both sides, Mr. Monroe had them get on their laptops and conduct research on the federal budget and federal deficit. It did not take students long to find that the money allocated to PBS and related services constituted less than one percent of the total federal budget. They were then able to agree that the argument of cutting PBS to help significantly reduce the federal deficit was not substantiated by facts; however, some students also argued that just because PBS did not significantly factor into the federal deficit, government funding of the program was not justified. The conversation then shifted to the value

of programs like PBS, which represents a valid, open policy question. In the end, students differed in their opinions on whether PBS should be federally funded, but their opinions were based on the policy question of whether those funds would be better spent elsewhere as opposed to the fabricated narrative that cutting PBS would help reduce the federal deficit.

Effective social studies instruction requires that students discuss the right questions using reliable evidence in order to make rational decisions. Encouraging students to not take information uttered by politicians and echoed on social media at face value is an essential part of this process. In this example, Mr. Monroe provided his students with pre-vetted materials and oversaw their inquiry into the federal budget. Students, however, will not always be privy to this type of scaffolding; therefore, it is important that they learn ways to differentiate between reliable news outlets and actual fake news.

Learning to Identify Real Fake News

As I write this article, the U.S. Congress is conducting investigations into what extent Russia interfered in the 2016 Presidential Election. It is commonly believed by U.S. intelligence agencies that Russia sought to influence the outcome of the election in favor of Trump, but not by hacking voting machines or participating in widespread voter fraud. Instead, it appears that a primary tactic of the Russians was to infiltrate social media with false stories about Hillary Clinton.

There is no way to know exactly how effective these fabricated stories were in determining the outcome of the election; it is likely that Trump won for a variety of reasons. However, the Russian attempts at hijacking the election through fake news stories highlights a more salient issue—that Americans, as a whole, are not adept at discerning between legitimate and fraudulent news sources. Sam Wineburg and his colleagues at Stanford have studied over

7,000 students, ranging in age from middle school to university undergraduates, and have found that, as a whole, they lack basic media literacy skills. Even undergraduates at the most elite universities have difficulty discerning accurate information from partisan propaganda (Wineburg & McGrew, 2016). In another recent study, Margaret Crocco, Anne-Lise Halvorsen, Rebecca Jacobsen, and Avner Segall (2017) found that high school students seemed to value personal experience and anecdotal evidence as much, if not more, than statistical or empirical data when deliberating historical and contemporary political issues.

Another reason why so many Americans buy into fraudulent or extremely-biased news sources is because of what political psychologists have termed *motivated reasoning* (Clark & Avery, 2016). This motivated reasoning can take multiple forms. *Directional motivation*, for example, indicates a desire to seek and justify conclusions that align with preconceived versions of truth. Individuals who are guided by directional motivation are likely view sources that align with their worldviews positively and accept them uncritically, while automatically framing sources that run contrary to their worldview more critically without regard to the legitimacy of evidence presented. In contrast, individuals who prescribe to *accuracy motivation* seek to contextualize sources and weigh evidence accordingly in an attempt to discern accurate information (Kahne & Bowyer, 2017).

In a recent study of over 2,000 youth between the ages of 15 and 27, Joseph Kahne and Benjamin Bowyer (2017) found that although youth use both directional and accuracy motivation when evaluating political information, alignment with one's worldview was more influential than determining whether information was factually accurate. Yet, there is cause for optimism. Kahne and Bowyer also found that those who reported having been trained in media

literacy strategies as part of their formal education were significantly more likely to be influenced by accuracy motivation.

In other words, it appears as though media literacy education can help students identify real fake news. The question becomes, then, what should this media literacy education look like? As Crocco et al. (2017) noted, it should go beyond simply identifying sources as “good” or “bad.” News sources tend to fall on an ideological continuum, which will likely influence how directionally motivated people view their legitimacy. Consider, for example, Figures 1 and 2, which are two attempts at categorizing media outlets based on ideology and accuracy that were shared widely on social media following the 2016 election.

Figure 1. Image created by Vanessa Otero (Reproduced with permission)

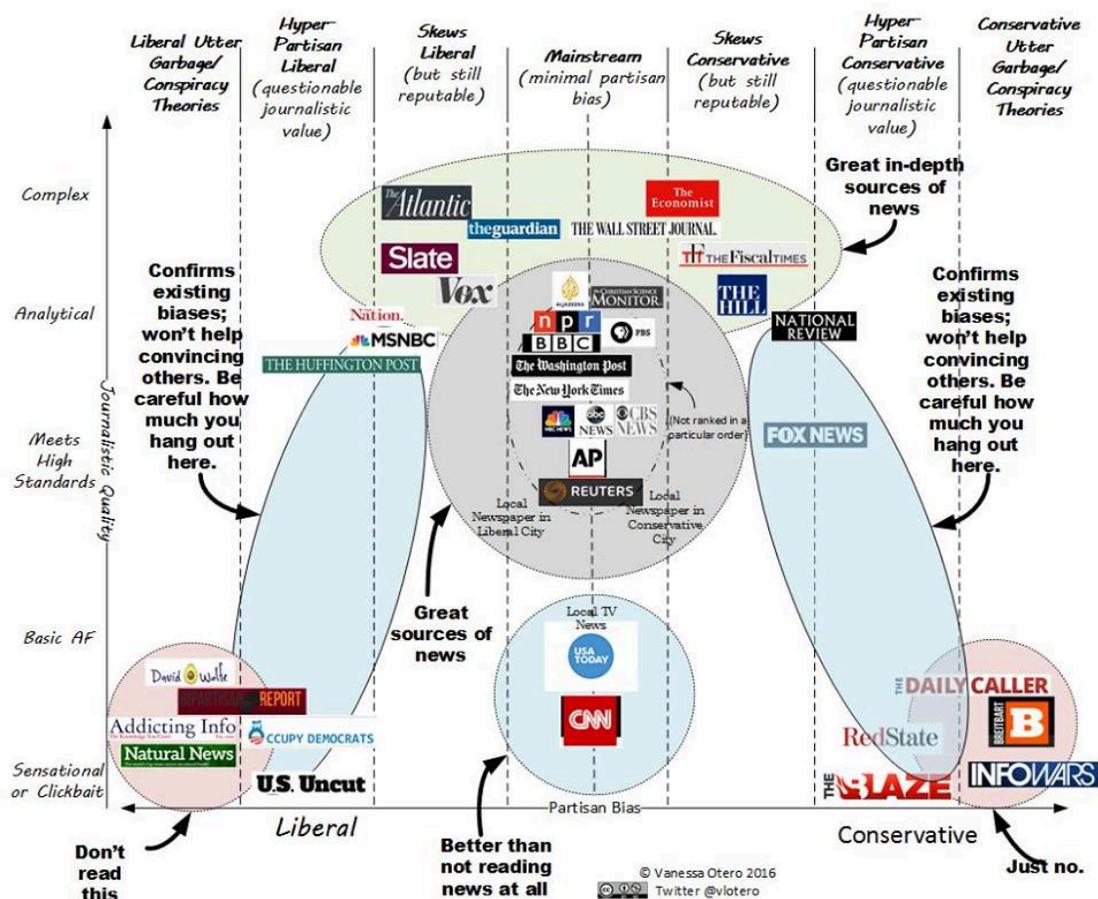
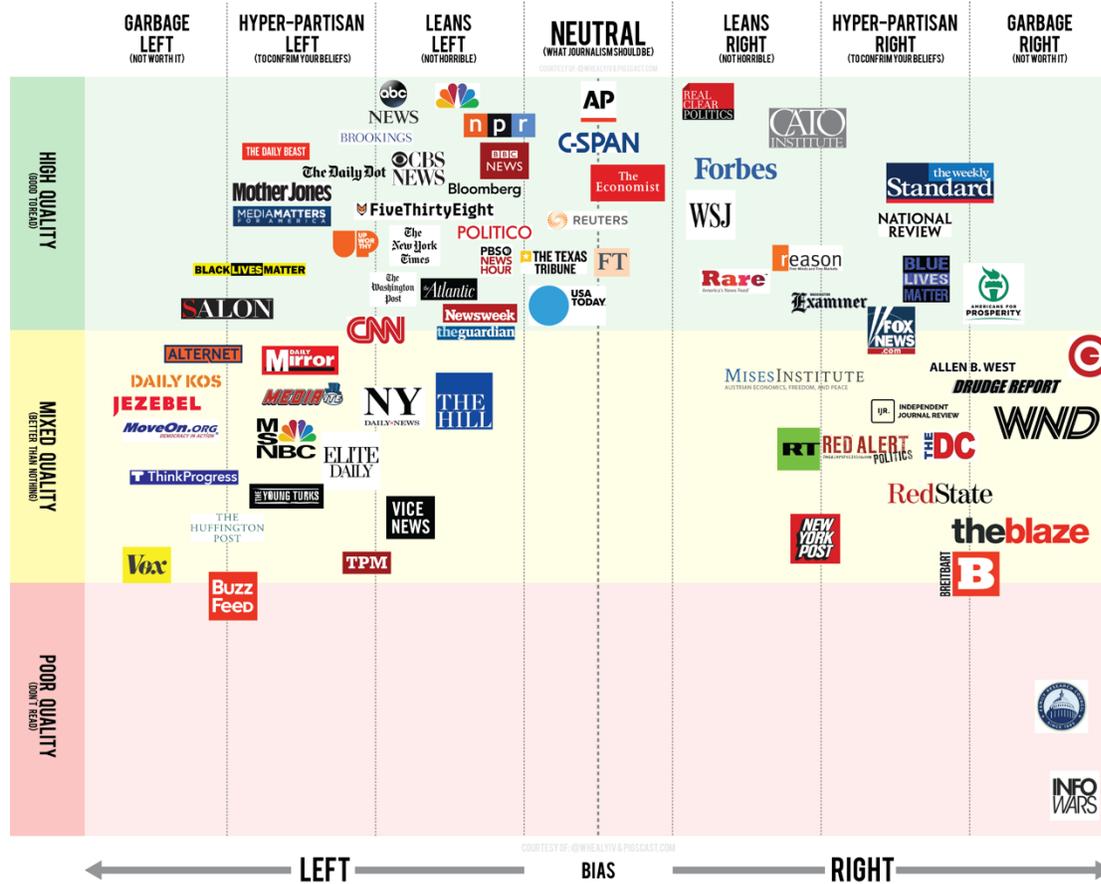


Figure 2. Image created by Will Healy (Reproduced with permission)



These figures are not meant to be definitive assessments on the quality or ideology of media outlets, but they provide a starting point for discussion. It is also worth noting that Figure 1 was created by someone who identifies as liberal, and Figure 2 was created by a self-described libertarian. Directional motivation can be seen in how each categorized “mainstream” news outlets such as National Public Radio and CNN. Figure 1 categorizes them as “neutral,” whereas Figure 2 identifies them as left-leaning.

For the purposes of determining real fake news, the middle of the graph should not be the focal point. For mainstream outlets that do not profess an ideological slant, an ideological determination may often be found in the eye of the beholder. Where teachers should focus is on

the outer edges of each graph. Despite the two authors' ideological differences, there is considerable alignment in what they categorize as "garbage" liberal and conservative outlets and what constitutes high-quality versus poor-quality news sources.

Of course, simply listing outlets on a chart is not sufficient for developing students' media literacy. It is likely impossible to include every outlet that students may run across, and even if one could, it is inevitable that new outlets will continue to be created. The goal for social studies educators, then, is to help students learn to identify the characteristics that make certain outlets hyper-partisan or poor-quality resources and encourage avoidance of such outlets whenever possible.

Conclusion

As Americans continue to ideologically self-segregate themselves in terms of the news they consume and with whom they associate in their daily lives and on social media, the post-truth mindset will only grow stronger, and the ramifications will extend well beyond the Trump presidency. Fake news, alternative facts, and other attempts to manipulate or delegitimize factual information are detrimental to the health of a democratic society that relies upon civic participation and rational decision-making. Research suggests that greater attention to media literacy in K-12 education has the potential to counter these trends, and social studies educators are well-positioned to contribute to this effort. Now, more than ever, including opportunities to discuss politics and evaluate political information throughout the social studies curriculum is necessary to prepare students for civic life.

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Teaching Against Islamophobia in the Social Studies Classroom

Sarah Brooks

Anti-Muslim and anti-Islam sentiments are present and on the rise in the United States. The Southern Poverty Law Center recently reported that the number of anti-Muslim hate groups nearly tripled from 34 in 2015 to 101 in 2016 (Intelligence Report, 2017). Additionally, the FBI Hate Crime Statistics show that hate crimes against Muslims increased by 67% in 2015. In 2014, Americans reported feeling more negatively toward Muslims than any of the seven other major religious groups they were asked about (Pew Research Center). Muslims (48%) are more likely than Americans of any other major religious group to say they, personally, have experienced racial or religious discrimination in the past year (Gallup, 2011). In the face of these statistics, social studies educators have been challenged to give increased attention to teaching about world religions in their courses (James, 2015; Kunzman, 2011, 2012; Lester & Roberts, 2011; Moore, 2006, 2012; NCSS, 2014; Passe & Willox, 2009). In a 2014 position statement on the importance of teaching about religion within social studies, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) asserted that effective teaching about religion “dispels stereotypes, promotes cross-cultural understanding, and encourages respect for the rights of others to religious liberty” (p. 202).

Unfortunately, research suggests that what attention Islam does receive in social studies classrooms might promote misconceptions and overgeneralizations. In their review of world history textbooks, Douglass & Dunn (2003) inferred “that Islam is generally not interpreted as its adherents understand it but as the editors believe will be acceptable to textbook adoption committees” (p. 59). In more recent history, for instance, Islam is often represented “as a traditional holdover, as anti-western, and often as merely militant and extremist” (p. 70). Other

studies reveal that Muslim students frequently find their own experiences of being Muslim or practicing Islam minimized and stereotyped in the classroom context (Merchant, 2016; Saleem & Thomas, 2011).

Scholars have offered recommendations for strengthening teaching about Islam within social studies curriculum (Ebih, 2015; Hossain, 2013; Moore 2006, 2009, 2012, 2015; Phelps, 2010; Ramarajan & Runell, 2007), yet little is known about how these best practices are enacted in actual classrooms. For this reason, I set out to examine the strategies and approaches used by one world history teacher, Mr. Vaziri, to teach about Islam and Muslims. I wanted to consider how well these strategies and approaches might counter Islamophobia. I chose to focus on Mr. Vaziri—a thirteen-year veteran teacher—because of his commitment to, interest in, and extensive experience with teaching world religions in general and Islam in particular. As a Pakistani-Indian American Muslim male, teaching students who typically come to his classroom having not known a Muslim personally, Mr. Vaziri has unique opportunities and faces distinct challenges in teaching about Islam. To gain a window into this teacher’s practice, I observed thirteen of his lessons on world religions in an honors level, world history course over one semester. I was also able to interview him about his teaching on multiple occasions.

In what follows, I unpack the term—Islamophobia. I then describe several approaches taken by Mr. Vaziri in teaching about Islam and Muslims and provide some ideas regarding the potential impact of these practices on students’ thinking.

What is Islamophobia?

The term Islamophobia is defined in the New Oxford American Dictionary as “a hatred or fear of Islam or Muslims, esp. when feared as a political force” (2010). A 2010 report published jointly by the University of California, Berkley Center for Race and Gender and the

Council on American-Islamic Relations (CAIR) identified several beliefs that are central to Islamophobia. One is the view that Islam is “monolithic, static, and authoritarian” (p.12). This assumption conflicts with an understanding that Muslims are diverse and dynamic and disagree substantially among themselves about the manner in which Islam should be lived out.

Another tenet of Islamophobia is that Islam is totally separate from and even in conflict with the so-called West. Such an idea ignores the reality that Muslims share with the followers of other religious traditions, ethical principals, a human experience and a common space.

Islamophobia also incorporates the belief that Islam is inferior, backward and primitive. This view does not recognize that Islam presents ideas and practices, which while different are potentially as relevant and valuable as those offered by other traditions. Lastly, Islamophobia draws on the idea that Islam is inherently violent and an aggressive enemy to be feared, opposed and defeated. Such a perspective does not acknowledge that Muslims interpret and enact Islamic principals either for peace or for violence, just as the followers of any religion do and have done (CAIR, 2010).

Countering Islamophobia in a Social Studies Classroom

To teach about Islam, Mr. Vaziri created a range of instructional experiences including direct instruction with question and answer interchanges, viewing and discussing news reports and documentary films, reading and discussing articles, student-led discussions about current events / issues, and independent internet-based research. A close look at these activities revealed four distinctive features, each of which hold potential for countering Islamophobia.

Addressing Misconceptions

Mr. Vaziri opened his unit on Islam with a word association activity. He asked students to jot down words and phrases that come to mind when they hear the terms “Muslim” and

“Islam.” As students began to contribute their ideas, he reassured them that they should feel comfortable sharing whatever honestly came to mind, claiming “Anything is safe.” When one student admitted that the word “terrorists” was one of the words she thought of, Mr. Vaziri responded, “Ok that’s the word I was looking for.... It’s kind of like that elephant in the room.”

He went on to say,

The fact that a few of you mentioned terrorism, you shouldn’t feel bad about that. It is an issue that is going to come up. My focus is going to be on how the perception of Muslims is that they are extremist, fundamentalist. There are issues that exist there, but there is a lot of good there. That is what we want to accentuate.

In the same lesson, Mr. Vaziri asked his students to read an article entitled “What are some typical misperceptions and stereotypes Westerners hold about Islam and the Middle East, and vice versa?” The article presents several misconceptions that many Westerners hold about Islam (e.g. “Arab” and “Muslim” refer to the same people. Islam is violent.) and misinformed notions that some outside of the U.S. have of Americans (e.g. All Americans are rich. Americans have no family values.). After reading, his students discussed the article at length, sometimes admitting to holding one of the inaccurate understandings about Muslims or Islam. Mr. Vaziri invited students to consider where these misconceptions come from. He asked, “Why do misperceptions become our reality? Even when we have facts to suggest that a perception is not true, why do we hold onto it?” One student responded,

The media holds a lot of sway over the common person. Rather than to just look up the facts, it’s easier to just believe what you see on the news. If you believe something for a certain amount of time, even when you get accurate facts, it is a lot harder to change your mind.

At the conclusion of this conversation, Mr. Vaziri challenged students to consider what they could do to resist the misconceptions they had discussed.

Moore (2006) advised that a study of Islam should combat “information from the popular media, which often misrepresents Islamic beliefs and practices, and perpetuates myths, distortions, and misconceptions” (p. 143). Taking this directive a step further, Elbih (2015) argued that “teachers must help their students unlearn what the media teaches about Islam and Muslims” (p.112). Mr. Vaziri worked to create a safe environment for students to identify and discuss misconceptions and stereotypes, thus laying the groundwork for more complex and nuanced understandings of Muslims and Islam. He wisely pushed students to consider the sources of their misconceptions and even how they might influence the ways in which Muslims are represented in larger society. At times he presented media portrayals of Muslims for students to analyze. For instance, he showed students two images—one of a group of Muslim Palestinians celebrating the 9/11 terrorist attacks and another of a peaceful gathering of Muslims in Bangladesh to show solidarity with Americans following 9/11. He asked students to guess which one was repeatedly shown on American news sources in the days following the terrorist attacks and to consider why. Elbih (2015) also encouraged teachers to provide students with Muslim portrayals within feature films and televisions shows in an effort to uncover and critique stereotypes.

Humanizing Islam

Early on in his unit on Islam, Mr. Vaziri made the following invitation:

As you all know by this point, I am a Muslim. So ask me questions....I encourage you to ask questions because I am one of the few Muslims you might come in contact with. I hope that’s not true, but if it is, this is your chance to ask me questions that you have always wondered about. Nothing is really too crazy to ask.

This statement demonstrates that Mr. Vaziri’s students had the opportunity to learn about Islam by hearing from a Muslim directly about his beliefs and practices. He warned students that he is “no poster boy for Islam,” and even identified required religious rituals that he does not

consistently practice (e.g. prayer five times a day). Still he encouraged students to expand their understanding of Islam by accessing the perspective of an insider. Students responded with numerous questions about his personal experiences being raised as a Muslim, practicing Islam as an adult in American society, and raising his children as Muslims. “Do you pray five times a day?” “Do your kids know Arabic?” “Can you still cook for your kids when Ramadan is going on?” “Are you planning on going there [Mecca] soon?”

Mr. Vaziri also taught about the devotional aspects of Islam from a personal perspective. When teaching about Muslim prayer practices, he displayed several religious objects from his home (e.g. his wife’s pink prayer rug, a copy of the Quran, prayer beads). He explained these beliefs and practices in terms of his own actions and lived experience, allowing students to get to know an actual Muslim. He believes that this personal approach is particularly beneficial for those students who view the unknown as a threat. He claimed, “I can tell this in some cases just by the way that they [students] interact with me. They are cold in the beginning, but they ease into it. They start to see maybe there is a human side to this, especially with me since I am a Muslim.”

Teaching about Islam from personal experience holds the potential to breakdown the view of Muslims as completely dissimilar. It offers students a chance to learn about Islam as practiced by a respected member of their own community. Moore (2009) suggested that teachers who are not Muslim seek out primary resources (e.g. guest speakers, recordings and writings by Muslims) so as to allow Muslims themselves to present the essentials of their religion. This might include invitations to Muslim students, teachers, parents, leaders, or community members to speak to classes (Elbih, 2015). Even as a Muslim, Mr. Vaziri brought the voices of other

Muslims into his classroom. For instance, he played interviews with Hamza and Husain Abdullah, two brothers who paused their NFL careers in order to participate in the *Hajj*.

Exploring Diversity Within Islam

Once when asked what Muslims believe will be the fate of the followers of other religions, Mr. Vaziri responded, “You could ask ten different Muslims and get ten different answers.” In this way he emphasized to students the diversity of current perspectives, beliefs and practices among Muslims. One way in which he made this point was by revealing the various ways that different members of his own extended family practice their religion as Muslims. He told students that when he drives his mother places, she will ask that he pull over and stop the car at a certain time so that she can pray. He, on the other hand, does not pray five times a day even as he does observe other religious practices (e.g. *sawm* during Ramadan, abstaining from alcohol).

In some cases, Mr. Vaziri explored the role that particular contexts played in contributing to certain views or practices. When discussing the murder of an Afghan woman accused of burning a copy of the Quran, he explained how the norms of a patriarchal society with minimal educational opportunities helped create a situation for such an action to be taken in the name of Islam. He then offered his own Muslim perspective on Quran burning. He shared that he personally did not care when in 2010 he learned that a Florida pastor was planning to burn copies of the Quran, because he felt it had no implications for his own faith. This sharing exposed his students to contrasting perspectives within Islam and helped them see the influence of contextual factors.

Barton (2015) encouraged social studies teachers to “focus not only on what members of each religion share with other followers—a short list—but more importantly on what differences

characterize that religion” (p. 67). While curricular constraints rarely allow teachers to explore the variances of a religion in depth, Mr. Vaziri demonstrated feasible ways one might emphasize to students that diversity is integral to religion. This effort is an important one if the instructional goal is to help students learn not to generalize any one Muslim portrayal they encounter to all followers of Islam.

Highlighting Similarities Between Islam and Other Religions

Mr. Vaziri explained that one of his curricular goals was to help students see the commonalities among major world religions. When discussing teaching about the three monotheistic religions, he said,

My overarching objective is to point to the similarities.... Since the vast majority of them [my students] are Christian, I want them to see, ‘Ok here is how I am similar to a Jewish person. Here is how I am similar to a Muslim.’ That’s the approach that I like to take. We know the differences. We are not going to emphasize that. We are going to see how we can link these three concepts under one umbrella, because they are under one umbrella. They are all Abrahamic religions.

In keeping with this objective, Mr. Vaziri required his students to identify and explain at least ten similarities between Islam and either Christianity or Judaism as part of their summative assessment on the three monotheistic religions. The lessons on Islam leading up to this assessment were filled with comparisons to other religions. He compared basic tenets (e.g. the existence of one all-powerful God), characters and stories within their holy books (e.g. Adam and Eve), common practices (e.g. prayer), and themes (e.g. clear distinctions between right and wrong, punishment and reward).

Merchant (2015) suggested that comparisons between Islam and other religions have potential to decrease the “otherness” of Muslims, and Mr. Vaziri’s statements suggest that this is part of his aim. However, Merchant also argued that these comparisons can support the notion of Islam as monolithic. In other words, when making comparisons, a teacher might not represent

the diversity within Islam as it is lived out by different individuals and in different times and places. Prothero (2011) warned that comparisons among religions can distort the unique problems and solutions proposed by different religions. Ethnocentrism can easily creep into these comparisons and limit the way in which a follower of another religion might understand Islam; so, comparisons between Islam and other religions must be made with care.

Mr. Vaziri also highlighted similarities among more complex aspects of religions, and these comparisons often portrayed Muslim beliefs as diverse and evolving. For instance, he discussed with students that the Torah, Bible, and Quran all have passages (e.g. regarding the treatment of women) that are difficult to interpret and apply in the present. In a similar vein, he stressed and illustrated how followers of all of the major monotheistic religions interpret scripture differently. Finally, he emphasized that fundamentalism and a subset of extremists is not unique to Islam, but rather something that most religions share (e.g. KKK, Westboro Baptist Church, militant Buddhist Nationalism, ISIS).

Conclusion

NCSS has challenged social studies teachers to enact curriculum about religion that “combats intolerance and prepares students to engage people of different religions and beliefs with civility and respect” (p. 203). Social studies educators, who desire to step up to this challenge in their teaching about Islam, have their work cut out for them. The broader societal context in which we teach is filled with misconceptions and misinformation about Muslims and Islam. For those teachers who want to promote a more nuanced understanding about the world’s second largest religion, Mr. Vaziri’s practice offers some powerful and yet feasible strategies and approaches for pursuing this aim. His teaching demonstrates the value in tackling misconceptions of Islam directly, so that students can unlearn misinformation they have

absorbed in other contexts. From Mr. Vaziri we learn the value of allowing Islam, and any religion for that matter, be presented by its adherents. Ideally, a range of voices are incorporated into the curriculum, because Islam—like all religions—is lived out in a myriad of ways by its followers. Lastly, Mr. Vaziri shows that purposeful comparisons between Islam and other religions can help students unlearn some of the stereotypes that bolster Islamophobia.

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Contact Zone Learning and International Teacher Professional Development

Timothy Patterson

Introduction

International teacher professional development programs have been limited by their propensity to bring American teachers to environments where participants are likely to encounter familiar Western reference points, or to develop programming in non-Western nations that create an American cocoon, preventing uncomfortable experiences (Feinberg, 2002). American hegemony and globalization have also blunted the impact of international teacher professional development for American teachers. Cultural differences clearly still exist, but due to the fast travel of information and economic and social homogenization, differences appear less visible to participants who are unprepared to negotiate them while learning abroad. Despite the limits to international teacher professional development imposed by continued globalization and increasingly advanced electronic communications, the general structure of these programs have changed very little over the last 30 years (Engle & Engle, 2002). In addition, market factors play a role in restricting the abilities of many international teacher professional development programs to impact significant cross-cultural understanding. Organizations that send American teachers abroad are under pressure to gain interest from as many potential participants as possible. As a result, they often craft programs that are touted as both comfortable and fun. These programs, however, are not expected to fundamentally challenge participants' worldviews.

This article considers the learning that took place during one international teacher professional development experience. Building on a previous article that investigated social studies teachers' learning through international professional development (Patterson, 2015b), I

focus here on the study tour itself and four participants on that tour as they traveled to sites in China. This article critiques the format of international teacher professional development for social studies teachers, while also outlining the potential gains of what is being described here as contact zone learning. Put briefly, this qualitative inquiry provides the literature on professional development of social studies educators with a critical investigation of the processes by which teachers learn (or do not learn) through one international study tour.

The research in this article is limited in ways typical of qualitative inquiries (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Chiefly, the findings in my research are not generalizable beyond this specific sample. I am unaware of any data that indicates how often and to where American teachers travel abroad, so I cannot determine if the participants in this study are representative of American teachers as a whole. However, I did select participants for interviews who represented a variety of previous international experiences, from a well-seasoned traveler to six continents to a novice traveler who has only ventured to resorts in the Caribbean. There were no participants on this study tour who lacked any international experience. That there were no first-time travelers on this study tour highlights another limitation of the research in this article: measuring the outcomes of an international experience on teachers is complicated by virtue of who chooses to have such experiences. That is to say, if a teacher is predisposed to take time away from her or his family and friends and spend the money to venture to a foreign destination, are they not perhaps already motivated to teach about global issues (Patterson, 2015a)? Still, the findings of this article will be useful for teachers engaging in international professional development and administrators who develop and implement such experiences.

The Study

Researchers of international professional development for social studies teachers have tended to focus on the productive outcomes from these experiences. Researchers have argued that such experiences bring cross cultural awareness and skills in working with diverse student populations (Germain, 1998; Kambutu & Nganga, 2008; Merryfield, 2000; Myers, 2001; Pence & Macgillivray, 2008; Quezada, 2004; Schlein, 2009; Willard-Holt, 2001; Wilson, 1982), instills a motivation to teach about international and non-Western topics (Kirkwood, 2002; Merryfield, 2001; Sahin, 2008; Willard-Holt, 2001; Wilson, 1998), and develops innovative classroom practices marked by risk-taking (Garii, 2009; Ileleji, 2009; Quezada, 2004; Wilson, 1993). Other researchers have begun to add nuance to this research. Malewski and Phillion (2009) observed that these programs tend to construct their participants as a singular homogenous entity, ignoring the ways in which gender, class, and ethnic identities are likely to condition the experiences participants will have. There also appears to be an assumption that such experiences are inherently productive (Patterson, 2015a; Patterson 2015b). However, international border crossings are dynamic and complicated interactions, entangled by the web of globalization and informed by participants' individual identities and histories (Jewett, 2010; Talburt, 2009).

This article builds off of the work that the aforementioned researchers have done to complicate the literature on international teacher education. In collecting data for this article I used a variety of interactive methods associated with qualitative studies (Chase, 2011). I employed ethnographic observations (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993) throughout the international teacher professional development program (hence forth referred to as "study tour"). I also conducted in-depth semi-structured interviews (Seidman, 2006) with each participant before and immediately after the study tour. Finally, to aid in reconstructing the contexts in which participants create their stories, I collected artifacts throughout the study tour. I inductively

analyzed the observations and artifacts. From this initial analysis the theme of contact zone learning first emerged. I then coded the interviews paying close attention to themes of learning and growth.

This study centers around one study abroad tour, which traveled for three weeks to China. Four social studies teachers on this tour are the primary participants in this article. Michael is an eight-year veteran of a suburban middle school who has traveled to every continent (except Antarctica) prior to participating in this study tour. Like Michael, Rebecca has also spent her five-year teaching career in a suburban middle school. Her primary international experiences have occurred in Western Europe, with a brief stint in Turkey. Caroline has taught in the same school as Rebecca for the last 13 years, and has spent considerable time in Italy and France. Finally, Anthony has taught for three years in a suburban high school, only leaving the U.S. to travel to resorts in the Caribbean. The study tour visited primarily historical and cultural sites along the historic Silk Road. The tour itself could be divided roughly in half, between cities in eastern China, such as Beijing, Xi'an, and Shanghai and cities in western China, such as Dunhuang, Hotan, and Kashgar. The cities in eastern China, typical destinations for American international teacher professional development study tours, tended to confirm the participants' ideas about what they would expect to see in China. However, once the group traveled west, particularly in the Xinjiang Autonomous Region, their notions of what China was "supposed to look like" were challenged by their experiences in what I am describing as a contact zone.

This article utilizes a contact perspective to conceptualize the interactions embedded within international teacher professional development study tours. A contact perspective allows for an understanding of the culture of the study tour itself, provides a language for describing participants' interactions while abroad, and outlines the learning that may be possible from such

experiences. A contact perspective makes plain the often ignored relationship between traveler and place traveled to (Talbur, 2009). Pratt (2008) argues this notion:

A ‘contact’ perspective emphasizes how subjects get constituted in and by their relations to each other. It treats the relations among colonizers and colonized, or travelers and ‘travelees,’ not in terms of separateness, but in terms of co-presence, interaction, interlocking understandings and practices, and often within radically asymmetrical relations of power. (p. 8)

That is, a contact perspective challenges the assumption of unconnected observation on the part of travelers and allows for an inquiry into the knowledge travelers create as a result of this interaction. For visitors to contact zones, the potential exists to peel back the simplistic nationalist facade often embedded in social studies curricula and textbooks because contact zones are “the space of imperial encounters, the space in which peoples geographically and historically separated come into contact with each other and establish ongoing relations, usually involving conditions of coercion, radical inequality, and intractable conflict” (Pratt, 2008, p. 8). Thus, I contend that the potential for powerful international teacher professional development lies within every nation’s contact zones, where travelers are able to explore the heterogeneity of a foreign nation, instead of the cultural sites that reinforce simplistic understandings of other nations.

Findings

I begin by exploring elements of the study tour that appeared to shape the pedagogical experiences of the participants. The most prominent of these elements, based on my observations and interviews, were the ways in which both the study tour presented historical and cultural sites and the ways participants reflected on their interactions at those sites. I also analyze the learning format of the study tour itself. This format, defined here as “the bubble,” a term coined by the participants but also present in the literature on international teacher professional development

(Citron, 2002; Engle & Engle, 2002; Patterson, 2015a), appeared to be a significant factor in determining the degree to which their learning abroad impacted the participants' global perspective. Finally, I offer insights into a potential framework for maximizing the impact of international teacher professional development through contact zone learning.

Seeing Historical and Cultural Sites

The primary focus of this study tour was visiting Chinese historical and cultural sites such as the Forbidden City in Beijing, the Terra Cotta Warriors in Xi'an, and the Id Kah Mosque in Kashgar. These sites were "preferred landscapes, historic sites, buildings or monuments," visited with the goal of "an encounter with nature or feeling part of the history of a place" (Hall & Zeppel, 1990, p. 87). While myth and fantasy play some role in any tourist destination, this is perhaps even more prominent in the historical sites the participants visited since these sites were farther removed from the ordinary locale, but would inevitably play a significant role in participants' the reconstruction of China following the tour (Rojek, 1997, p. 53).

As such, the historical sites the study tour visited such as the Great Wall or the Temple of Heaven appeared to have had a normative effect on the unconscious Orientalist understandings of China held by the participants. An Orientalist frame conceptualizes peoples of "the East" as unchanging, locked in time, and always stable (Said, 1978). While at historical sites the Chinese guides on this study tour often connected China's ancient history to its current position in the world. This appeared to reinforce the notion that China's significance to American students is in its past. For example, following the tour Rebecca related her personal frustrations not learning Chinese history as a high school student:

How do you not know like this huge powerhouse, economic powerhouse that China has been throughout history, how do you not know that? How do you not understand the cultural impact that they've had on our life when it comes to gunpowder, the magnetic

compass, paper, you know, bureaucratic system, civil service? How do you not know where it all originated?

Anthony and Caroline made similar remarks, suggesting visits to historical sites emphasized a vision of China that has dominated social studies education in North America, where its history is effectively suspended at the sixteenth century (Willinsky, 1998, p. 149-150). This certainly was not a goal of the planners of this tour. However, the format of the study tour treated these sites as innocuous learning spaces.

There were also occasional planned cross-cultural experiences, which were meant to allow the participants to observe ordinary life in China such as a dinner at a “typical” Uyghur household. These stops represented “an educational and experiential component as well as a romanticized idea of culture and cultural intercommunication” (Craik, 1997, p.121). Sites of cultural tourism aim to turn culture into objects put on display and consumed by travelers. This has the effect of distancing the traveler from the travelee by positioning their relationship in purely commercial terms. These planned cross-cultural experiences tended to reinforce the perceived distance between the participants and the host culture. While visiting such sites, participants were encouraged to notice the differences between Chinese lifestyles and their own. Therefore, it is not surprising that Anthony described traveling to China as like “going to the moon.”

In addition, as much as they aim to be, cultural sites are never just a “slice of life,” but rather staged events for the benefit of tourists (Craik, 1997). The participants in the study tour were acutely aware of issues of show, authenticity, and presentation while visiting these sites. For example, speaking of the group’s dinner at the Uyghur home, Caroline said, “I thought we would be sitting with the family and we would have more contact with them. I felt awkward because I felt like they were serving us. I don’t know, we weren’t breaking bread with them.” At

times, the participants identified cracks in the chimera. Several participants noted the presence of unidentified residents sitting quietly in a side room in a Hutong the tour visited while in Beijing. The participants wondered if the family the tour met and interacted with no longer lived in this Hutong, but rather rented it to the unidentified couple. The family the tour met then makes a little extra money giving tours of their former residence and selling their paintings, but no longer actually lives in the Hutong. Thus the participants poked holes in this presentation of quaint Hutong living, which indeed is something of a relic in modern Beijing.

“The Bubble”

The format of this study tour largely imitated the format of many study abroad programs (Engle & Engle, 2002). As a highly planned experience, the participants moved quickly from site-to-site and spent very little time in one locale. Though planned this way with time constraints and the safety of the group in mind, this format did not appear to support critical reflection on aspects of the study tour. Thus the observed interactions and learning activities of this study tour were similar to those documented in other studies; rather than immersing themselves in the foreign culture, the participants were more likely to interact with other members of the tour, creating a parallel world to their lives at home (Citron, 2002; Engle & Engle, 2002; Patterson, 2015a). The foreign became a new background to act out familiar behaviors rather than a site of cultural learning. As a result, the study tour became a mini-America, rather than a site for shifting perceptual understandings and critical learning.

The participants reflected a frustration with this phenomenon both in China and during our interviews, which they called “the bubble” of the study tour. For Michael, Rebecca, and Caroline, the bubble of this study tour contrasted sharply with their previous independent travel experiences, a powerful theme across all of their interviews unprompted by my line of

questioning. For example, when asked to talk about the most powerful moments of the tour, Caroline remarked in frustration, “I felt like we were moving in this bubble, this American tour bubble, and we were just looking out and they were just looking in.” Our conversations suggested that this American cocoon shielded participants from exposure to the host culture and the important accompanying culture shock. Experiencing culture shock is a central step in what Cushner (2004) describes as “cultural learning” (p. 105-106). Culture shock opens participants to the possibility of evaluating their own cultural assumptions, and even experiencing a shift in their perceptual understanding of the world. Previous studies of international experiences have supported the powerful learning opportunity that culture shock represents for educators (Germain, 1998; Merryfield, 2000; Willard-Holt, 2001).

With this important feature of international learning in mind, and because I rarely experienced culture shock while on this tour, I asked the participants to talk about moments they may have experienced culture shock. For example, Rebecca talked about her disappointment with the absence of culture shock on the tour:

You feel comfortable. So I think everybody has a little bit of that when they are surrounded by something they're not familiar with. But honestly, in China, I didn't feel it that much because we were most of the time with the tour group. So we were always surrounded by people who, you know, did know where we were coming from.

Thus it would seem that the safety net of the tour group, which guided the participants through every challenging situation and over every language barrier with ease, acted against moments that might have challenged the participants' previously held assumptions. In other words, the planners of the tour chose to shelter the participants rather than expose them to anxiety.

Consequently, this choice may have helped to reinforce previously held ideas about China by reinforcing their role as passive viewers of an imagined China, rather than active participants in the lives of the host population. Overnight home visits with Chinese families in several of the

cities the tour stopped in (instead of traditional vacation lodgings like four and five star hotels) may have brought the group out of the bubble in some small measure, and could have led to deep personal connections lasting well after the participants returned to the U.S.

Contact Zone Learning

The above findings suggest that this study tour presented the participants with a flattened and simplistic view of China with experiences that largely reinforced already existing perspectives, far from the transformational experience promised by the host organization. However, through a visit to sites in the Xinjiang Autonomous Region, the study tour offered the possibility of challenging the participants' understandings of China as a bounded, homogenous, and static entity. I identified Xinjiang as a contact zone for a number of reasons. While there, participants were exposed to ethnic and religious diversity, witnessed the ways in which political groups were literally challenging the borders of China, and noted inequalities with regards to poverty and gender. These features of China were more evident in Xinjiang than in their visits to cities such as Beijing and Shanghai, traditional destinations for study tours to China. In Xinjiang the participants also had significantly more unguided interaction with the host population than in the other cities on the study tour. Interviews and observations indicate that this contact zone had the potential to de-center the international experience, if only in limited ways. Reflecting on their experiences in Xinjiang, all of the participants said they emerged with a more complex understanding of China and, to varying degrees, became aware of their privileged positions as travelers. All four participants identified their time in Xinjiang as the most memorable, primarily because, as Anthony put it, "I felt like I was in a different country outside of China."

All four participants emphatically said that their content knowledge about China increased as a result of their participation in the study tour. When pressed to describe the growth

they experienced with regards to their content knowledge, all four reported being more knowledgeable about religious minorities in China, especially the Uyghur population. All four reported making their nuanced understanding of China a point of emphasis in their teaching as well as their conversations with friends and family. According to the participants, they aimed to challenge the homogenous and flattened image many Americans hold about China. Caroline wondered why, after studying Chinese history in graduate school and in preparation for her teaching, she did not come across the Uyghur population. Similarly, Rebecca and Anthony both talked about their frustration over not knowing about the Uyghur people previous to the study tour, with Anthony commenting “Nobody knows about the Uyghurs!” In fact, learning about the Uyghur ethnic group and tensions between the Uyghur minority and the Han majority in China more broadly was the most commonly cited expansion of content knowledge among the four participants’ narratives.

I should note that I conducted no pre- and post-tests of participants’ content knowledge. Participants may have felt some boost in confidence about teaching about the Uyghur people and other topics in Chinese history and culture, but that does not necessarily indicate growth in content knowledge. However, time in Xinjiang also appeared to produce the most significant development on the participants’ motivations to teach with and for a global perspective. Our discussions surrounding how their learning goals for their students were influenced by the study tour indicate that the study tour was perhaps more influential in motivating the participants to teach for the perceptual dimension of a global perspective (Case, 1993). Michael talked explicitly about the significance of instilling values relating to what he called “global citizenship” over expanding his students’ content knowledge. He, Rebecca, and Caroline also talked about nurturing a sense of cross-cultural understanding in their students. Caroline spoke

passionately about how she uses her own exposure to cultural differences in China to challenge generalizations her students make about cultural differences more broadly. Similarly, all four participants claimed to undo stereotypes relating to the Chinese people. Again, the participants linked the inspiration for these new or reinforced objectives to experiences in Xinjiang.

Contact zone learning occurred in only limited ways. That is, the participants acknowledged that they previously held an overly simplistic notion of China and saw an expansion of that conceptualization as a result of their interactions with Uyghur people. However, with the exception of Caroline, the participants did not consider why they held essentialized ideas about China and where the inception of those ideas was located. Thus the impact appears to be the first movement towards shifting the participants' ideas about China with added information and an impetus to challenge their students' basic views of China. Learning experiences could have been built in to the study tour that challenged the participants' presuppositions and encouraged them to create new understandings of China through their travels. Unfortunately, deeper analyses of China's relationship to the U.S. and the underlying reasons why they held naive outlooks in the first place went unexamined.

Discussion

While the promise of productive outcomes related to international teacher professional development has gone largely undisputed in the literature on such experiences, this article has called such outcomes into question. The contact zone learning that occurred on this tour suggests that study tours that focus on heritage tourism, which are typical for this type of professional development, tend to reinforce participants' preexisting stances towards the host peoples, rather than challenge them. Rather, the format of this study tour itself tended to mediate the most potentially educational moments of the tour. In one telling moment during an interview with

Anthony before leaving for China, he noted that he had never had the experience of being an ethnic minority. He said that he would avoid areas near his home where it was made known to him that he would be a minority because of his anxiety about such experiences. This trip to China presented Anthony with an opportunity to have the experience of being an outsider and develop aspects of the perceptual lens of his global perspective, namely open-mindedness and empathy, which often result from such experiences (Germain, 1998; Merryfield, 2000; Willard-Holt, 2001). Perhaps Anthony could have begun to look at those areas of his home nation he actively avoided a bit differently. However, Anthony indicated during our interviews upon returning to the U.S. that he could not recall a time while in China that he experienced culture shock and that the study tour did not appear to alter his view of his own nation. Based on the interview data described in the previous section, the bubble appears to be the culprit for this lack of impact.

Discussions about the bubble also revealed the participants' conflicting expectations for the study tour. Rebecca expressed a desire to see "the real" China, or to have the ultimate experience, as opposed to prepackaged representations of culture. She contrasted her time in Hotan where her cross-cultural experiences were exclusively unplanned with the traditional site visits in Beijing and Xi'an, saying, "I thought we saw all a lot of *the life* anyway, this style of life, there." Rebecca's comments suggest that she was aware of the ways culture was being presented to the study tour for their consumption. Caroline echoed a similar concern, commenting that some sites visited in Kashgar were "more staged for tourists and not actually what was real." The planners were aware of these criticisms; one of them remarked to me that visiting out-of-the-way cities such as Hotan held value for the participants because they were exposed the "the real" China. This quest for authenticity while abroad is buttressed by "the

illusion or fantasy of otherness, of difference and counterpoint to the everyday” while in foreign locales (Craik, 1997, p. 114). The participants’ complaints about not being able to see “the real” China, and the planners’ hope of exposure to exactly that, reflect Spivak’s criticisms of Western knowledge production, particularly as it regards the “desire for the most ‘authentic’ and ‘pure’ Third World subject” (Andreotti, 2007, p. 72). Interestingly, when Michael and I spoke about this, he rejected that there was a “real” China to be seen by the tour group and found the impulse to seek it out both pointless and counterproductive. These disparate expectations highlight the shortcomings of preparing a one-size-fits-all international teacher professional development program (Malewski & Phillion, 2009).

It seems that when the participants observed a China touched by globalization and Western culture, they expressed that they were also not experiencing “the real” China. This, perhaps, was the most compelling observation for me as a traveler and teacher educator. The mission to find “the real” China muddied the realization that we live in a global society; instead, the real could only be defined as “primitive, native, exotic, and different” (Craik, 1997, p. 115). My argument is not that the contact zone of Xinjiang represents “the real” China any more so than cities visited in eastern China. Rather, my interviews with these four travelers suggest the discourse around travel in general and the format of this study tour specifically set up a dichotomous opposition between the tourist sites visited in eastern China and ordinary locales visited in contact zones (Urry, 1990). In this particular contact zone, this dichotomy fell apart along with the structure of the study tour itself. I and others have argued that for teachers who travel abroad, a recognition of their place as travelers in the ebb and flow of globalization is the most powerful outcome from such experiences (Kaplan, 1996; Patterson, 2015b; Talburt, 2009). To understand that people who live in seemingly exotic and far off lands share common values,

live common experiences, and most importantly make choices that already bring themselves and travelers into contact within a global society is an important step in nurturing a global perspective (Case, 1993).

Conclusion

My observations of the study tour and interviews with Rebecca, Caroline, Michael, and Anthony taught me several lessons for making the most of an international professional development experience. Elsewhere I have offered advice for teachers who plan to participate in study tours (see Patterson, 2014). What follows is a brief summary of my recommendations. Before you leave the U.S., set your own agenda for what you would like to learn about the host nation(s) and peoples. Reflect a bit on what you expect the host nation(s) to be like and maintain a reflective journal throughout the study tour. This will help you challenge your assumptions about the host peoples and deepen your learning abroad. Your journal will also serve as a detailed catalogue of your emotions and thoughts while abroad and, in many ways, will be a better record of the experience than your photographs. You will want to seek experiences outside of the bubble described by Rebecca, Caroline, and Michael; as you read in this article, outside-the-bubble experiences were some of the most powerful I observed while in China. Finally, keep in touch with your co-travelers once you return to the U.S. You will benefit from hearing about the creative ways other participants brought your shared international experience into their classrooms. For readers looking for advice on getting started, Cook and Becker (2013, May/June) provide a useful guide to applying for programs that offer overseas professional development.

This article also holds implications for programs that provide international experiences to pre-service and in-service educators. I echo the findings of previous researchers that have

emphasized the importance of preparation for and reflection on international experiences (Cushner, 2004; Germain, 1998; Jewett, 2010; Kambutu & Nganga, 2008; Pence & Macgillivray, 2008; Willard-Holt, 2001). Perhaps most crucial to influencing the perceptual stances of participants would be discussions of how their baggage, personal histories, worldviews, dispositions, and perceptual lenses prior to traveling will likely condition, though not determine, their interpretations of experiences abroad (Andreotti, 2013). Sites outside of the contact zones such as the Temple of Heaven were also ripe with transformative potentials. To not treat these sites as interpretive spaces where, for example, the participants could have considered a monument such as the Forbidden City for its place within China today represents a missed opportunity. Rather, the implicated nature of international travel could have been explored through discussions among the participants over the meanings of these sites for their teaching practice and the place these sites would ultimately come to occupy in the participants' social reconstructions of their experiences in China.

It would appear the most dangerous assumption that could be made in the planning of these types of experiences is that the going is enough. Travel in itself can be a powerful education, but leaving home is by no means a guarantee that learning will take place. Sadly, this seems to be the approach taken by the planners of this study tour, and it is an approach all too common in international professional development. As a result, the most powerful experiences came as byproducts of traveling in Xinjiang, a destination rarely visited by teacher professional development programs. Resources would be better spent preparing teachers to travel in contact zones and providing them time and support to reflect on these experiences. In this way, study tours can begin to move away from a format that imitates superficial tourist experiences, towards one that allows for robust critical development.

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Connecting to Social Studies: Crafting Instruction that is Authentic and Engaging for 21st Century Learners

Jason T. Hilton, Mary Karavis, & Christopher Miller

Introduction

Within the United States, social studies classrooms are under pressures unrivaled in the history of education. Following the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act in 2001, efforts in the United States toward a nationalized curriculum and high stakes assessments have caused many teachers to move in the direction of pedagogy focused on the transmission of facts to be systematically memorized and regurgitated for multiple choice assessments (Burroughs, Groce, & Webeck, 2005; King, Newmann, & Carmichael, 2016). As a consequence, "...students come to believe that if it cannot be tested with a multiple-choice (or other standardized format) test, it is not worth learning" (Burroughs et al., 2005, p. 17), leaving students less prepared to become engaged and responsible citizens. Additionally, struggles to integrate new technologies into social studies classrooms (Thieman & Carano, 2013) can often lead to social studies instruction that seems disconnected from the global information and ever-advancing forms of communication that students often have in their pockets.

As an alternative to this trend, and fully beholden to the notion that meaningful instruction follows from the design of quality outcomes (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005), it is important that social studies teachers engage in authentic pedagogy that emphasizes authentic practices which take into account the needs of current learners. Saye and the SSIRC (2013, p. 90) define authentic pedagogy as teaching which, "...challenges students to construct knowledge through disciplined inquiry in order to produce work that has value beyond success in school." To this end, social studies teachers should focus their attention on the quality of their students'

intellectual work and the connections students make between their work and experience, allowing the nature of that performance to drive the practice of teaching (Scheurman & Newmann, 1998). While the use of authentic pedagogy is increasingly common in classrooms, assessments of learning often still mirror traditional methods in which recall of knowledge is a primary focus (Scholtz, 2007). The purpose of this article is to engage both new and experienced social studies teachers with recent research relating to authentic pedagogy, authentic assessment and 21st century learners, thus enhancing their ability to craft lessons that are more meaningful and make better use of current technology to enhance engagement for 21st century learners.

Authentic Assessment and Authentic Practice

The term “authentic” is often found in literature connected to both pedagogy and assessment. While authentic pedagogy has been defined above, in reference to assessment authentic is often used as a synonym for validity (Frey, Schmitt, & Allen, 2012). However, this is an over-simplification that blurs the true intent of authentic assessment. A more nuanced understanding would be that authentic assessment relates to directly examining student performance on tasks they see as meaningful, that mimic actual practices within the field of study and which connect to the experiences of students (Wiggins, 1990, p. 2). Increased use of authentic assessment is often a better indicator of educational success than traditional standardized tests, owing to the easily made connections between authentic pedagogy, their assessment and actual professional practices (Gulikers, Bastiaens, & Kirschner, 2004).

Within social studies classrooms, authentic assessments go beyond the traditional closed-ended questions typically found on standardized measures. The inclusion of critical reading and writing skills, specifically focused toward non-fiction, not only links authentic social studies assessments with standardized tests already in use, but also with the real-world practices of

social scientists. Additionally, because authentic assessments call for more open-ended responses they are more closely linked to the higher end of Bloom's taxonomy (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 2000), wherein students are able to demonstrate their capacities for analysis, evaluation and creation rather than just their ability to recall. Finally, movement away from primary reliance on assessments that mirror standardized measures to those which are more authentic in nature increases both the validity of classroom assessments as well as the generalizability of classroom learning to real-world experience (Wiggins, 1990). One of the most common examples of an authentic practice and accompanying authentic assessment would be the use of Document-Based Questions (DBQ), a process in which student analyze excerpts of primary-source documents in an effort to come to a well-argued and evidence-based conclusion about a historical question. DBQs both engage students in the actual analytical practices of historians and are assessed with written analyses that mirror the end product of actual historical analyses.

Prior to engaging in an authentic assessment, it is important for social studies teachers to create opportunities for their students to learn and to practice the key skills necessary for success through the incorporation of "authentic practices." In order to be an "authentic practice," what occurs during a lesson must mirror the complexity, collaboration, and high-level thinking necessary in professional problem-solving and decision-making situations (Frey et al., 2012). In other words, when considering the modern workplace, problem solving may involve collaboration, consideration of multiple courses of action, evaluations of effectiveness, considerations of cultural, economic, and/or political constraints, as well as evaluation of evidence that leads to a reasonable conclusion. Therefore authentic practices in social studies should allow students to practice and demonstrate the underlying skills necessary for real-world problem solving (Gulikers et al., 2004). Additionally, students ought to understand the relevant

application of the newly gained or improved skills to “real life” (Stokking, Schaaf, Jaspers, & Erkens, 2013) and must be actively involved in the assessment process (Frey et al., 2012). Authentic assessments of these practices might include portfolio development, collaborative problem solving, practical projects (e.g., class presentations), comprehensive interviews, and other types of more interactive assessment that take place over the course of instruction rather than simply assessment using a test at the end of a unit of study. In contrast to traditional pedagogy in which students are guided to a single correct answer, authentic practices tend to allow for multiple correct responses and emphasize complex problem-solving exercises (Svinicki, 2004). Higher-order thinking, deep understanding, and substantive conversation are all just as relevant as real-world application, and must be included in authentic practices (Scheurman & Newmann, 1998). Lastly, in today’s digitally-connected world, authentic practices must also pay attention to the ways in which new technologies reshape fields of work, and authentic practices should leverage these technologies whenever possible to mirror real-world applications (Voogt, Erstad, Dede, & Mishra, 2013).

How then do authentic practices and assessments directly affect the overall performance of students on practical matters? In a meta-analysis of national research spanning a 13 year period (Newmann, King, & Carmichael, 2007), authentic intellectual work, composed of both authentic practices and their assessments, has been shown to lead to greater student engagement, increased achievement on basic skills such as writing and reading comprehension, and more complex challenges such as problem solving requiring logical resolution (King et al., 2016; Newmann et al., 2007). King, Newmann and Carmichael explain that, by engaging in authentic practices in social studies, “...students from diverse backgrounds score significantly higher on assessments of complex intellectual performance as well as on tests of basic knowledge and

skills...” (King et al., 2016, p. 63). In order to realize these benefits, authentic practices and authentic assessment should be combined to ensure an authentic pedagogy.

As an example, in social studies classrooms a mock trial is an authentic pedagogy in which the classroom becomes a simulated courtroom as students take on the parts of judges, lawyers, witnesses and jury in order to reach their own decisions regarding important topics or legal findings. Using the five dimensions of authenticity outlined by Gulikers, Bastiaens and Kirschner (2004) we are able to breakdown the mock trial lesson to demonstrate key elements of both authentic practice and authentic assessment, as well as suggest ways to enhance the mock trial activity for 21st century learners by increasing the incorporation of technology in the lesson.

Task – An authentic task is one that integrates knowledge, skills, and attitudes in a way that mirrors a real-world setting and practice. In a mock trial, students play the parts of the judge, jury, prosecutor, defense attorney, the accused, and various witnesses. This task can be enhanced for 21st century learners by using technology to allow students to reach out to individuals within the legal fields to learn more about the specifics of their work, or to access legal interpretations and precedents found online to enhance their own arguments.

Physical Context – The context of an authentic practice must closely resemble the context of the real-world practice it mirrors. In a mock trial the physical context may include the arrangement of the room to mirror a courtroom setting. After students have examined courtroom layouts online, allowing students to take control of the room rearrangement would empower students to create a more authentic space in which to learn.

Social Context – The social processes of an authentic practice should resemble the social processes in an equivalent real-world situation. In the mock trial, the social context might include preventing the witnesses or jury members from interacting with the other players outside the

confines of the classroom/courtroom, or having legal teams working in groups to plot strategies for the case.

Assessment – To create an authentic assessment that aligns with the authentic practice in the classroom, the ultimate product students create should resemble the type of product normally produced in the real-world situation being mirrored. Additionally, throughout the activity, periodic assessment of key indicators should also occur to allow for a fair evaluation of the underlying skills and competencies. Using the mock trial example, assessment results must include a comparison of the performances of the respective attorneys with regard to researching the aspects of law. The judge should display knowledge of law sufficiently to moderate correctly the court proceedings. The members of the jury must evaluate the lawyers' arguments in determining a verdict.

Criteria and Standards – How a student's performance during an authentic practice is assessed should resemble how an actual person in a real-world case would be assessed. Just as in the workplace, the criteria and standards will be largely subjective. To assist students, the teacher must provide a detailed set of expectations for knowledge and performance to be evaluated during and immediately following an authentic practice. Allowing students to participate as contributors in both the planning and assessment process can greatly increase their investment in the activity. In the example of a mock trial this might include allowing students to determine the charges, developing the story line for the manufacture of mock evidence, or allowing the expert witnesses to determine their own testimony. Using online resources to examine how other court cases were resolved, students could work with the teacher to develop specific criteria for an assessment of their performance that matches real-world outcomes.

Why should a student care whether the classroom practices to which he or she is subjected are authentic or not? How often has a teacher heard a student ask, “When will I ever need this?” In the answer to that question lies the key to a student’s motivation. The very core of an authentic practice is its association with the real-world (Lombardi, 2007). Authentic practices mirror the way problem solving occurs in real life. The use of authentic practices and associated assessments provides students with the confidence to proceed in social studies fields (Lombardi, 2007) and with a more sound understanding of how their social studies education can be applied in their adult life (King et al., 2016; Saye, 2016).

21st Century Learners

21st century learners are the learners that inhabit current PK-12 classrooms which possess little to no memory from before the year 2000. To these learners, technology is pervasive, communication is instant, and the answers to many questions are available in a moment’s notice from a wide range of popular search engines. Fortunately, 21st century learning and authentic intellectual work easily coincide. Unfortunately, students in the United States are often falling behind in the development of key 21st century skills, which results from a turn toward more traditional pedagogies during the last 30 years. This phenomenon can be traced back to a series of national education initiatives, beginning first with *A Nation at Risk* in 1983, followed by *America 2000* in the 1990s and finally with *No Child Left Behind* in 2001, which pushed many teachers to increasingly make use of more transmission pedagogies, such as lecture and convergent questioning, that place emphasis on content knowledge acquisition and memorization for standardized assessments (Nichols & Berliner, 2007; Urban & Wagoner, 2004). While traditional pedagogies allow students to learn information and perform well on common objective measures, they often fail to provide practice applying knowledge to new contexts,

communicating in complex ways, solving problems, or increasing their creativity (Saavedra & Opfer, 2012) – practices that are more authentic in nature. As digital natives, most students not only have access to mobile computing technology, but also possess the skill sets needed to navigate these technologies more quickly than many adults (Hilton, 2016). By connecting 21st century technology to modern authentic practices and accompanying assessment, students gain opportunities to learn in ways that were not available to previous generations.

In the 21st century, economies, technologies and civic competencies are evolving at a pace more rapid than ever before. Globalization, economic necessity, and low civic engagement compound the urgency for students to develop the skills and knowledge they need for success (Saavedra & Opfer, 2012). Recent research (Spires, Lee, & Lester, 2008; Thieman & Carano, 2013; Trespalacios, Chamberlin, & Gallagher, 2011; Voogt et al., 2013) indicates that the following are essential 21st century skills:

Capacity for communication and collaboration through technology – the use of modern web 2.0 tools and mobile computing.

Information and digital literacy – the capacity to locate digital sources, navigate multiple formats, locate key evidence in bulk information, and determine credibility and bias.

Ability to draw from multiple disciplines for problem solving – recognizing the connections between subjects and the ability to use these connections to overcome challenges.

Active investigative thinking – the ability to critically reflect, ask targeted questions, and make connections between different content areas.

Adaptive expertise – expertise in an area that allows one to apply problem solving skills to newly encountered problems.

Self-guided learning – the desire to gain greater understanding and the ability to determine how best to accomplish this task.

Cross-cultural communication skills – the capability of addressing diverse perspectives in various forms of communication.

Within a classroom geared toward 21st century learners, students should be able not only to use technology, but also to use it purposefully to enhance these key skills. They should be able to access information efficiently, evaluate information critically, and use information accurately (Thieman & Carano, 2013). Furthermore, creativity and productivity should be encouraged over memorization and recall.

Authentic practices used in the classroom often cultivate “portable skills,” including the judgment to distinguish reliable from unreliable information, the patience to follow longer arguments, the ability to recognize patterns in unfamiliar contexts, and the flexibility to work across disciplines and cultures in order to create innovative solutions (Lombardi, 2007; Saavedra & Opfer, 2012). As students take advantage of new technology for their research, they learn to recognize patterns and to judge the value of information they collect. As students collaborate digitally on projects or other assignments, they learn patience, cross-cultural communication, and flexibility in solution generation.

Technological advances have also made authentic practices easier to implement. Web-based environments allow students to become immersed in the scholarship of social studies and allow students to participate in tasks more reflective of the real-world (Lombardi, 2007). Additionally, technology allows competent 21st century learners to have access to remote instruments, actual data and real people in other locations, as well as media and e-portfolios through which they can document their work (Lombardi, 2007; Saavedra & Opfer, 2012). While

the new millennium has brought with it a new type of learner and a new set of skills to foster in their education, advances and proliferation of technology can allow teachers to engage students in ways to which they relate and that they enjoy.

21st Century Authentic Practices

Following the descriptions of authentic practices, authentic assessment and 21st century learners provided above, it is important to now bring these together in a manner that can best inform teacher practice. While it is argued that authentic practices lead to social studies instruction that is both more relevant to and more engaging for learners, it is important to be mindful of the ways in which such practices can be adapted to the needs of 21st century learners (Voogt et al., 2013). Learning activities and assessments should mirror the current scholarship models in the social sciences, including the use of case study, action research, and problem-based inquiry (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 2000). Further, these methods should be enhanced by using technology to connect students to cases in distant locales, publicly available data on essential topics, and the varied opinions of others. As an example, students could use current polling data from the pew research center (<http://www.pewresearch.org>) to evaluate the implementation of public policies or to suggest changes to public policies that might make them more popular. The abundance of information present online provides a key location for teaching 21st century skills, such as information literacy and investigate thinking, that allows students to drill down to key data points needed as evidence for their work. For instance, having students draft a “President’s Daily Briefing” summary of a world event given two contrasting mainstream media accounts of the event would allow students to explore bias in media coverage and separation of facts from opinions. The products of authentic practices in the classroom ought to include traditional exhibitions and portfolios as well as virtual exhibits, blogging, user generated

content creation, and advocacy for distant audiences (Voogt et al., 2013). Platforms such as Blogger (<https://www.blogger.com>), Wikispaces (<https://www.wikispaces.com/>) and Voicethread (<https://voicethread.com>) not only allow students to share their works but to also elicit feedback from classroom outsiders, including experts in the respective areas under study. These types of performance-based authentic pedagogies lead to both increased instructional efficiency and higher performance on assessment tasks (Keenan, 2013).

Teachers are increasingly incorporating 21st century skills such as digital and information literacy into classroom lessons. In addition to learning these necessary skills, 21st century educators concerned with authenticity should pay attention to what Voogt et al. (2013) refer to as “literacies of representation” (p. 405), meaning the knowledge of when and how to apply technology to a given task. In other words, authentic practices should include lessons related to the ways in which diversity, culture and experiences affect communication, as well as the effectiveness of certain outlets for communicating one’s findings in a way that can lead to action. In a classroom, having students contrast the way messages are created and spread within social media platforms (e.g., Twitter or Facebook) to the same processes in mass media outlets (e.g., NBC, CNN, FOX) and alternative media outlets (e.g., Breitbart, BuzzFeed) can help students to understand how each both informs and steers civic action at the local, state and federal level.

Finally, one of the largest issues facing the adaptation of authentic practices may be the separation between the 20th century teachers and their 21st century learners. Teachers need to remain conscious of the perceptions of their students. What students perceive as authentic is not necessarily the same as what teachers see as authentic. If these perceptions differ, then the fact that teachers usually develop authentic practices according to their own views causes a problem (Frey et al., 2012; Gulikers et al., 2004). As an example, in their study of social studies teachers,

Thieman and Carano (2013) note that attention to 21st century skills related to information literacy are highly espoused by teachers; however, most teachers report using only traditional practices to support students' communication skills, which largely results from teachers' unfamiliarity with the types of information resources students most often encounter in their daily lives. Therefore, to enhance authentic practices and narrow the gap with their learners, social studies teachers would benefit most from developing greater competencies in ever-changing means of communication and then adapting these practices for classroom use (Hilton, 2016; Voogt et al., 2013). Soliciting student input in the design of authentic learning activities also helps to ensure that all involved see the activity as mirroring the real-world. As an example of this practice, teachers can involve students in an analysis of the type of information found on Twitter or Reddit, either by (students and/or teachers) creating simulated entries or cultivating actual entries from these platforms into an appropriate collection. Given this collection, students might then look for evidence-based arguments, differences in perspectives, and rhetorical devices used in the crafting of effective social media-based arguments for social change.

Conclusion

Increasing the use of authentic practices, authentic assessment and technology in social studies classrooms enhances the perceived applicability of classroom work for 21st century learners. By allowing students to engage and excel in activities that they see as being connected to their present and future lives, social studies teachers assist their students in connecting that which is learned in school to that which happens in the "real-world." Indeed, the use of authentic intellectual work in social studies provides a necessary foundation for the creation of effective citizens (King et al., 2016; Scheurman & Newmann, 1998), a goal that all social studies teachers can work toward. By enhancing their conceptual understanding of authentic practices, their

assessment and 21st century learning, both new and experienced social studies teachers can craft learning activities that are more meaningful and engaging for their students.

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Challenge and Opportunity: Teaching World War I during the Centennial

Lisa K. Pennington & Amanda Williams

Introduction

After World War I, nostalgia for the pre-war period encouraged many Europeans and Americans to remember the last decades of the long nineteenth century as a golden paradise ripped apart by an exceptionally ugly war (Tuchman, 1962/2014). In reality, the decades leading up to the World War I were rife with tension. When the war actually began, many welcomed it as a quick way to solve international and domestic issues. For a brief period in the summer of 1914 the war put a temporary band aide on these problems. As the war descended into years of stalemate however, it unleashed political, economic, and social forces no one could control. At wars end in 1918, there were more than 38 million casualties. Crowns had been toppled and there was no simple return to the way things were. The crucible of World War I created the fault lines of our world.

In 2013, President Barack Obama created the World War I Centennial Commission, committing the United States to a national commemoration of the war (World War I Centennial Commission Act, 2013). This commission joined a crowded field of countries around the world already committed to commemorative programs. The year 2017 – the centennial of U.S. involvement in the war – marks the beginning of major commemorative events in the United States.

The nature of World War I commemorations in the United States and Europe have evolved over time. For the first fifty years, commemorative activity focused on mourning and memory, as the bereaved and the survivors sought to understand the heavy cost of the war and leaders tried to justify or appropriate the losses for political purposes (Budreau, 2011; Gilbert,

1994; Winter & Blaggett, 1996). In the 1970s and 1980s, particularly in Europe, reconciliation between former enemies was the goal of many commemorations (Gilbert, 1994). Now at one hundred years, when there are few if any survivors, the focus is education. This makes the World War I Centennial an exciting and challenging time for educators.

The Challenges of Teaching World War I

In 2012, the MacArthur Memorial, a museum and research center in Norfolk, VA, took an informal poll of local teachers to determine how to better serve them in terms of World War I resources. The teachers identified the following challenges:

1. World War I did not seem to resonate with their students as much as World War II.
2. Teachers had limited time to teach World War I.
3. Teachers were not as comfortable with World War I content.

World War I Classroom Resources

Since that poll, the MacArthur Memorial has worked in partnership with teachers and academics in the field of Education to propose solutions to these issues. These partnerships have produced a number of free resources that provide content for teachers as well as resources for the classroom. One of these resources is a series of short 7-13 minute films that focus on some of the major events and themes of WWI. Ten films are planned, and five of the films will be completed by summer 2017.

To meet the goal of accessibility, the films are available for free via YouTube and the Memorial's website. On the Memorial's website, educators may download viewing guides, primary source activities, mapping activities, and other resources created to supplement each film. Teachers can combine these films with their existing curriculum, pick and choose resources, and tailor the activities and resources to their students. Short and versatile – the film

series and accompanying resources provide a solution to the issues of content, resonance, and the time restrictions of a semester. All films, and accompanying resources, are available at <http://macarthurmemorial.org/404/World-War-I-Resources>.

The use of these materials may help students practice not only primary sources analysis and historical thinking skills, but also allow teachers to incorporate short documentary films into their classrooms as a teaching tool. In working with primary sources, students are exposed to firsthand experiences of individuals, which aids in deeper understanding as students examine how past events influenced the lives of those individuals in addition to comprehending the larger historical impact (Morgan & Rasinski, 2012). By examining multiple sources, students work on corroborating or disproving ideas with evidence, helping them to think historically and engage with materials (VanSledright, 2004), rather than acting as passive recipients of information. Wineburg (2010) describes historical thinking as an approach to examining documents that helps “transform the act of reading from passive reception to an engaged and passionate interrogation,” (What is historical thinking section, para. 2). This approach includes six specific strategies for interacting with documents: sourcing, contextualizing, close reading, using background knowledge, reading the silences, and corroborating (Wineburg, 2010). We rely on Wineburg’s definition of historical thinking and suggested strategies to inform the resources described below, since we work to provide multiple pieces of evidence for students to examine prior to articulating their own conclusions. Additionally, the C3 Framework (2013) describes historical thinking as “going beyond simply asking ‘what happened?’ to evaluating why and how events occurred and developments unfolded” (p. 45). It is our hope that teachers may use these resources to help students practice Wineburg’s historical thinking strategies and engage students in “developing

credible explanations of historical events and developments based on reasoned interpretation of evidence,” (C3 Framework, 2013, p. 45).

In addition, the use of film in social studies classrooms has been found to be an effective means of engaging students (Russell & Waters, 2010). Documentary films in particular may help students recognize multiple perspectives and the development of empathy (Buchanan, 2015; Marcus, 2005; Stoddard, 2007). Documentary films, which often present lesser-known perspectives, allow students to consider alternatives to the dominant portrayal of events, providing the opportunity for students to consider which perspectives they might find relatable but were unfamiliar with previously (Buchanan, 2015). Identifying a perspective they find relatable could help students develop empathy, as they make connections to the person or events portrayed in documentary films, rather than struggling to grasp an event from the dominant narrative. Stoddard (2013) furthermore suggests pairing documentary films with other historical sources for analysis to allow students to compare and contrast various accounts of the same event, while Stoddard and Marcus (2010) indicate the importance of having a clear purpose when using film in the classroom so that students are aware of why they are viewing a film and what they are expected to accomplish. One of the goals in the following activities was to combine documentary film with primary sources to provide students the opportunity to compare multiple types of evidence in order to draw their own conclusions about World War I.

Film one: *The Road to War*. The first film in the series, *The Road to War*, examines the events leading up to World War I and seeks to provide students with a solid foundation for further study of the war. The thirteen-minute film discusses the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand, the influence of nationalism, militarism, and the alliance system on the political climate in Europe, as well as the failure of diplomatic efforts to prevent war. A viewing guide

focuses on major points such as key figures during the war, the alliances between countries, the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand, and the start of the war. Questions are asked in the order in which the topics appear in the film. The questions will help students process the information and determine important figures and locations.

A mapping activity is included to help students identify and locate key countries and cities, and to help them visualize the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente. The mapping activity uses the same map shown in the film, and requires students to locate and label each country and city and use color coding to identify the two alliances. This activity could be completed during a second viewing of the film, or a brief review of its relevant parts.

Recognizing that students may struggle with so many historical figures and locations, a second mapping activity seeks to combine these two topics, and help students match key people such as King George V, Tsar Nicholas II, and Kaiser Wilhelm II to their respective countries. The same map shown in the film is again used in this activity and there are several options for having students complete the activity. Students could add the information to the color-coded map they created from the previous activity, or create a new map focusing solely on the key figures. The map may be completed during a viewing of the film, or through discussion during partner, small group, or whole class work, requiring students to work with the information learned from the film to correctly match each figure to their country. The figures from this activity will be discussed in multiple films in the series, and the map could be used as an organizational tool and reference for students throughout a World War I unit.

A further identification exercise requires students to match key figures to quotes to help students match thoughts and perspectives to persons mentioned in the film. The activity requires students to match statements concerning the early days of the war to Kaiser Wilhelm II, Gavrilo

Princip, Vladimir Lenin, or King George V. Discussion questions pertaining to the quotes are provided, and focus on the message in the quote. Questions link back to information included in the film, broad historical ideas such as imperialism and colonialism, and attitudes as Europe broke out into conflict. Examining these quotes will help students to consider the multiple perspectives of war, including viewpoints they may not otherwise consider, such as Lenin and Princip. This activity will help students practice their historical thinking skills as discussion questions ask them to apply their background knowledge and what they know about the war as a comparison with how these figures in 1914 assumed the war would go. To reach the higher levels of Bloom's Taxonomy, the discussion questions also ask students to evaluate the roles of key figures such as Kaiser Wilhelm II, in the outbreak of the war.

To help students better understand the political climate in Europe at the outbreak of the war, the final activity for *The Road to War* examines political cartoons. The political cartoon activity draws on multiple historical thinking skills as identified by Wineburg (2010), requiring students to use their background knowledge, consider the source of the cartoon and its context, and close reading to consider the language and visual representations included in the cartoons. Discussion questions accompany each cartoon, and aim to help students understand the many viewpoints of the events leading up to the war. Designed as a culminating activity for the first film, students will be able to apply their knowledge from the film and foundational activities to analyze the topics represented in the cartoons and evaluate their message, accuracy, and the perspectives represented.

Film two: *The Best Laid Plans*. The second film, *The Best Laid Plans*, discusses the wartime plans of France and Germany, their implementation, and pitfalls. The seven-minute film includes a viewing guide to help familiarize students to the main ideas discussed in the film and

help orient them to how Germany and France approached the war, the influence of Great Britain and Russia on the war, and the fact that multiple new wartime technologies also affected how the war unfolded. As in the first film, the viewing guide asks questions in the order they are covered in the film, and provides the groundwork for the remaining activities.

To reinforce the idea of battle plans and major events, a mapping activity asks students to again identify the Allied and Central Powers and major cities, and then to use arrows to show German's Schlieffen Plan, France's Plan XVII, as well as the trajectory of Russia's invasion of Germany and Austria-Hungary. Students are also asked to locate and label the First Battle of the Marne and the Battle of Tannenberg. Students are again provided a copy of the same map used in the film for consistency.

Three primary source activities for this film focus on newspaper headlines and brief articles describing the early events of the war from August to September 1914. The activities require students to assess the impact of the war on Europe, the impact of the "European War" on the United States, and the changing opinions of the war as it progressed. The first activity, "World War I Newspapers and Critical Thinking," provides students with examples of articles and headlines from 1914 editions of *The Virginian Pilot* newspaper. This activity will help students practice with all Wineburg's (2010) strategies for historical thinking skills. Students will need to consider the source and purpose of the information, place the articles in context, practice close reading to consider the language of the articles, identify what is missing, and use their background knowledge to understand the topic and apply additional information they have learned, but is not included. Each question also provides students with multiple sources and asks them to corroborate across the sources to develop their answers. Additionally, the sources are from different months in 1914, and show the progression of the war, requiring students to

consider how events unfolded. For example, headlines in August 1914 discuss the rapid advancement of the German army, while headlines from September show the retreat of German armies and the abandonment of war materials. Students could refer to their map activity as they examined the primary sources as a reference, or add to their map based on the information learned in the newspaper articles. Follow up questions ask students to evaluate the situation and make predictions based on the sources, and will connect to future films in the series. For example, students are asked to explain whether they believe the United States will become involved and what role it might play in the war, which will lay the groundwork for connections to film five.

“Early Effects of the War in Europe” also provides students with headline and advertisements from 1914 editions of *The Virginian Pilot* and asks them to consider how the events in Europe may influence the economy of the United States. Students again must consider several primary sources to develop answers to the accompanying questions, and are actively engaging with these resources to develop explanations of events based on the evidence.

The final primary source activity, “Changing Opinions of World War I,” asks students to examine headlines and political cartoons printed in *The Virginian Pilot* and the *Norfolk Ledger-Dispatch* between 1914 and 1916. This activity in particular asks students to apply their background knowledge, and draw on the information from the first two films to answer the discussion questions. For example, beginning with the outbreak of war in 1914, students must determine to which event a headline declaring “It Means European War” refers, which reiterates the causes of the war. Students then consider a quote from Kaiser Wilhelm II which declares that soldiers will be home within months from the battlefield, and creates links to the first primary source activity which focused on the progression of the war. The final question in the activity

asks students to consider the film and the primary sources from each activity to write an overview of the changing public opinion of World War I.

Though the activities could be used to build on each other and students could be asked to identify connections between them, they are designed to be stand-alone so that teachers may choose the appropriate number of activities for their World War I unit.

Additional film resources. Three additional films and accompanying resources in the series have been released. The third film, *Stalemate*, explains why the war in Europe entered a long period of stalemate and trench warfare. It also explains why the war spread to places like the Middle East and Africa. Film four, *Trench Warfare*, was released in March 2017. Film five, *America Enters the War*, was released in April 2017. All films include viewing guides and primary source activities similar to those discussed above. The MacArthur Memorial is currently working on five more films in the World War I series. Film six will introduce students to propaganda, film seven will provide an overview of the changing technology, film eight will explore life on the Home front, film nine will focus on the impact of American troops and the final battles of the war, and the final film will examine the Treaty of Versailles. Viewing guides, map activities, and primary source analysis activities will also accompany these films upon their release, which will occur throughout 2017-2019.

Conclusion

2017-2019 is a vital period for the study of World War I. The narrative of World War I will be debated, reevaluated, and shaped at many different levels. With national and state level commemorative committees focusing on education, there will be rich opportunities for educators and students to engage in this process. During this time, it will be important to make distinctions between nostalgia and critical thinking. The MacArthur Memorial's World War I resources

successfully accomplish this while supporting the C3 Framework and several themes of Social Studies as defined by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS). Domain Two of the C3 Framework for example asks students to apply disciplinary concepts and tools as applied to specific content areas. The MacArthur Memorial resources aids students in the use of disciplinary tools in geography by asking them to create their own maps of trenches and key battles during World War I, or to read maps critically to answer discussion questions, which will help them consider the influence of the physical environment on the war, as well as changes to that environment as a result of battle, or how technology played a role in the changing nature of warfare during World War I. In history, Domain Two asks students to work with multiple sources of evidence, which the MacArthur Memorial resources seek to provide, by having students examine photographs, newspaper articles, maps, and documentary film. The use of these multiple sources dovetails into Domain Three, which asks students to evaluate information from multiple sources to reach conclusions. Several discussion questions are included with each activity that ask students to form conclusions based on the information presented, as well as how they reached such a conclusion to allow teachers insight into student thinking processes. Additionally, these activities align with multiple themes of Social Studies as presented by NCSS. Theme Two, time, continuity, and change, in part asks students to analyze causes and consequences of events, which is touched on in several MacArthur Memorial films, particularly film three, *Stalemate*. Given that World War I had many key players, Theme Five, individuals, groups, and institutions, and Theme Six, power, authority, and governance, are also relevant as the resources examine the multitude of political, economic, and social forces that contributed to the war. Given the dramatic technology changes, particularly in weaponry, Theme Eight, science, technology, and society is appropriate and covered closely in film four, *Trench Warfare*.

Finally, Theme 9, global connections, is applicable given the widespread nature of the war, the changes in political, economic, and social systems, as well as changes in borders that occurred after the conclusion of the war. While these resources seek to support the C3 Framework and the NCSS Themes, the overall goal is to interest students and educators in the events of the war, while encouraging them to think critically about the past - and the echoes of the past that reverberate today.

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Cultivating Pre-Service Teachers' Interest and Confidence in Elementary Social Studies

Teaching

Heather Leaman, Maureen Sablich, & Nicole Whitney

Introduction

As former social studies teacher and current teacher educator, I continue to observe the lack of social studies learning opportunities for children in many elementary school classrooms, resulting from long-standing curriculum narrowing, testing pressures and established school norms. Many university teacher preparation programs face similar constraints. These constraints result in curriculum narrowing and limited experience for teacher education students to design and refine instruction, practice social studies teaching to elementary children, improve their social content knowledge, skills and confidence in integrating social studies in their future elementary classrooms. Limited social studies experiences for elementary teachers can be observed in teacher preparation guidelines at the state level. In order to strengthen pre-service teachers' social studies experiences, university faculty members must explore opportunities to enrich existing teacher preparation experiences for their students. This article presents the work of two pre-service teachers who participated in an extracurricular social studies lesson planning and conference presentation experience. This is one example of how we may engage pre-service teachers in extended opportunities which may lead to greater confidence and interest in teaching social studies in their PK-8th grade classrooms.

Authors examining national social studies trends years ago, established that constraints of teaching social studies may follow from stifling or “climates of constraints” (Cornbleth, 2002) created by political, school or environmental circumstances that limit meaningful social studies

teaching and learning. More recently, others confirm that elementary social studies remains limited in classrooms across the United States, (Fitchett, P. Heafner, T., & VanFossen, P., 2014; Levstik, 2008, Lintner, 2006; McGuire, 2007; Vontz, Franke, Burenheide, Bietau, 2007), that elementary teachers do not perceive themselves as content experts and that there is limited institutional support for elementary teachers to encourage them to integrate and teach social studies in the daily classroom (Levstik, 2008). Other authors note limited research in social studies education or professional development of our social studies teachers (Adler, 2008; van Hover, 2008).

Personal experience with practicing and pre-service teacher, evidence at the state and national levels, and continued conversations among social studies colleagues in schools, universities and community partnerships validate the need for a greater focus on social studies education in the elementary grades. Still, other evidence, such as review of state, regional and national social studies conferences including the PCSS and NCSS conferences suggest a rich dialogue among teachers, supporters of social studies, and university faculty and indicate a robust presence of teachers immersed in effective social studies teaching, professional growth and action for social studies education. I believe that it is important to help pre-service teachers develop similar enthusiasm and excellence in teaching social studies in the elementary classroom. In this article, with support from two pre-service teachers as co-authors, I suggest the importance of establishing interest in social studies teaching should and can begin at the pre-service level. University faculty members can encourage teacher education students to build habits of personal and professional development that may enhance social studies teaching and learning in their future classrooms by making available supplementary social experiences.

A Pre-service Teacher Social Studies Enrichment Experience

As an instructor of a social studies methods course for elementary teachers, I regularly invite students to participate in post-course social studies extension projects where they can continue to refine their skills as instructional designers, build content knowledge in social studies, teach lessons they have designed, and develop interest and confidence as teachers of social studies. Typically, one or two students per class indicate interest in pursuing additional experiences related to social studies teaching. I find it essential to capitalize on pre-service teachers' interest to build a cohort of future teachers excited about meaningful social studies learning for their students. I work regularly with pre-service teachers to develop lessons using dual language books as entry point to understanding global geography, culture and language.

At the conclusion of a winter 2016 course, students Maureen and Nicole were interested in collaborating to further develop their understanding of social studies teaching by developing an additional instructional unit for elementary children. During this extension project, Maureen, Nicole and I met to determine a plan for their work. They decided to develop a short term instructional unit for 3rd graders where children could develop an understanding of environmental issues within three countries. Maureen and Nicole selected Brazil, Mexico and the United States where environmental issues and concerns over national resources were relevant, and accessible to 3rd grade learners. We worked together to discuss potential topics common to the three countries, to identify children's literature and dual language materials in English/Spanish and English/Portuguese that could be utilized within their lessons to introduce language richness in each of the three nations as they focused on the people of each nation. Maureen and Nicole met regularly as they developed background knowledge about natural resource use/overuse in Brazil, Mexico and the U.S. and identified children's learning materials for use in their mini-unit. I met with them to review their thinking and to finalize plans for

content and related skills included in each lesson. After designing their lessons, I met with Maureen and Nicole to review final lesson content.

In addition to developing their instructional unit, Maureen and Nicole were interested in presenting their work while attending the PA Council for the Social Studies (PCSS) conference. The PCSS Conference includes keynote and breakout sessions concentrated around issues and ideas related to social studies teaching and learning at the K-12 level. Pre-service teachers, teachers and university faculty are often in attendance at the conference. Topics and presentations provide teachers and pre-service teachers opportunities to share their work in the classroom, gather new ideas for their teaching and network with colleagues. PCSS has a welcoming environment that provides opportunities for social studies educators to acknowledge and enrich their work in the discipline.

Following the construction of their lessons, we discussed worked remotely to develop the PCSS conference proposal. I believe that participation in state-level organizations provides an opportunity for new teachers to engage in individually-directed professional development, outside of what their future school districts may provide. They are able to meet and work with like-minded colleagues and build a broader understanding of teaching and learning in the K-12 classroom through participation in state level organizations. The PCSS conference focus on timely social studies topics and application in the classroom is appealing and accessible to current and pre-service teachers interested in strengthening their practice. I regularly encourage our students to attend and consider presenting at the state social studies conference. I prefer to have students serve as main presenters, with my role as supporter. I feel that this gives students the opportunity to view themselves as professionals and prevents my work from overshadowing the work of our beginning teachers. Maureen and Nicole did not have the opportunity to teach

their lessons prior to presenting their work at the PCSS conference fall 2016. However, both pre-service teachers hope to utilize their work during the student teaching semester. The following describes their experiences designing instruction and presenting their work at the fall 2016 Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies Conference.

Cultivating Interest through Supplemental Opportunities

Nicole and Maureen were two of eighteen pre-service teachers invited to participate in extended learning opportunities and curriculum/instructional design. They explain their interest in participating voluntarily to develop additional social studies instructional lessons and presenting their work to colleagues, experienced teachers and others with social studies expertise. Nicole explains,

I was interested in developing additional social studies lessons to present at the PCSS conference because I thoroughly enjoyed my social studies methods course and learning about how to teach social studies. I realized that that additional lesson planning experience and potentially presenting at a social studies conference was a great way to expand what I had learned and to also incorporate my own thinking. My own childhood experience learning about social studies was very repetitive and lacked expansion into the view of others. I felt that we learned about the Civil War or World War II, repetitively, incorporating the same viewpoints every year. I also felt that we rarely learned about other countries and cultures. My goal was to develop a unit that would allow my future students to see that people in other countries experience similar environmental challenges while learning about different cultures at the same time.

Maureen describes her interest in pursuing additional opportunities to practice social studies lesson design and extend her knowledge about social studies content, “I wanted to participate in

additional experiences so that I could further my education in social studies instruction while still a student at my university. I wanted to be able to express my learning and experience by sharing with other teachers at a state-wide social studies conference.”

Comments from Maureen and Nicole confirm their interest in extended opportunities to develop their skills in social studies lesson planning. Nicole suggests that her childhood learning experiences felt repetitive and that she values the opportunity to help children understand global and geographic connections. Both pre-service teachers were interested in the possibility of sharing their work with colleagues outside of their teacher education programs, suggesting that external opportunities may elicit additional motivation for pre-service teachers to continue their professional learning through extracurricular opportunities. It is essential for university faculty members to cultivate that initial interest and provide opportunities for students to share their work and engage in professional activity. For both Maureen and Nicole, attendance at the PCSS conference would be their first experience at a professional conference outside of university-based organizations. It is possible that facilitating larger attendance at local or state conferences could cultivate interest in social studies and may encourage a larger number of pre-service teachers to become more active in social studies teaching and learning at the university level and as classroom teachers.

Learning from Lesson Planning

Maureen and Nicole spent time developing background information on environmental issues in the U.S., Brazil and Mexico in order to plan their unit of instruction. They worked together, independently, and with me as they made instructional decisions about content, lesson learning activities, resources, objectives and assessment. As they spent time developing their instructional lessons reflecting topics of culture, environment, and current issues for people

within the United States, Mexico and Brazil, Nicole and Maureen enhanced their understanding of instructional design, content knowledge and professional development. Both pre-service teachers engaged in a period of ‘teacher learning’ as they uncovered information about each of the three countries related to cultures, languages, human and physical geography, as well as key environmental issues or challenges similar among all three countries. Nicole explains, “I was able to develop interactive lesson plans that allow children to make connections between their own and other cultures and countries. I learned background information about the environmental issues we would help children understand.” Maureen also notes her learning about social studies content from lesson design. She explains, “I was able to learn about interesting resources and ways to adapt and educate my students in subjects outside of the typical curriculum.”

Currently, students in our teacher preparation program develop one instructional unit in social studies during their 3-credit course in social studies methods in the Pre-K through 4th grade teacher education program. While students learn about social studies curriculum, instruction, assessment, materials, technology and related topics throughout the course, it is the ‘hands-on’ lesson planning that helps them become more skillful in designing lessons for K-4th graders. However, in a single university course, students’ social studies planning experiences are limited. Their individual work with teaching and learning materials is limited to the topic/focus of their lesson and to the time afforded in a 3 credit course. Maureen’s comment about learning about resources and subject areas outside of the typical curriculum illustrates the potential for extracurricular/additional social studies planning experiences to help strengthen and extend opportunities for pre-service teachers to use a greater variety of curriculum materials. Nicole’s comments about her learning of content and the opportunity to help children draw cultural and geographical connections similarly attests to the need for pre-service teachers to have additional

experiences in social studies planning. Both comments reflect the need for our continued support of quality elementary-level social studies teacher preparation. One rich, thorough experience may meet state guidelines for teacher preparation, but additional experiences may be necessary for new teachers to develop long-term confidence and interest in social studies teaching.

Learning from Conference Attendance and Presentation

Maureen and Nicole spent time developing their unit plan as well as their presentation for the PCSS Conference. They intended to share their lesson planning experience as well as present attendees with content-related information about parallel environmental issues in the U.S., Brazil and Mexico. After their presentation, they were then able to spend the remainder of the day exploring the conference, attending self-selected presentations and networking with current teachers, other pre-service teachers, and PCSS attendees. Nicole explains,

I learned how to organize and prepare for a conference and presentation in a professional setting. This was my first time attending or presenting at a professional conference. I attended several amazing sessions to help further my knowledge as a teacher, including sessions about addressing race and gender in the classrooms and teaching about the Holocaust. Both were eye-opening sessions. The first was about the gender norms and stereotypes we reinforce in schools and how we can avoid that, incorporating the sensitive topic of race, and how to address that topic in my classroom and school. I took a lot from that session and really enjoyed it. In the second session, I learned how much more extensively we could and should be teaching about the Holocaust, the victims, and the anti-Nazi efforts of many people. This showed me that there is so much more we can be teaching students and that sometimes just cover the basics and well-known facts.

Maureen remarked, “I found interesting resources that will help further my education as a future educator as well as enrich my teaching in the future.”

Both Maureen and Nicole noted their extended learning from attendance at the conference suggesting that pre-service elementary teachers are aware of their opportunities and needs for growth as teachers of social studies. Their brief comments about their learning suggest two meaningful practices—additional social studies lesson planning, and conference attendance—that may help elementary teachers develop confidence in their ability to learn and master social studies content, eventually influencing their teaching of social studies in their future classrooms.

Although the intention of this project was not to investigate the benefits of conference presentation and participation, I believe that there is rich potential for further exploration of pre-service teachers’ learning as first time conference attendees. Examining pre-service teachers’ thinking about themselves as teachers, their sense of identity/efficacy as social studies teachers and their understanding of social studies teaching and learning prior to and following conference attendance presents an opportunity to evaluate our current experiences for pre-service teachers. Examining how early participation in professional organizations may impact pre-service teachers’ social studies interest and confidence throughout their undergraduate careers and into their teaching careers may yield useful information about strengthening social studies experiences in elementary teacher preparation.

Application in the Future

The purpose of the constructing additional experiences for pre-service teachers is to capture enthusiasm at the university-level with the hope that extended experiences in social studies instructional design, teaching opportunities and professional development will be carried

into teachers' classroom practices in the future. Nicole explains her expectations for integrating social studies into her future classroom and for continuing her professional development.

I intend to integrate social studies in my future classroom by making sure my students have access to appropriate materials, lessons are interactive and interesting with opportunities for role play and project-based learning. The biggest barrier that I could face and what I have seen in various classrooms, is that there is very little time to teach social studies. A lot of classrooms combine social studies and science in a small time block. Teaching social studies is put onto the back burner since it's not going to prepare students for testing. As a teacher I want to make time for social studies and incorporate it into other lessons if I am limited on time. I believe it is important for elementary children to be presented with opportunities to learn social studies, including history and how our government works. Children need to know how they can be involved and what their civic duties are. I plan to continue my professional learning and development as classroom teacher by attending conferences and taking professional development courses to continue my learning as social studies teacher. I will also practice and incorporate new classroom techniques and programs that I learn about to enhance my students' learning about social studies.

Maureen explains her expectations for integrating social studies into her future classroom,

When developing social studies learning experiences for children in my future classroom, I want to use my students' backgrounds and experiences as much as possible to help them to make personal connections to the content and curriculum. I also think integrating social studies in other academic subjects throughout the school year would be beneficial to children while insuring that I have the opportunity to emphasize social studies

learning. I think it is important for elementary children to learn social studies because it helps educate them about being a member of society and about other cultures around the world.

Both Maureen and Nicole, as pre-service teachers, indicate an interest in integrating social studies in their classrooms. Nicole notes the dearth of social studies teaching and learning opportunities in elementary classrooms. Like all social studies advocates, Nicole passionately articulates the importance of children's social studies learning for the benefit of society. Maureen identifies our global society and the need for children to actively engage in learning social studies. Clearly, these young teachers understand and want to integrate social studies experiences for children in their classrooms. It will be interesting to determine how this minimal, though powerful extracurricular opportunity may or may not inform their future work and how school structures influence their teaching of social studies. Follow-up conversations are planned to examine how, if at all, early additional opportunities may provide a stronger path for teachers to integrate social studies in their classrooms.

Conclusion

As former eleven-year teacher of social studies to children in grade 6, and as current university faculty member teaching social studies methods courses to our future teachers, I feel it is imperative that we help our pre-service teachers see themselves as teachers of social studies. Like the elementary classroom, some teacher education programs have limited time for teacher preparation in social studies. While limited social studies learning in K-12th grade and in elementary teacher preparation programs has been the rule for many years, perhaps now, it is even more apparent that the removal of social studies from K-12th grade and teacher education is problematic for our democratic society. Supplemental opportunities to design curricular units,

present work at state conferences, attend conferences, and practice lessons in classroom or other field sites are small steps toward rich social studies instruction in elementary classrooms. However, such opportunities have the potential to support new teachers as they develop confidence and interest in teaching social studies to their elementary children.

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