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Letter from the Editor

Dear Conference Presenters,

Thank you for your wonderful contributions to the 2014 International Society for the Social Studies Annual Conference. Your presentations have helped to make the conference a success. The combination of pedagogical and content based presentations left conference attendees both excited and content. It is our hope that the following will either provide a synopsis of the presentations or offer even more information.

Sincerely,

William B. Russell III
Editor

Joshua L. Kenna
Editorial Assistant
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Legal Profession in the Technological Era with Special Reference to Women Lawyers in Coimbatore District of Tamil Nadu, India

G.Barani  
*Anna University Regional Centre, Coimbatore*

S.Pavithra,  
*Anna University Regional Centre, Coimbatore*

A country attains real growth only if the growth is inclusive of all the community, particularly women. This article discusses the empowerment of women lawyers in the society with reference to Coimbatore District of Tamil Nadu, India. Lawyers play a vital role in the betterment of the society. The role of women lawyers is evident in terms of crimes against women in the society. But women lawyers are supposed to take career breaks or quit the profession, due to marriage, child rearing and elderly care. As women are in a compulsion to move from one place to another due to marriage, they are forced to change the place of practice, leaving behind their existing clients. This article tries to measure the effectiveness of technology in addressing the mobility issues of women lawyers.
As advances in technology revolutionize today’s world, it is vital for the legal landscape to adopt such changes. The automation of legal processes has prompted lawyers, paralegals, legal secretaries and other legal professionals to become proficient at an ever-increasing array of word processing, spreadsheet, telecommunications, database, presentation and legal research software. Law technology has impacted every aspect of the legal field, from law firm and corporate practice to courtroom operation and document management.

Can Technology help women lawyers from the risk of geographical mobility? The answer would be probably, yes. E-filing, Video conferencing or Tele-conferencing can help a women lawyer to retain her client in spite of her shift from one practice area to another. As these facilities do not require the lawyers to be present in person, it is possible for a lawyer to appear in her case where she is. It is of no doubt that, technology paves way for the growth and development of the legal profession. Especially, it enhances the career of women lawyers. Thus, this paper focuses on the effectiveness of technology in the geographic
mobility within the legal profession and explores how moving can affect the professional advancement of women lawyers.

Thus, the objectives of the study are:

- To find out whether mobility affects the career of women lawyers.
- To determine whether the use of technology helps in enhancing the career of women lawyers.
- To come out with suggestions that helps women lawyers to overcome the barrier of mobility.

Percentage Analysis performed to identify the reasons for change in location and to identify the problems in mobility, revealed that, majority of the respondents relocated their area of practice due to marriage and child rearing. This can be quoted as a main reason for women lawyers lagging behind men lawyers. Digitalization of the legal profession is essential in order to minimize the flaws arising out of geographical mobility.

It was also identified that, majority of the respondents feel that geographical mobility affects career growth of women lawyers. Women
lawyers find it difficult to retain their clients as they get relocated from their area of practice. This in turn affects the income of the women lawyers and career growth of women lawyers. Thus, measures to be taken to upgrade the profession of law with technology.

Chi – Square test was used to check on the relationship between the variables shown below:

(i) Relationship between geographical mobility and Career development, Retention of clients, Level of Income, Comfort with new environment, and Technological up-gradation.

The results of the test indicate significant relationship between geographical mobility and Career development, Retention of clients, Level of Income, Comfort with new environment, and Lack of Technological up-gradation. This reveals that mobility affects women lawyers in various aspects.

And the same Test was applied to find on the relationship between

(ii) Technology and Acceptance and whether technology helps to retain their clients and current income.
The results of the test disclose that, there exists bond between Technology and Acceptance and whether technology helps to retain their clients and current income. The findings of the study reveal that, the progress of women lawyers is affected due to geographical mobility. On investigating the reasons for this mobility it is clear that, women relocate their area of practice due to marriage and child rearing. Therefore, women lawyers career, income, client retention gets affected which makes them lag behind their male colleagues. Thus, it is essential to look over the ways to minimize these barriers arising out of geographical mobility in order to motivate equal participation of women lawyers.

Technological advances could decrease the amount of traditional work that lawyers put in and also helps women lawyers at times of mobility and child rearing. Technology is and will increasingly improve the productivity of lawyers. It also enables the clients to receive timely service from their lawyers. Thus, technological development is a boon and it should be utilized by legal industry. Digitalization of the legal profession is vital to Indian society and women community. As lawyers will be accessible through electronic media it would help women victims
in trouble and saving the evidences through digital devices can help in protection of evidences.
Proof in the Pudding: A Mix of Integrative and Interactive Strategies in Middle School Literacy

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Todd Stork  
Nathaniel Smith  
*Mobile County Public School System*

**Abstract**

Unique strategies for improving student engagement contributed to increased student achievement in low performing middle schools in a south Alabama public school district. Strategies for developing interactive, student-centered, inquiry-oriented instruction that integrates reading and effective use of *Library of Congress* primary sources in social studies are shared.

**Introduction**

This study examined the effects of intensive pedagogical training for teachers on student engagement and achievement for low-performing middle school students with funding provided by *Teaching with Primary Sources Library of Congress* grant. Teacher training included *Whole Brain*
Teaching strategies that involved highly interactive engagement strategies through direct instruction and cooperative learning. In addition, teachers developed interactive, student-centered, inquiry-oriented lessons that integrated reading and effective use of Library of Congress (LOC) primary sources in social studies. The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of integrative and interactive teaching strategies on middle school achievement in social studies and literacy.

**Philosophical and Methodological Frameworks**

Research indicates that schools that are successful in impacting student achievement with disadvantaged students share common characteristics (Association of Effective Schools, 1996; Lezotte, 1991; Barth, 1999). In this project, stakeholders established goals that focused on four of these characteristics; namely, high expectations, opportunity to learn and time on task, safe and orderly environment, and frequent monitoring of student progress. Intensive professional development was key in assisting teachers with establishing high expectations and increasing time on task by developing interactive, student-centered, inquiry-oriented lessons that integrated reading and effective use of
Library of Congress (LOC) primary sources in social studies. Training also included techniques for increasing student engagement, a significant barrier to success at the middle school level.

Participants

Middle School Teachers, Grades 6-8.

There were 24 middle school teachers from the ten lowest performing schools in Mobile County Public School System (MCPSS). School improvement plans have been initiated for all ten schools. Supervisors identified one strong teacher from each of the ten schools to serve as a teacher leader at the building site. Except for new hires, all teachers involved in this project had previous training in Effective Schools, Marzano’s High Yield Strategies, Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS), Power Words, and Making Middle Grades Work.

School Improvement Specialists.

School Improvement Specialists serve as instructional coaches at schools that have been identified as in need of improvement. They were trained along with the teacher leaders to provide an additional resource for teachers.
6-8 grade students.

ARMT Attrition Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Level</th>
<th>Number of Students tested 2011-2012</th>
<th>Number of students tested 2012-2013</th>
<th>Gain or loss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>4651</td>
<td>4467</td>
<td>-184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>4479</td>
<td>4430</td>
<td>-49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>4406</td>
<td>4179</td>
<td>-227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OVERALL</td>
<td>13536</td>
<td>13076</td>
<td>-460</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Sources

The mixed-methods data collection process involved formative and summative measurements including surveys of student attitudes about learning social studies, pre- and post- data, teacher focus group interviews, and supervisor observation checklists.

Results

Both qualitative and quantitative data analysis suggests positive outcomes in student attitudes and student achievement in both reading and social studies content. In addition, positive attitudes toward training were indicated by teachers and advanced levels of pedagogical skills were observed by supervisors in these teachers’ classrooms. Teachers reported
needing additional support in implementation of new instructional strategies as well as increased planning time.

End-of-quarter (EQT) content tests- Data analysis of pre- and post-test data indicated all positive gains in content learning in both reading and social studies on identified essential skills.

Survey of Student Attitudes. Student attitudes and perceptions were measured before and after the project to provide a qualitative measurement to the study. An online survey tool was used for this assessment. Overall, students indicated that learning to use primary sources helped them increase achievement.

Focus group meetings-Data collected from “Team Cycle of Instruction Checklist” forms were used as discussion points during focus group meetings in an effort to improve teaching and subsequently, student learning. Data was also be used to assist teacher leaders and School Improvement Specialists in coaching teachers with their training. Self-evaluation/goals forms were completed by teachers during focus group meetings to help track the learning growth of teachers. The following comments were excerpts from teachers:
Students often need some assistance analyze text as well as modeling and scaffolding to build their confidence as they become more familiar with the techniques. I have seen improvement in their understanding and ability to explain or expand reasons for content when they are exposed to primary sources – especially pictures, editorials and certain speeches.

I have started very slowly with the Whole Brain Teaching strategies. I love the hand signals and mirroring. I am really glad this workshop was offered. I have always used primary sources and know just how important they are to teaching. I did not realize that people actually teach without using them until attending this workshop. I was appalled. It has really changed me into a teacher who not only uses primary sources in my own lessons and classroom, but also as a teacher who tries to help other teachers understand the importance of this and to help them develop into teachers who use primary sources regularly.

I have definitely enjoyed participating in this grant and being exposed to the professional development provided.

I use things that I learned during my LOC primary source training everyday! I use primary sources multiple times in every lesson. I like to use a variety of primary sources to help stimulate all learners. One of the most useful things I learned was how to develop an Instructional Table to compile my resources on. This has made it very easy to organize my primary sources and also to share them with other teachers who teach the same course. This has helped other teachers use primary sources in their learning. It is also a very easy way for me to share my sources with students who may have missed the lesson. I love how easy it is to keep my sources organized. This has really helped me free up time to find more sources! My students are more engaged and this has also been an easy way for me to get other teachers “on-board” with using primary sources.
Alabama Reading and Math Test (ARMT) was administered to students at the end of the academic year. Data were analyzed to determine the overall impact of this project on the reading domain of ‘comprehend textual/informational and functional materials.’ The analysis suggests that gains were made in the 6th grade but not in the 7th and 8th grades.

**ARMT Performance Data**

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<th>Grade Level</th>
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<th>Percent correct 2012-2013</th>
<th>Gain or loss</th>
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<td>61.4</td>
<td>63.9</td>
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<td>69.3</td>
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<td>-4.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>73.6</td>
<td>70.3</td>
<td>-3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OVERALL</td>
<td>68.1</td>
<td>66.2</td>
<td>-5.7</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Attrition rate may account for some of the outcome in the data as 3 new school systems were formed during this two year period and many of the higher performing students relocated. In addition, the 2012-2013 school year was the last year that the ARMT assessment was used. Some teachers did not place an emphasis on the test objectives and preparation as they did in the past since this data was not counted toward Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) status.
The implementation of strategies for using LOC primary sources was positive for the grant administration period. Analysis of the ‘Team Cycle of Instruction Checklist,’ focus group meetings, and review of lesson plans submitted by teachers indicated that an overwhelming majority of the participating teachers were using primary sources during the course of instruction.

**Discussion**

Due to the challenges associated with teaching middle school students, the specific strategies indicated in this study may be beneficial for increasing student engagement with some middle school populations. This study also illustrates how reading and social studies can be integrated successfully while employing higher order thinking opportunities for even the most challenging students. High expectations from both students and teachers seem to be key indicators to achieving positive results.

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Retrieved


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History Teachers as Historian: Conducting Historical Research

Hayden Call
Utah State University

History has been an important discipline since time immemorial as cultures pass on oral and written traditions, stories, and information. It has become an integral part in the education system throughout the United States as it has become a required course for elementary and secondary students attending public schools. History educators are instrumental in disseminating the stories of the past to their students and therefore must be content specialists and continuing learners. Conducting historical research fulfills a teacher’s necessity to continue to learn and specialize in the field of history. The steps of historical research and the processes involved not only should be taught, but implemented. In short, history teachers must also be historians.
Using the Library of Congress to Create DBQ’s and Book Backdrops

Daniel A. Cowgill II
University of Central Florida

With the introduction of Common Core State Standards (2012) in forty-five out of fifty states, the United States is undergoing a change regarding the types of skills that will be assessed in the classroom. According to the Common Core State Standards Initiative (2012), a set of standards has been created in order to provide students with a “robust and relevant education reflecting the knowledge and skills that our young people need for success in college and careers.” One portion of these standards is designed to assess the types of skills that students need to develop in order to be successful in English/Language Arts and History/Social Studies. These skills include a student’s ability to read, write, speak, listen, complete research based projects, and use professional language that correlates to the classes that they are taking (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2012). In essence, students are being asked to use 21st century thinking skills, which require students to make educated arguments and then communicate those arguments in an authentic fashion.
With Common Core requirements focused on student use of authentic subject area skills, it is important that students use appropriate historical thinking strategies. The use of instructional techniques that require students to think like a historian are widely supported in the literature and largely focus on the development of student historical literacy (Barton & Levstik, 2003; Vansledright, 2002; Wineburg, 2001). The types of skills needed to engage in historical thinking include understanding distortions in historical texts, bias, exaggeration, ideology, and partisanship (Vansledright, 2004). The use of primary sources is strongly advocated as a means for completing historical inquiry and analysis (Hartzler-Miller, 2001), which then allows students to participate in the construction of historical knowledge (Wineburg, 2001). The use of historical inquiry allows teachers to break the pattern overly relying on the textbook and allows for students to synthesize information and engage in an authentic research activity (Whelan, 1997).

The use of primary sources allows the student to engage in historical investigations by analyzing documents from a particular time period in which a historical event has taken place. This analysis then
provides students with a framework for identifying a relationship between historical evidence and the construction of the events that took place in the past (Barton and Levstik, 2003). Lee, Doolittle & Hicks argue that by engaging in historical inquiry, students are able to develop appropriate historical thinking skills and are able to understand the essential facts, concepts, and generalizations that underlie historical knowledge (2006). When students are forced to corroborate information from a variety of sources, they are truly engaging in historical thinking (Lee, 2002). By rooting social studies instruction in the analysis of primary documents, students are required to constantly interrogate documents and their validity (Vansledright, 2004), therefore engaging students in true historical interpretation (Hicks, Doolittle, & Lee, 2012).

In the past, a teacher’s ability to develop primary source activities was limited to physical sources located within institutions such as a libraries or local history centers. These primary sources were available in limited quantities and the quality of those sources varied. With increased access to primary sources on the internet, many of the barriers that previously existed in developing primary source activities have
disappeared (Lee, 2002). These online primary source databases have provided instructors with the ability to find previously obscure primary sources and then implement them into the classroom with ease, allowing students to get a firsthand account of historical events (Mason & Hicks, 2002). Online resources such as the Library of Congress website, provide teachers with a vast repository of primary sources, including pictures, maps, cartoons, video, music, speeches, and more. These newly available primary sources provide teachers with the ability for the teacher to create learner centered experiences that allow the teacher to be a facilitator of knowledge, rather than a dispenser of knowledge (Lee, 2002; Crocco, 2001). There are also a variety of other resources on the internet that provide free books, speeches, and other texts that allow the teacher to fulfill the need for an increased use of historical texts in the classroom (Berson & Berson, 2013).

The use of these digital primary sources provides teachers with a distinct advantage in the classroom as compared to physical primary sources. Some of the advantages of digital primary sources include the ease in which they can be manipulated, their ability to be searched and the
flexibility of their use (Lee, 2002). These traits allow the instructor to easily choose and manipulate primary sources in a way that fits the needs of the instructor. The implementation of these digital primary sources allows a social studies teacher to fulfill the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) goal of using technology in a transformative and powerful way (National Council for the Social Studies, 2010). The use of digital historical sources have the ability to dramatically alter how social studies instruction is handled, as it provides a view of history that is tentative and malleable (Lee, 2002).

While the use of primary sources may seem daunting at times, students, as young as seven, have the ability to engage in some form of historical inquiry (Barton, 1997). The use of historical inquiry not only allows teachers the ability to meet the demands of Common Core State Standards, but it allows them get away from the stand and deliver methods of instruction, which if used in excess can actually hamper a student’s ability to learn (Barton, 2005; Whelan, 1997).

The use of primary sources in the classroom have also affected student perceptions of social studies instruction. After being presented
with the opportunity to analyze history through primary source documents, many students indicate that they feel frustrated and irritated with the way history has been presented to them in the past (Davis, 2012). With appropriate questioning and discussion, teachers have the power to better engage students (Barton, 2005). Therefore, this should provide students with the ability to prevent students from seeing social studies as the boring subject it is perceived to be (Fertig, 2005).

References


Crowdsourcing for Digital Social Science Learning Companions: A Theory, Model, & Explanation

Charles Cummings
*Florida Virtual School*

This presentation coincided with two other presentations regarding the practice of TCPIC (Teacher Created Prescriptive Interactive Content). TCPIC is a practice in which teachers can develop their own mobile content for the purpose of remediation in their social science classrooms (rather than using existing content which might not meet the specific needs of the learner or lesson). This specific instance of the process utilized crowdsourcing as a model for achieving the creation of prescriptive interactive content through the donations of skills and funds from the community at large...a rather convincing alternative to the creation of prescriptive interactive content when teachers could not facilitate the development and creation of materials.

Crowdsourcing is a concept by which a predetermined goal is achieved through the contributions (typically anonymous) through the internet. The contributions being made by those who participate in
crowdsourcing can vary within variations of time, ability, creativity, or even money. Ultimately, participation (paid or voluntary) is what allows a goal to be achieved. While crowdsourcing comes in many shapes, sizes, and directives, the idea of crowdsourcing for educational means is typically an area that isn’t highly publicized or one that isn’t explored with great frequency or intent.

The presentation explained how to establish a system for the creation of prescriptive interactive content using the talents available in a community through virtual volunteering (crowdsourcing). Through this process, teachers would be able to request the creation of content and virtual volunteers would collaborate (synchronously or asynchronously) towards the creation of prescriptive interactive content. This variation on TCPIC allowed for community involvement in the classroom, thus alleviating workloads on teachers and enhancing community involvement in the need to create prescriptive interactive content for learners of the social sciences.

Charles Cummings  
*Florida Virtual School*

This presentation coincided with two other presentations regarding the practice of TCPIC (Teacher Created Prescriptive Interactive Content). TCPIC is a practice in which teachers can develop their own mobile content for the purpose of remediation in their social science classrooms (rather than using existing content which might not meet the specific needs of the learner or lesson). This session contained information about the practice of developing prescriptive interactive content for learners who were struggling to find their footing in using Wikipedia as a tool for research.

The session covered the transformation in learner perception regarding Wikipedia. Online students enrolled in online social science courses periodically submitted work citing Wikipedia as a primary source. An asynchronously offered training module was created to facilitate understanding of wikis, Wikipedia, and online research practices to not only curb this trend, but to rebuild positive research practices in learners.
Students were expected to complete the training module regarding when they misused Wikipedia in their studies, complete an assignment showing what they learned about Wikipedia, and report back to me an evaluation of the training and their take away from participation.

During the training module, students viewed several instructional tutorials pertaining to a greater understanding of Wikipedia in academia. Students who participated were asked the following questions:

- **Question 1**: What did you learn today about Wikipedia? (Your response must be no less than 100 words)

- **Question 2**: What purpose will Wikipedia serve in your research practices? (Your response must be no less than 100 words).

Nearly all 60 responses created the tutorial with providing valuable information regarding best practices in using Wikipedia for research purposes.

This session shared the responses to these questions, an analysis of trends within the group of responses, and the training provided to these students. It also showed teachers how Wikipedia can be used to build and enhance prerequisite research skill sets in students to enhance their
abilities as researchers in both academia and life. The tool used for this tutorial and presented at this session was created using HTML5 as an example of the possibilities in innovating prescriptive interactive content.
Teacher Created Prescriptive Interactive Content (TCPIC), SAMR, and Modernizing Remediation in Social Science Education

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This presentation coincided with two other presentations regarding the practice of TCPIC (Teacher Created Prescriptive Interactive Content). TCPIC is a practice in which teachers can develop their own mobile content for the purpose of remediation in their social science classrooms (rather than using existing content which might not meet the specific needs of the learner or lesson). This session contained information about the practice of developing prescriptive interactive content for learners. It also dealt with the growth of the professional educator (and learner) from this process through the comparison of practices against the SAMR Model. While social science continually emphasizes technology in instructional practices, often instructional practices or lessons are retooled to accommodate available technology and software. Through TCPIC the value of lesson can exist through digital content (developed around an HTML5 framework) which is tailored to the specifics of the educator.
The SAMR Model (created by Dr. Ruben Puentedura) is a viable solution to facilitate the acquisition of proficiency in modern consumer technologies and software for both staff and students with the hope of promoting 21st century skills in both staff and students, as well. While educators alter lesson plans to accommodate available technology and software, many yield to the prospect of growing their technological skillset towards facets of creation and innovation. In doing so, educators would be able to provide invaluable lessons to learners (regarding the design, development, and application of technology) so that both the learner and teacher move beyond lower levels of technological literacy to levels which breed innovation.

The session focused on the value of two Models: the SAMR Model for the development and professional construction of a 21st century teaching staff and the TCPIC Model for an action plan facilitating the design, development, and distribution of prescriptive interactive content for students. The session also focuses on the administrative aspects of implementing SAMR within a school as a focal point of professional development and/or focal point of a PLC. It demonstrated how SAMR can
redefine educator skill sets to involve the framework of TCPIC for the purpose of facilitating student success via the creation of prescriptive interactive content.
Using Inquiry & Literacy Strategies to Investigate Climate Change

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James Martin (2007), in his book, *The Meaning of the Twenty-First Century*, contends that a host of interrelated “mega-problems” threaten the planet. These intractable, urgent problems include: climate change, excessive population growth, water shortages, destruction of life in the oceans, mass famine, the spread of deserts, pandemics, extreme poverty, growth of shanty cities, unstoppable global migrations, non-state actors with extreme weapons, violent religious extremism, runaway computer intelligence, and cataclysmic war (pp. 30-32). What is perhaps most striking about Martin’s list is the likelihood that each of these problems intensifies if climate change continues unabated.

Meanwhile, Adam Frank, professor of physics and astronomy, argues that we are living in an “age of denial” in the United States where it has become “politically effective and socially acceptable to rebut scientific
facts” (2013). This is perhaps no more evident than with the issue of climate change where, despite the scientific consensus for anthropogenic (human-caused) climate change, there remains a significant lack of consensus among U.S. citizens regarding this scientific understanding. In a series of studies designed to understand U.S. citizens’ beliefs about climate change, conducted by the Yale Project of Climate Change Communication and George Washington University, researchers (Leiserowitz, et al, 2011) discerned “six Americas”, with U.S. citizens ranging in their beliefs from alarmed (i.e., very convinced is happening, human-caused, serious and urgent threat; are making changes in own lives and support an aggressive national response), to concerned, cautious, disengaged, doubtful, and dismissive (i.e., believe global warming is not happening, not a threat to people or nature, and strongly believe doesn’t warrant a national response). Put another way, while there is little to no scientific debate about anthropogenic climate change, popular debate expressed via television, radio, blogs, related news outlets, and forwarded e-mail rages on (Craven, 2009).
Social Studies educators are well-positioned to help students critically engage this popular debate and work with complex information sources. They can guide students, for example, to use tools and resources (heuristics, criteria, standards), such as strategies for sourcing, contextualizing, and corroborating texts, to help students critically analyze and evaluate sources of information (VanSledright, 2010; Wineburg, 2001, 2011). Social studies is also multidisciplinary, drawing from intellectual and disciplinary perspectives in history, political science (government), psychology, sociology, and geography.

**Inquiry Activity**

With a framework that focuses on “excavation” (close, careful reading) and “elevation” (broader contextual reading) practices (Bailand & Damico, 2011; Damico & Baildon, 2011), we outline an activity to demonstrate how high school and postsecondary teachers can guide students to evaluate a set of digital sources to investigate the following inquiry question: *Despite the overwhelming scientific evidence and consensus about the existence and causes of climate change, what best explains the range of beliefs in the U.S. about this issue?*
Two digital sources are used to set the context and establish essential background knowledge for the inquiry activity:


Then students are guided to critically engage with the following set of sources that requires them to evaluate different explanations for the wide-ranging beliefs about climate change:

a. Obama.com video which presents views of climate change deniers in U.S. Congress.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?feature=player_embedded&v=biUc0D6_UPA

b. ABC News segment (Youtube clip in which the reporter, John Stossel, makes a case that the debate is not over about whether or
not human beings are a primary cause of climate change.

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kHCJ-UhZFT4

c. American Psychological Assoc. (APA) press release, which explains psychological factors that affect the slow response to climate change.


d. Chevron video transcript & video clip which focuses on the ways Chevron is developing technological solutions to mitigate climate change.


http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Z4OdDwp5GfY

e. Image – Climate disaster impact, which offers a statistical claim that poor, developing nations are experiencing the most adverse impact of climate change.

There are several reasons these sources were selected. First, each is intended for a broad, popular audience and do not require deep knowledge of the science of climate change. Second, the sources range in “text complexity” – a dominant feature of the Common Core State Standards. Sources include an accessible image, a longer textual explanation, and video clips of varying length and difficulty. Third, these sources deal with and offer potential explanations based on the social, political, economic, psychological, technological, and historical facets of climate change, thus enabling students to work with the sources toward writing their own evidence-based conclusions to the inquiry question: Despite the overwhelming scientific evidence and consensus about the existence and causes of anthropogenic climate change, what best explains the range of beliefs in the U.S. about this issue? Finally, these sources, especially taken together, call for both close, careful reading (excavation practices) as well as elevated reading (elevation practices).

References


College Readiness for Rural Youth Initiative: Creating a Climate for Success

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Introduction

Rural high school graduates are less likely to graduate from college than their urban counterparts, mostly because they are less likely to attend college (Gibbs, 1995). Creating a climate of success for rural youth in Northwest Ohio is the goal of the College Readiness for Rural Youth initiative. Due to the large geographic area targeted, Extension has engaged collaborating partners to develop and facilitate “bridging” programs to support academic success and transitions to college for rural youth in the region.

Over 600,000 students attend Ohio’s 13 public university main campuses, 24 university regional campuses, one free-standing medical college, 23 public community and technical colleges, and 63 independent
colleges and universities (Riley, 2008). The availability of post-secondary institutions in Ohio is abundant. In fact, most Ohio residents live within 30 miles of a college or university campus (Riley, 2008). However, local availability alone does not make it easy for youth to go to college. Young adults recognize that barriers exist to implementing their future career choices and seek ways to overcome these obstacles (Ferry, 2006). In Ferry’s study, she found that youth voiced that the lack of financial resources to attend additional schooling or training was a major barrier. Furthermore, she noted for college-bound youth, the second most identified barriers were college acceptance and being capable of graduating.

In Ohio, more than one-third of recent high school graduates must enroll in remedial math and/or English in college (Ohio Board of Regents, 2012). The State’s share of instruction dollars for remedial coursework was over 32 million dollars across all public education sectors in Ohio in FY 2007 (Riley, 2008). According to an article posted in the online *Daily Yonder* in 2009, 16.8% of adults in rural counties had at least a B.A. degree (approximately half the urban rate). The maps provided in the
article also indicated that most of rural Northwest Ohio has a “well below average; less than 14 percent” of its adult population holding a college degree. It is increasingly important that we address this issue from both an economic and college success for youth standpoint. Since the Northwest Ohio region is mostly rural, consisting of 22 counties that cover over 9,400 square land miles, and within these counties there are over 140 high schools, it is unmanageable to address this problem alone.

The Program

We have linked the College Readiness for Rural Youth program with the OSU Extension program entitled: Real Money – Real World (RMRW). RMRW is a successful financial literacy program 4-H professionals use in Ohio in partnership with local schools. The curriculum was created by Ohio State University Extension professionals to simulate real-life experiences to help make youth aware of the money management skills they need to be productive and successful adults (Bridgeman, et al., 2003). Results of a 2009 follow-up survey indicated that the program made a dramatic difference in raising youth awareness about the costs to maintain a household, as well as an awareness of the
interrelationships between education, job, and money (Bateson & Ferrari, 2009)

We also capitalized on the Extension/local school partnerships to integrate the College Readiness for Rural Youth initiative. An expanded series of activity-based lessons were developed that included multiple topics covering college transition. These lessons helped students identify what steps need to be taken, educationally and financially, to attain their career goals. After youth participated in RMRW, they were then engaged in follow-up activities about how to choose a post-secondary school, what types of programs to explore, how to finance schooling, and how to begin the process of admissions. Students also gained insight as to why good ACT scores, high GPA’s, and college prep course work was critical in high school. The overall program has aligned with the Ohio Department of Education Personal Finance Curriculum, thus helping schools partially fulfill their requirement to teach Financial Literacy (part of Amended Ohio Senate Bill 311).

The authors located in Extension offices within Hardin, Putnam and Williams Counties were designated to lead other counties in the
region to cover the broad area of Northwest Ohio in the execution of this curriculum (Figure 1). Each of these designated counties represented strategic locations within the region to service the southern, central and northern areas respectively. In addition, the college-readiness curriculum has been implemented through the region in collaboration with partnerships developed with local post-secondary institutions including: Owens Community College, Rhodes State College, Ohio State University Lima, Bowling Green University and University of Northwestern Ohio. Each of these partners hosted a College Readiness for Rural Youth event.

Figure 1. Northwest Ohio counties that participated in College Readiness for Rural Youth (shaded areas).
Evaluation Results

A total of 3023 students from 15 counties and 72 schools participated in the College Readiness for Rural Youth Program. There were 1325 male students and 1698 female students surveyed. Students ranged from 7th grade to seniors in high school. Their knowledge levels were measured using a pre and post-test assessment. This assessment used a 3-point Likert scale ranging from 1= know very little to 3= know a lot. Evaluators constructed a simpler 3 point Likert scale measurement that offered three choices rather than five because of the range in audience age. The post-assessment also included questions on the perceived usefulness of the program and a place for write-in comments.

All questions showed an increase in self-reported knowledge with scores ranging from .93 – 1.13 and a mean increase of 1.00 (Figure 2). The students reported the greatest increase in knowledge in the areas of Understanding the College Admission Office and Financial Aid. The areas showing the least amount of change were Choosing a College and Career Goal Setting. It is worth noting however, these two categories
scored the highest in knowledge in the pre-assessment. The participants had developed higher competencies in these areas through other means. The mean score for usefulness of the program was 2.58 on a 3 point scale, and therefore showed a moderately high degree of usefulness. The top categories of responses when asked “what was the most useful part of the program” included: Admission Requirements, Financial Aid and Choosing a College. Areas that the participants listed as information not covered sufficiently included materials that addressed specific schools, programs, or alternatives to traditional college settings.

![Figure 2. College Readiness for Rural Youth pre/post assessment results](image)

Figure 2. College Readiness for Rural Youth pre/post assessment results
Discussion

This program serves as an “on-the-ground” approach to developing the skills and abilities necessary for youth planning to enter post-secondary education to succeed at a higher level. The support and guidance through this bridge program has built the foundation needed to allow for students to envision college opportunity as an attainable goal. The approach is adaptable to fit the needs and demographics of diverse youth groups.

Acknowledgments

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References


Pedagogy of oppression: Reconstruction narratives in Mississippi history text books 1887-1976

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In *Teaching What Really Happened: How to Avoid the Tyranny of Textbooks & Get Students Excited about Doing History*, James Loewen (2010) recounted his surprise in 1969 when black college students in a social science seminar at Tougaloo College described Reconstruction as “that time, right after the Civil War, when African Americans took over the governing of the Southern states including Mississippi, but they were too soon out of slavery, so they messed up, and reigned corruptly, and whites had to take back control of the state governments.” (p. 3). He traced the source of this historical corruption or myth to a Mississippi history textbook that both African American and white students across the state were using at the time in Mississippi for the 9th grade Mississippi history course. Unfortunately this “lost cause myth” (Wilson, 1980) from the dominant southern Reconstruction narrative persists and is not locally situated in time in 1969 or in place.
In *Baptized in Blood: The Religion of the Lost Cause, 1865-1920*

Charles Reagan Wilson (1980) described the lost cause as, “the dream of a cohesive Sothern People with a separate cultural identity” that replaced the dream of a “political nation.” (p. 1). The myth of the lost cause helped to explain the chaos of the post-civil war south. “At the end of the Civil War, Southerners tried to come to terms with defeat, giving rise to the Lost Cause.” (p.7). Wilson explained that the myth of the lost cause predated the Civil War and was used to justify and defend slavery. After the Civil War the myths of the lost cause served to help develop a distinctive southern identity and to maintain the social order specifically racial segregation.

The myth of the lost cause played a role similar to the role of Orientalism as used by Westerners in defining “the East.” According to Edward Said (1979), Orientalism is more of a “set of constraints upon and limitations of thought than it is simply a positive doctrine… we must be prepared to note how in its development and subsequent history orientalism deepened and even hardened the distinction.” (p. 42). As Orientalism limited the range of thoughts and views about the Middle East
and Asia, the myth of the lost cause and southern Reconstruction narratives placed limits and constraints upon the learning and thinking about the Civil War, Reconstruction, and segregation in the South.

One of the success stories of the Reconstruction period in the South was the establishment of public education systems in the South (Boyer, et al., 2011). In an effort to maintain and pass on the existing social order, white southerners used education as a venue to pass on the myth of the lost cause. This included writing textbooks that emphasized themes and issues that promoted the myth (Wilson, 1980). Textbooks have played a prominent role in public education in the United States and the advent of public education and the prominent role of the textbook in schools provided a venue for passing the myth of the lost cause and the dominant southern Reconstruction narrative from generation to generation.

Wilson (1980) described how religion was used as an institutional force to maintain the social order by keeping blacks subordinate to whites through segregation. Like religion, education was used and the venue was textbooks. Southern history textbooks were used as institutional forces to set limits on how people thought about Reconstruction, race, and
segregation. These textbooks helped to create and sustain a mythology of reconstruction that justified segregation and the maintenance of the existing social structure.

Content analysis of ten Mississippi history textbooks identified two major purposes or functions of the Reconstruction narratives: (a) to justify southern white actions as a Righteous Response to Reconstruction and (b) to define others. The Righteous Response to Reconstruction purpose is defined as those narratives that characterize Reconstruction as a period of lawlessness and corruption that has endured for a time, until white, Southern Democrats regained control, restoring legitimacy and good governance. This process of “redemption” or “revolution” was completed with the election of 1875 and the intimidation, impeachment and removal, or forced resignation of black and white Republican elected officials in 1876. This ended the Reconstruction government in Mississippi, resulting in a time of renewal. The Ku Klux Klan and other groups used a variety of methods to suppress the black vote and discourage Republican political activity. These activities included terror and violence to support this Righteous Response to Reconstruction. These efforts are characterized as
legitimate and necessary because of the corruption and lawlessness of the Reconstruction governments. Finally, Mississippi’s response to Reconstruction was misunderstood by the North. The white people of Mississippi were not motivated by race and hatred, but rather were motivated to restore legitimate, efficient, and fair government.

The purpose of defining “the others” justified the Righteous Response to Reconstruction. Many of the actions in response to Reconstruction were anti-democratic, illegal, violent, or otherwise illegitimate. In order to justify these actions it was necessary to define “the others” as outsiders, political adventurers, greedy or ignorant negroes, dupes, traitors, and agitators. In doing so the actions taken by white Democrats that would normally be seen as illegitimate were seen as heroic. In defining “the others” the textbook authors created a contrast between the legitimate leaders (the heroic white Southern gentlemen) and the corrupt and lawless leaders who had usurped power at the end of the Civil War (the ignorant negroes, unscrupulous scalawags, and corrupt carpetbaggers).
Both the Righteous Response to Reconstruction and the definition of “the others” served a further purpose to create a horrific picture of Reconstruction that no sane white person would ever want to experience. In creating this vision of the past, the textbook authors helped to solidify generational support for the existing segregated social order in which blacks could not vote or exercise political power and a social order in which outsiders were not trusted and their motives suspect because of their actions during Reconstruction.
Blending of Social Studies in Digital Age

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Social studies help to explain the world in which we live. Much as science teaches to observe the physical aspects of life, social studies encourage us to open our minds to the many places that are present on this planet. Not only does the social studies curriculum teach physical geography, but as we learn about different places, we also become aware of the many cultural differences and similarities of the world’s populations through the study of sociology and anthropology. In the current digital age, importance of social studies has increased even more as young children are immersed in a very high tech world. However, as their functional technological capabilities evolve, they also need to develop skills for interactive and participatory engagement in online environments. Challenges exist as digital spaces transform the role of traditional mechanisms of adult oversight and supervision in guiding children as citizens within global mediums. A perfect blend of digitization with social studies can be a boon to this modern era. School children today are
bombarded with images, video, sound and other media from a variety of sources including television, radio, the World Wide Web, and even their own cell phones. The current generations of school aged children are consumers of media in unprecedented means and amounts. Digital storytelling in the classroom offers potential for teachers to combine content learning, various discipline-specific processes (revising, editing, inquiry, analysis, etc.) and 21st century skills in student-centered engaging ways.

Social studies make the best attempt at answering "what makes us humans", and this subject includes a breadth of disciplines covering various aspects of living. The inclusion of social studies in education helps students grow up into informed citizens. Knowledge of the sociopolitical and economic conditions of their country and the world, and the knowledge of one's rights and duties as an individual in society, helps students become responsible citizens. Through social studies, they gain knowledge of human behavior and cultural differences that separate individuals from one another. They develop increased levels of acceptance for differences between people, be they social, economic or lifestyle-
related. Social studies aim at creating educated individuals who can be responsible citizens of their nation. Teaching children social studies increases the possibility of their becoming more aware, more responsible as human beings. Teaching them social studies increases chances that they will adhere to ethical and moral values in life. The study of social sciences is necessary, if we want a brighter future for our society.

The true revolution in education can only be achieved via digitization of education so that students can learn at their own speed both within and outside the classroom. Their learning upgrades while they carry on to advantage from fostering, mentorship and direction of their teachers. For this, teachers should also have proper knowledge about how to use the latest digital techniques to teach the students. These techniques should be simple to use and effective to communicate. When all topics that come under social studies would be taught using digital techniques, learning will be more powerful and remaining connected to the computer era, students can gain knowledge of the past and present. And this type of blending should be started from the very beginning of lower classes in the school. The energy, curiosity, and imagination of young children lead them to
action and interaction within their environment from a narrow, unilateral perspective. They live in a family, play in a peer group, and make decisions about how they will relate to other people, what to do in their free time, with whom to play, what books to read, and how to spend money. The larger social world penetrates their lives through television and other media, travel, family, and friends; but young children lack the conceptual base to integrate the new knowledge these experiences bring. They also lack the skills to account for other perspectives in solving problems or to anticipate long-range consequences when making decisions. Internet based education offers the potential of thousands of classes on hundreds of subjects available anytime, at any place, at the convenience of the student. Teachers in traditional models perform as a “sage on the stage”. What new paradigms help create is a “guide on the side” model. These two phrases describe succinctly the difference between teacher-centric classrooms and learner-centric classrooms. In the former, teachers are presumed to be the font of all wisdom and knowledge and transmit it to the brains of their students. Students are seen primarily as empty vessels or passive receptacles waiting to be filled. On the contrary,
the availability of thousands of classes over the Internet enables learners to select their own learning choices from the offerings of many sites, they want, and pursue the outcomes that are important to them. This shift to learner-centric education has already begun. High-quality instructional module available through Internet will enable individuals to access the knowledge as and when they desire to do so.

The social studies are the study of political, economic, cultural, and environmental aspects of societies in the past, present, and future. For elementary school children, as well as for all age groups social studies have several purposes. The social studies equip them with the knowledge and understanding of the past necessary for coping with the present and planning for the future, enable them to understand and participate effectively in their world, and explain their relationship to other people and to social, economic, and political institutions. Social studies can provide students with the skills for productive problem solving and decision making, as well as for assessing issues and making thoughtful value judgments. Above all, the social studies help students to integrate these skills and understandings into a framework for responsible citizen
participation, whether in their play group, the school, the community, or the world.

The digital divide as a catch phrase, denotes the growing rift between nations and societies, even as ICT is making the world more connected and global. The question is who is connected- to whom and for what? It is our task as a teacher, to make sure that everyone becomes a part of a global learning community-one that will defuse the knowledge and instill the values that are crucial to our survival and well being.

It is really important to study the social science in modern times because if the young generation remains void of various social aspects, they cannot become good responsible citizens of their country. Studying social studies helps students figure out their role in society as well as their place in history. By studying the past, students learn how institutions, traditions and ideals change as society modernizes. Education has always been concerned with broader sense of humanity, quality of human life and human excellency. Asian philosophers and religious leaders gave paramount importance to virtues. Confucius taught his disciples the concept of Jen, signifying love, compassion and virtue, supreme moral
achievement and character. Similarly, Buddha sought enlightenment and taught his disciples the four noble truths and the eight-fold/path of virtue. Aristotle has classified values into two kinds: Intellectual and Moral. E described the basic qualities that make a person good are- wisdom, understanding, temperance and prudence. They also learn how cause and effect influence relationships between individuals, groups and nations. As students mature, the study of history gives students the chance to develop their research skills and the ability to think critically. A sense of history gives students good background knowledge as they study other subjects, such as literature. Social studies students learn they are part of a larger societal organization that must have structure in order to operate for the good of all the people in the group. This basic sense of citizenship starts in the primary grades as students work to monitor classroom rules and expands as students study the electoral process, the branches of government and how citizens interact within the laws of a society in more advanced classes. Civic education allows students to analyze foreign governments. Civic lessons cross inter-disciplinary lines and is often a part of geography, history and sociology lessons.
So, the social studies curriculum builds main four capacities in young people: disciplinary knowledge, thinking skills, commitment to democratic values, and citizen participation. It’s very important to have the social studies in the curriculum of students as well as elderly people should have knowledge about the same. Social studies aim at creating educated individuals who can be responsible citizens of their nation. Teaching children social studies increases the possibility of their becoming more aware, more responsible as human beings. Teaching them social studies increases chances that they will adhere to ethical and moral values in life. The study of social sciences is necessary, if we want a brighter future for our society.
Preparing Global Citizens to Lead and Serve: Positive Youth Development in Online Environments

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Need for a Presence

Currently youth are on a "self-guided" tour of the Internet. They are surfing the sites, joining social networks, and helping to chart the course of the power of the ever evolving Internet. As educators we need to develop an online presence that is consistent with our offline classrooms. We can be the mentors in positive youth development (PYD) online. A change in focus must be made to help youth have a positive impact on the online global community just as our classrooms do offline.

As a youth organization, 4-H has identified four essential elements that are necessary in their clubs to create a positive youth development environment. This paper will illustrate how these essential elements...
practiced in an online environment by youth and adults should lead to the same outcomes as if they were practiced in a classroom.

**Belonging**

1. **A positive relationship with a caring adult**
2. **An inclusive environment (encouragement, affirming, belonging)**
3. **A safe environment – physically and emotionally**

Being in an online community allows youth to be valued outside their school or local peer groups. Most teen aged youth are involved in online social networks because it levels the playing field. Here being judged only by what you reveal to others can increase self-esteem. Youth also find a voice to speak out and come together around an important issue whether locally or globally. While Facebook and Twitter offer these types of social tools, they also have the ability to crush confidence in youth because they have not been done in positive environments with appropriate affirming mentorship. It is through close mentorship of peers and caring adults that youth are able to see the choices that lead to being a productive citizen. Research shows that youth can have a positive impact
on the knowledge, attitudes and behaviors of younger children, as well as their same-age peers (Meyer, et.al, 2000).

In online environments, human beings tend to reveal more about themselves than they might in public. This digital world can put introverts and extroverts on the same level, where each person has the opportunity to share. The sharing is not bound by the time limits of a classroom. It is this constant environment that can reinforce the caring environment in the online environment. By vetting youth and caring adult mentors on a local level, the same classroom environment can be reproduced with the same safety features as a face to face meeting. In a positive environment, where youth feel safe, they may share more with each other, which creates a deepening relationship with another individual.

Mastery

4. Opportunity for mastery

5. Engagement in learning

Providing a learning community in a positive online environment provides a sandbox for developing competence in community. Luísa Miranda, Carlos Morais, and Paulo Dias describe the environment in this
way: "the independent nature provided by computer-supported technology favors student-centred teaching, thus enabling reflexive construction of knowledge based on the student’s skills and objectives. Creating a student-centred approach involves providing different students with different options" (Miranda, Morais, Dias, 2008). An online environment is not limited by a specific time of the day and gives the student an expanded set of resources and available teachers. This gives the student learning that is not bound by the geographic boarders or local interest in the content.

If each educator could focus on being an expert in one topical area, and share that in an online classroom, the learning becomes deeper and more meaningful to the youth. If the curriculum moves from books to an online environment, now we have the ability to keep the content current and engaging.

**Independence**

6. **Opportunity to see oneself as an active participant in the future**

7. **Opportunity for self-determination**

An online connection to others can lead to a collaboration and a cooperation of learning. It is through this connection that produces
stronger outcomes through the power of resources. By harnessing student voices beyond just the local level, classrooms would have the ability to connect across geographic, age, and time barriers.

**Generosity**

8. **Opportunity to value and practice service for others**

Personal development helps youth to be able to assess the needs of others, place them above their own, and provide solutions to the complex dimensions of any community problem. Service to others is something that is needed more than ever in today's society.

Lerner indicates that PYD leads to contributing to self, family, community, and, ultimately, a civil society (Lerner & Steinberg, 2008). Through the correct positive incubator, youth can develop an identity that includes generosity as a natural extension.

Online activities that could increase youth connections through service include social networking, crowd computing, knowledge management, content management, discussion boards, blogs, and wikis. Even hardware can help create these connections that lead youth to
service. Cell phones have become mobile computers and while not every youth or adult has a computer, cellphones are ubiquitous.

**Conclusion**

Fostering Positive Youth Development online is an emerging frontier in learning, and youth development. We envision creating the virtual equivalent of a 4-H experience around the young person in which there are: positive and sustained youth and adult interactions; vibrant opportunities to learn; and the capacity to participate and lead in valued, community-based activities. Ultimately, we seek to harness the power of online communities that foster PYD to produce citizens who are engaged, active, and globally connected.

"The challenge to those concerned about dwindling social capital is to embrace the technological and social changes that have brought so much good in recent years, while finding new ways to create social-capital-rich environments for young people in spite of, and ideally because of, these changes" (Putnam, 2000).
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Instructional Strategies to Use with Primary Sources: A Practical Teaching Workshop

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The standards movement calls for students to become more prepared for the challenges of college and career (NCSS, 2013, p. 82). Within the realm of social studies, students must develop skills to analyze and evaluate sources in order to provide evidence to support claims. Historical thinking requires students to be able to read, analyze, and synthesize using “verbal, written, photographic, oral, artifactual accounts” (NCSS, p. 67) to make arguments and claims that answer questions. Social studies instructors must expose students to a variety of sources in order to support development of these skills. The purpose of this workshop is to provide social studies instructors with instructional tools that will enhance instruction using a variety of sources.

This interactive workshop focuses on instructional strategies that support the use and understanding of primary sources. Overall, participants engage in each learning activity, receive handouts with
descriptions and suggested content for each instructional strategy, links to primary sources, and engage in analysis of appropriate use of each instructional strategy.

**Workshop Summary**

The first strategy in this workshop is the *Human Monument*. Participants collaboratively analyze a primary source document and interpret its meaning by posing as a monument representing the meaning of the document. In this workshop, the Preamble to the U. S. Constitution served as the primary source. Participants are divided into groups; each group is assigned a portion of the primary source to analyze and create as a monument. A graphic organizer is provided to record ideas. A plaque is also created that includes a title and gives pertinent information about the primary source. Each group in turn poses as a monument that represents the ideas in the selected portion of the primary source.

Second, participants used the *Archives and Appraisal* strategy to analyze primary sources related to the subject of Slavery in the United States. First, the concepts of monetary value and historical value are discussed. Participants are then asked to sort a variety of primary sources,
noting reasons to keep in the archival collection and reasons not to keep in the archive. These ideas are listed on the graphic organizer that is provided. Next, participants debate and negotiate with each other to come to an agreement on the collection of primary sources. Last, they design a museum exhibit of the sources, including a title for the exhibit and information signs for each item.

Third, in the *Come Alive!* strategy (TCI, 2005), participants analyze a primary source and interpret its meaning. The image is projected on a display screen. Time is given for analysis of the primary source and planning the skit. Analysis is recorded on the graphic organizer provided in this workshop. Participants pose in front of the projected image and ‘come alive’ on cue to present a point of view represented in the selected image. The ‘magic paper’ can be used to highlight key or relevant features. Participants also create a plaque that should include a title and brief description of the significance of the primary source.

Fourth, participants explore the topic of Puritans and Religious Freedom using the *Carousel* strategy. The Carousel strategy is a collaborative problem-solving strategy that allows students to investigate a
The participants in this workshop have rotated through each station, they debrief about the experience and the process of the strategy.

Fifth, resources from the National Archives are used to analyze written documents and photos. The Photo Analysis Worksheet presents an organized way to identify the images, make inferences, and pose questions. In addition, a photo mask is used to divide the photo primary source into quadrants to focus on specific details. The Written Document Analysis Worksheet provides a place to record identifying characteristics of each document. These worksheets are appropriate for use in K-12 classrooms, as well as for any researcher. In this workshop, a variety of primary photo and written documents were analyzed to give participants experience working with these analysis tools.

**Resources**

career, and civic life (C3) framework for social studies state standards. NCSS, Silver Spring, MD.


**Primary Sources**

- Primary sources for topic of Slavery:
  
  o Images advertising slave auctions
    
    [http://www.johnhorse.com/imgszz/ad1840zz.jpg] and
    [http://www.historyonthenet.com/Slave_Trade/images/advert.jpg]
  
  
  o Bill of sale for two slaves
    
    [http://www.virginiamemory.com/docs/01-25-1854-0308111_01.jpg]
  
Photo of people who are shackled together
[http://i675.photobucket.com/albums/vv111/bigdeals/IMG_5320.jpg]

Photo of former slave showing scarred back
[http://yeyeolade.files.wordpress.com/2011/02/gordon_lg.jpg]


Drawing of the hold of a slave ship

Map of US showing slave and free states
[http://www.learner.org/biographyofamerica/prog10/maps/images/map_10_a.gif]

Image of a slave badge [http://thecharlestonfilm.org/images/slave-badge.jpg]
Primary Source for American Way of Life:

- Louisville Flood, 1937 by Margaret Burke-White
  - Source: http://www.smartwomeninvest.com/peoplepics.htm

Primary sources for topic Puritans and Religious Freedom:

- Image of the signing of the Mayflower Compact
  - [http://s3.amazonaws.com/rapgenius/1349756681_SigningMayflowerCompact11.jpg]
- Image of Mayflower Compact document
  - Source: Indiana Society of Mayflower Descendants
- Image of Puritans praying
  - [http://4.bp.blogspot.com/_eUPjYtlmwQY/RgH21oKaUFI/AAAAAAAAMg/R5zwtQJFBt4/s320/puritans.jpeg]
- Image of person in pillory or stocks
  - [http://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/en/7/7e/Pillory-stocks.jpg]
- Image of Ducking Chair
o http://www.secretshropshire.org.uk/Content/Images/00014950a.jpg

o Images of witch trials


o Image of Martha Corey’s headstone

o http://ts4.mm.bing.net/th?id=HN.607998744449125284&w=260&h=178&c=7&rs=1&pid=1.7

Photo Analysis Worksheet and Written Document Analysis Worksheet:

www.archives.gov (available as either pdf or html document)

Images from National Archives:

Valley Forge-Washington & Lafayette  ARC Identifier 532877

Benjamin Franklin at the Court of France  ARC Identifier 518217

Treaty of Paris page 1  ARC Identifier 299805
Junior Achievement in Middle Level Education

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Junior Achievement is an international non-profit that creates free curriculum materials to promote economics, financial literacy, and entrepreneurship skills for elementary, middle school, and high school students. This study addresses a gap in the literature by examining the role of the Junior Achievement program on United States teacher education students’ self-efficacy for teaching. At a southwestern United States university, 19 middle level teacher education students (math education, English education, science education, and social studies education) completed a survey that examined their experiences teaching a Junior Achievement unit with a partner at the local schools. As a result of teaching the Junior Achievement lessons, 79% of the students reported that their self-efficacy for teaching had increased. In addition, 84% of the students felt that the curriculum materials were very helpful. Furthermore, co-teaching with a partner led 58% feeling less nervous and 21% feeling more comfortable about teaching. For beginning teachers, Junior
Achievement can be a useful resource to guide their entry into the teaching profession.
“History’s Actually Become Important Again.” Early Perspectives on History Instruction in the Common Core.

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Early attention to the implementation of Common Core State Standards (CCSS) has been primarily focused on the impact of the standards on English/Language Arts. Less attention has been paid to how CCSS implementation and anchor standards for reading and writing in history/social studies will potentially affect instruction in history classrooms. This issue is particularly acute in California, as recent changes to the state’s standards-based testing scheme appear to mean that any history/social studies testing with meaningful stakes for school districts will only occur as the expository text component of the English/language arts exam. Thus, as school districts prepare to implement CCSS, they must wrestle with how history instruction will respond to the addition of reading and writing standards to existing state standards. They must also negotiate to what degree history classes will provide support to English classes with regard to reading and writing about expository text.
My initial research is from the first phase of a larger study that examines the ways in which school districts determine what historical knowledge is included in the curriculum and how the implementation of Common Core shapes that knowledge. I draw from Spillane’s (1998) cognitive perspective on standards implementation, and view standards implementation as a product of the unique circumstances within a given educational agency, including perspectives the agency has on what standards mean, existing conceptions about what it means to learn a subject, and the capabilities of students in a given school or district. Research demonstrates that standards are often interpreted according to local perspectives or ideas of education and implementation may vary based on the social class and ethnic background of students (Anyon, 1981; Diamond, Randolph, & Spillane, 2004; Hill, 2001; Placier, Walker, & Foster, 2002; Smagorinsky & Taxel, 2005; Spillane, 2004).
In interviews with county and district-level administrators in California’s Del Sur County\(^1\), a county in inland Southern California with a predominantly Hispanic student population and relatively high levels of poverty, I have found much the same pattern with regard to varying interpretations of the same standards. As administrators prepare school and district personnel to implement CCSS anchor standards in reading and writing in history classrooms, the guidance county administrators give to schools and districts transmits different messages concerning what is important about history education.

In interviews, administrators in the Del Sur County Office of Education universally expressed joy at the possibility that history education will again be meaningful. Their understandings of what meaning history instruction would have, however, were grounded in their understandings of the purpose and possibilities of the CCSS. Comments from the Del Sur County administrator in charge of history/social studies, Andrew Miller, were filled with praise for the potential the CCSS might have to reinvigorate history/social studies education. He remarked,

\(^1\) All names of people and places are pseudonyms.
“[w]ith common core, history’s actually become important again.” His statement was based on the potential to focus on in-depth teaching instead of mere coverage. Miller also positioned the CCSS as being in dialog with the nascent College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework in history, stating that following the C3 inquiry arc, “the learning is coming from you [the student] rather than just from somebody downloading information to you telling you what to think about that.” Citing work by the Stanford History Education Group (cf. Wineburg, et al., 2013), Miller suggested that gathering evidence from a text, sourcing and corroborating information, and close reading of a text – all called for in the CCSS literacy anchor standards – would support students in being able to “read like a historian.”

Miller’s view of the role of the CCSS in the history/social studies classroom was not shared by all of his colleagues at the county level. The Del Sur County administrator who had assumed the lead role in CCSS rollout, Marcy Baylor, had a different perspective on implementation. For Baylor, the history classroom is important to CCSS implementation because both science and social studies will be “very, very vital” to
English-Language Arts test scores. Whereas for Miller the CCSS act as a vehicle through which English standards can help support effective history instruction, for Baylor, the opposite is true: history provides the support for English. Baylor stressed the importance of history classes specifically as sites for instruction on non-fiction texts and explained that the focus of many English classes will be based in literature. Further, Baylor’s view of the role of reading and writing in history classrooms was reflected in the idea of content as a set of facts that students should know and that a student’s demonstration of having learned those facts would come through his/her writing.

My early research suggests that the implementation of CCSS in English may represent a sea change for history instruction in California. Specifically, in some localities the study of history may shift in a way that privileges English/language arts objectives over historical understanding. This change could come about because of local priorities surrounding the teaching of English/language arts and the perspectives held by those implementing the standards.


Spillane, J. P. (1998). A cognitive perspective on the role of the local educational agency in implementing instructional policy:


Learning to Collaborate: Exploring Collective and Individual Outcomes of Special and General Educators

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**Objectives/Purposes**

One of the foremost challenges of teacher education is providing authentic experiences for teachers entering into a high stakes testing environment while promoting the idea of the classroom as a place of possibility, creativity, and transformation for students of all abilities (Levine, 2009). Pugach and Blanton (2009) present that teacher education has the potential to create such opportunities where general and special educators collaboratively explore and define a transformative classroom for every child.
Prospective teachers, therefore, might be well served to participate in activities imbued with teacher collaboration as the framework to realize the power collaboration can have on the achievement of diverse learners (Kochhlar-Bryant, 2008; McLeskey, Rosenberg & Westling, 2013). In this paper, we present an analysis of student outcomes from the first administration of an innovative co-taught course fundamentally designed around teaching collaboration within a teacher preparation program that, theretofore, had not embraced cross-programmatic collaboration in any systematic way. This course enjoined secondary history/social studies and special education teacher candidates with the specific primary objective to teach and learn the meaning of and means to collaborate in secondary education settings.

Framework and Review of Relevant Literature

Directives of recent educational policy at the federal and state levels have increased the necessity for teachers to be well prepared to educate classrooms of diverse learners (Appleby, Adler & Flihan, 2007; Nevin, Thousand & Villa, 2009; Pugach, Blanton & Correa, 2011), and collaboration is viewed as an educational approach integral to meeting the
needs of all students (Arthaud, Aram, Breck, Doelling & Bushrow, 2007). To date, however, although the literature contains some program description, little is addressed about student outcomes when combining prospective general and special educators in such programs (Scruggs, Mastropieri, & McDuffie, 2007). The purpose of this research was to examine how students in the first administration of a co-taught course of general and special educators affected their conception and perception of collaboration as a means to address the needs of all learners in their future classrooms. Specifically, the research directives were to examine:

- how students in a co-taught course on collaboration perceived their own learning about the collaborative process and their role in effective collaboration, and
- whether students in this course changed how they defined and explained collaboration between general and special educators.

**Modes of Inquiry**

This study describes the student outcomes of a teacher education course that enjoined twelve secondary history and fifteen special education teacher candidates to address effective collaboration for diverse
learners in secondary education settings. On all but three occasions, the class sessions were held in the same classroom with all students and both instructors co-teaching in some form. The construction of the course and all class assignments were done purposefully to encourage collaborative practice as well as the exploration of what it means to be a collaborative teacher. Several assignments were designed around the formation of groups, which included members from both secondary and special education. These assignments included interviewing practicing educators about their experiences with collaboration and students with diverse learning needs, designing a unit or a website that demonstrated collaborative strategies, and multiple in-class collaborative practice opportunities.

**Data Collection**

The researchers used five main data sources to assess student outcomes. The first source was a questionnaire administered to students at the beginning and the end of the course. Other data sources included (a) student and instructor journals, (b) classroom observations, (c) course evaluations, and (d) student artifacts.
Findings

We noted two significant changes across pre/post-course responses for the class. First, the post-course responses indicated a shift from considering only their own point of view about collaboration to that of their collaborators. For example, when first asked how they would react to being assigned to co-teach, student responses included various, but cursory statements including: “Optimism”, “Excitement”, “Acceptance”, “Oh, really”, “Hesitant”, “A little more notice would be nice”, “I am pleased”, “Phew!”, and “Awesome”. In post-course responses, students illustrated more introspection and thoughtful replies including: “Great! I hope my co-teacher is open to collaboration”, “Will he/she have a similar teaching style?” “Ok. Who is it and how much prep time do we have?”, “I hope this teacher pulls his/her weight. Great!”, “I hope the special education teacher is interested in and motivated to collaborate.”

Second, when asked what would make collaboration work, pre-course responses included a broad spectrum of ideas such as: “Being actively engaged and devoted to making it work”, “Trust. Patience. Positive. Accountability”, “Determining the other teacher’s experience...”
with teaching and established lessons for the content and sharing mine”. Post-course responses focused almost exclusively on the power and elemental need for effective communication. Responses included: “Communication and honesty, being flexible and open”, “Communication that is open, honest, and respectful”, “Communication, getting to know each other”, “Active listening”, “Open dialogue.”

Our preliminary analysis also found a fear of having to work with someone who is not interested in or not good at collaboration. Responses related to this theme were in both pre- and post-course surveys, including “Oh, my. I hope she is not like all the negative persons…. I hope this teacher pulls his/her weight. What do you do when/if collaboration is impairing the classroom environment? Low tolerance for people who aren’t willing to compromise or who have really dominating personalities.”

**Discussion**

At the conclusion of this project, we saw an increased level of detail in which these students were able to talk about collaboration. Further, we noted clear connections between course content and student
responses. Students could articulate the fundamental elements to effective collaboration through engaging in course content. We continue to believe, however, that collaboration between general and special educators is so fundamental to effective instruction of diverse learners that the knowledge and skills of collaboration must be deeply embedded into teacher education programs. We look forward to further analyzing how subsequent administrations of this course affect our responses to our research questions and, in turn, allow us to contribute to the growing research areas of teacher education as it informs collaboration in K-12 settings.

References


Choosing to Break the Bubble: P-12 Teachers, Curricular Development and the Modern Civil Rights Movement

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Objectives/Purposes  
This study attempted to answer the following three questions: What choices do practicing and pre-service teachers make with regards to selecting and discarding images when creating a unit about the history of oppressed people? What explanations do they offer for these choices? What historical narratives do teachers’ choices reveal? In order to answer them, we asked sixty-two K-12 pre-service and practicing social studies teachers to select and discard images from a bank of famous and lesser-known photographs for a hypothetical social studies unit focused on the U.S. Civil Rights Movement (CRM).

Theoretical Framework
We used two theoretical frames to guide this study. First, we explored literature related to how social and cultural interpretations of content affect individual teachers’ curricular decision making (Feiman-Nemser, 2008) with the assumption that:

The teaching of history, like all aspects of historical study, involves choice and selection: One cannot avoid choices, one cannot simply ‘include more.’…The criteria for choices of inclusion can themselves be made explicit and become the subject of teachers’ and students’ discussions (Stearns, Seixas, & Wineburg, 2000, p. 7).

We also relied upon McCutcheon’s (1995) idea of solo deliberation as the process by which teachers negotiate ideas and values consequential to curriculum development. McCutcheon advocated explicating these deliberative processes in curricular decision-making through experiences in teacher preparation programs in which teacher candidates are given the opportunity to make decisions and reflect on their choices.

Secondly, we wanted to know what choices teachers made regarding the histories of oppressed people. Using Iris Marion Young’s
(1990) “five faces of oppression,” we identified history related to the CRM as an example of people experiencing and fighting against all forms of oppression (as well as an example of people perpetuating it). In the long tradition of multicultural education, we assume that an increasingly diverse student body demands a Culturally Relevant Pedagogy (CRP) (Ladson-Billings, 1995) that “teaches to and through the strengths of ethnically diverse students” (Gay, 2000, p.29) with intentional inclusion of content that represents a multicultural society. This approach to education demands a critical analysis of race and racism rooted in Critical Race Theory (CRT), which takes as normal the “permeating thread of racism in the fabric of American life” (Brown-Jeffy & Cooper, 2011, p.79). We grounded our study in the idea that teachers—especially White teachers in multiracial schools (Howard, 2006)—must consciously reflect on their curricular choices related to content that addresses race and racism in United States history.

**Methods**

Designing the project included carefully selecting twenty-five photos representing a range of possible narratives of the CRM. We
included images that were iconic and unfamiliar, local and remote, more recent and more historic, and candid shots as well as planned portraits. In an effort to develop captions that were as neutral as possible, we field-tested the language of these captions with doctoral students before giving participants the photo packets.

The participants included 22 elementary preservice teachers and 17 preservice secondary social studies teachers in a mid-Atlantic university; and 23 in-service K-12 teachers participating in a Teaching American History (TAH) grant in the deep South. In each cohort, teachers were asked to imagine designing a unit for teaching the Civil Rights Movement. They were offered the 25 primary source photographs to use in constructing the unit. Their task was to select five photos, discard five photos, to identify which photos were most challenging or easy to discard, and to offer rationales for their choices. Participants’ written reflections were collected and class discussions recorded and transcribed. Data from each cohort were first analyzed separately in terms of frequency of image selection, rejection, and debate as well as a textual analysis of reasons
given for selecting, rejecting, or debating images. Data across all three cohorts were subsequently examined using those emergent codes.

Findings

Respectively, the three photographs (see Figures 1-3) that provoked the most attention for inclusion, discarding, and debate were a picture of Ruby Bridges exiting her elementary school (53% included it), an enslaved man with visible scars on his back (53% discarded it), and President Obama speaking behind a podium (27% included it, 35% discarded it). Participants included the picture of Bridges because it was deemed “relatable” and provided insight into the danger of daily life for African Americans, discarded the picture of the man with scars because it was deemed “irrelevant” to the CRM and/or too graphic, and debated about the picture of Obama because it represented an important milestone of progress but was overly familiar and perceived as outside of the scope of the CRM.

Overall, this study points to two key criteria important to teachers’ curricular choices: relevance and appropriateness. Relevance typically meant having been taken between the years 1950-1970, which suggests a
silo-ization of social studies in which students think of history in units of decades rather than in over-arching themes or connected narrative arcs. Photographs were also “relevant” when they demonstrated people acting in admirable ways with character traits that the participants wanted to model for their students: bravery, perseverance, and non-violence. *Appropriateness* related to whether a photograph was too graphic or not graphic enough – the Goldilocks Rule. Students most often deemed images “age appropriate” that had some kind of provocative image displaying a PG-rated level of violence or graphic imagery. Noticeably absent from participants’ explanations was attention to or discussion of entrenched institutional and interpersonal racism and White supremacy.

**Implications**

This study has implications for the professional development of social studies teachers by revealing what criteria they use to select curricular materials, and what these criteria mean for their understanding of the CRM and other social movements. For teacher educators and curriculum developers, the results from this study highlight the need for teachers to have access to professional development that is attentive to
their deliberative processes and to their understanding of historical oppression. This will help them not only determine if a historical moment was well captured, but what that moment means in the context of a robust, critical study of the past.

Figure 1. First grader Ruby Bridges attending William Frantz Elementary School in New Orleans, LA in 1960. Ruby was a six year old attending this traditionally white elementary school after it had been ordered to desegregate and is seen here with bodyguard escorts ensuring her safety.

Image retrieved from the U.S. Info Photo Gallery
Figure 2. In November 2008, Barack Obama was elected the 44th president of the United States. Image retrieved from the White House Photo Gallery http://www.whitehouse.gov/photos-and-video/photogallery/indiana-town-hall-economic-recovery-2909-0
Figure 3. This image depicts a victim of slavery. Visible are the scars resulting from the physical abuse he has endured.
McPherson & Oliver Collection, Prints and Photographs Division U.S. Library of Congress, LC-USZ62-98515
http://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/89716298/
References


Heritage and Regionalisation in Portugal: Monuments and Community Identity

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The European Union is a transnational conception of space. Within the national spaces, compounding EU, European regions claim their diversity through distinguishing characteristics. In this context, cultural heritage is used to affirm their difference.

Portugal as a nation-state has been considered an exceptional case, where a national space corresponds to a homogeneous culture. However, in the twenty-first century, the globalization and the migration of peoples, commodities and capital across national borders are major challenges to the territorial organization inherited from the eighteenth century, as demonstrated by Cris Shore (2000) and Arjun Appadurai (2004). This globalization raises the awareness of local actors about their cultural particularities. Within this framework, political leaders are debating new regionalization projects in Portugal as well. But the discussion about regionalization in Portugal begins and ends with the usual players: politicians. The political dimension of regionalization is often stark. The
economic dimension, often accompanying the policy, is also commonly referenced. However, the cultural dimension has always been ignored.

The anthropological research conducted by me in the Portuguese region of Leiria shows the prominent place that cultural heritage should play in the regionalization process.

I have been studying the Portuguese region of Leiria called in Portuguese districto, since 2004. This region is located in the center of Portugal, between Lisboa, the capital, and Oporto, the second largest Portuguese city. This regional division, extinguished by the current Portuguese government was the basis of this study. It has an area of approximately 3.500 km2 and about 470.000 inhabitants.
Leiria region (*distrito*) in Portugal

My aim is to understand its position and statement as a regional community, both in the Portuguese context, and in the European context. The assertion of a regional territory is a constant in the discourses of the Leiriense regional leaders. However, the arguments used to defend the region are a matter of lively debate. Thus, the monumental heritage - highlighting the Alcobaca and Batalha monasteries - is assumed to be a key element in this process of the regional identity objectification. Since these monuments had been previously assigned a symbolic role at the
national and the European levels, regional politicians and intellectuals are
now complaining for the transference of feelings of belonging constructed
through these monuments, to the region.

Studies of the international and national social scientists, such as
2002a, 2002b) Eva Blum (2008) or João de Pina Cabral (1991) have in
common the analysis of the claiming process of the cultural property
ownership. Their intention is to assert local communities in the global
space. Considering the Portuguese case, some of the most Portuguese
cultural heritage is located in Leiria region. Monuments like the Alcobaça
or Batalha monasteries have been used to build the idea of Portugal as a
nation since the eighteenth century. Currently, regional leaders use other
cultural heritage like medieval castles, monasteries, churches and other
monuments as devices for the creation of a region and its self-assertion in
Portugal and in Europe.

The regional monumentalization of memory devices is a concern
of the Leiria regional leaders. According to them, the particularity of the
Portuguese monuments is essential for the transnational assertion of the
country and their regions, As in other contexts, like Spain (Méndez, 2003; 2004; Medeiros, 2006) these authors wish to assert the region in Europe and in the world through its monuments.

Leiria as a region reflects some features once compared with other contexts, such as Galician: it is not an administrative region but exists only in a discursive way. It does not have its own language and the regional feeling of belonging is always subordinated to the national one. The regional discourse is more intense when discussions of the country's decentralization are organized. In this context, heritage is used as an integrating factor of the sense of common belonging, allowing the individual to identify with the community (Lamy, 1996a; 1996b). Some regional leaders (Gomes; 1990; 1997; 2004; 2007), in defending the existence of an administrative Leiria region, are trying to reclaim the monuments that have been used to build the discourses of national community, assigning new languages to the monuments located in the region.

The monuments ownership signifies the achievement of regional differences within national boundaries, but also represents difference on
the global stage. In the twenty-first century, the Leiria region’s self-definition is operated through the national, European and world spaces.

The monumental heritage of the Leiria region, and its use for the production of discourses about this community, has apparently contradictory challenges. If these heritage can contribute to the regional affirmation, they are also submerged in the most powerful national and global spaces. The national classification of monuments located in the Leiria region transformed them into metaphors of the national community (Magalhães, 2012).

Nowadays, when we use heritage as an instrument to build the belonging feelings to the community, the sense of national identity often seems to overlap with regional identity. Some national historians (Mattoso, 1995) do not accept the thesis that the national monuments located in the region could be used to build feelings of belonging to the Leiriense region. In the first regional congress (Congress for the Leiria and Alta Estremadura Development), this historian removes from the region a significant part of the heritage situated therein stating that here (Alta Extremadura) lie some of the most famous Portuguese monuments, from
various religious and cultural sectors representing whole the country (Mattoso, 1995: 46).

If all of these great monuments are the nation's heritage, then what is left for the region? From the perspective of these cultural leaders almost nothing is left for the Leiria region. The author illustrates his ideas, asserting that opposed to a remarkable monument like Alcobaça, the region's cultural life remains at a modest or even mediocre level (Mattoso, 1995: 49).

What is under discussion, relative to the Leiria region, is not so much the existence of a regional culture materialized in magnificent monuments, but the diverse notions of cultural heritage as well as the relations of power and domination within different societies.

**Conclusion**

The national communities’ building process had, at their base, the recourse to the high and elitist notions of culture. In this sense, nations were culturally imagined by their great achievements. Foundation of imposing public museums, the discursive appropriation of the grandest architectural monuments, promotion of outstanding painters and classical
music served as a metaphor for the national community’s greatness, for nearly 200 years (Duncan, 1991; Méndez, 2004; Magalhães, 2005). In this perspective, and according to the historian Saul António Gomes, the excessive national and international role assigned to these monuments, particularly those classified as world heritage sites, removed them from their region: Leiria (Gomes 2007: 22-24). While monuments served the national territory’s building ideals as elements of the nation's memory, the role that they could play in the affirmation of regionalism became less visible and more weakened.

References


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Knowing the ROPES: Building Community and Citizenship Dispositions

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The NCSS Standard #10: Civic Ideals and Practices features questions such as: What is the role of the citizen in a community? What is civic participation? How can I be involved? How can I make a positive difference? Deliberately or not, groups develop roles, norms, values, and sanctions to guide and control the behavior of the individuals and groups within the community. Thoughtful, overt agreement about behaviors can strengthen the common good. Establishing participation norms collaboratively is an aspect of building a supportive environment. In education settings, learning can be positively influenced by a classroom climate that honors what individuals know and how they act. Honoring the community-building process helps create buy-in because all ideas are considered carefully. The ROPES compact develops through sets of idea generation and collaborative dialogue. The compacts can be reviewed for
suitability in longer standing groups. Teachers and students can apply the ROPES to a range of behaviors and interactions. These include setting classroom expectations, learning how to balance the needs of individuals and the collective, and offering practice for civic participation.
Relevance of Social Studies and Digital Era

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Social studies refer to a scientific study that involves how people live and organize themselves in society by embracing different disciplines such as history, government, economics, sociology, politics, geography and anthropology. The world is ever changing and the way students experience social studies should reflect the environment in which they live and learn. Digital social studies explore research, effective teaching strategies and technologies for social studies practice in the digital age. The digital age of education is more prominent than ever and it is an appropriate time to examine the blending of digital age and field of social studies. The technological shift in society has occurred very rapidly, and the field of education is attempting to keep up the pace. Recent advances now allow computer technology to serve many more functions for the social studies classroom than merely accessing information through the Internet. For educators to fully take advantage of the technology available, the technology must be infused more into daily instruction and not used as
a mere appendage during one or two lessons. What is digital social studies? Why do we need it and what is its purpose? What will social studies look like in the future? These are the few main questions of focus in this paper.

The use of technology enhances student education, but more importantly it gives the teacher the opportunity to illustrate these historical events and then let the students take control and guide the lesson into deeper concepts with broader knowledge. Social studies is important in today’s computerized age for a variety of reasons. One of the best reasons to study it is to get an idea of how the rest of the world lives. It helps students learn about past happenings and lets them form their own opinions, which inevitably turn into morals and values. These morals and values will carry on, shaping the choices the students make in the future. By informing students and keeping them open minded, good citizens are created as social studies promotes civic competence. Social studies should be part of the curriculum for the purpose of helping students understand human interactions that occurred in the past, are occurring now, and that are likely to occur in the future. The reason for
these understandings is that they may help students develop and nurture values that will make it more likely that they will be able to determine for any situation what the right thing is and do it, especially when doing the right thing is hard to do. It is about decency, respect, courage and honor. Social Studies is responsible for teaching students the citizenship skills that are required as people living in a democracy. Educating students on the importance of citizen involvement is the first step in creating a better society. Learning about citizenship includes topics like voting, volunteering, and being politically active. In history classes students also learn about the background on current issues, like health care, so that they can make more informed decisions when they enter society as adults.

Importance of digitization in social studies and social studies in digitization goes hand in hand. As through the computer, students may gain access to expansive knowledge links and broaden their exposure to diverse people and perspectives; hence, affording students the opportunity to become active participants in an increasingly global and interactive world. We need a digital platform to impart social studies among students at different levels and on the same time should not completely drown in
the technology so deep that we forget about humanities, our history, geographical environment and other various arts that help to shape us as a well-mannered citizen.

Understanding of social studies is important for each and every person in the society irrespective of age. Whether it is psychology, history, or geography, human interaction is the foundation of social studies. Understanding how humans interact is an important aspect of understanding life as a whole. A social studies education is responsible for teaching students about how people live in all parts of the world. This knowledge enables students to have better relationships with their peers who may be from a different cultural or ethnic background than they are. A better understanding of different cultures will also help students see current events from a global perspective. The most important reason is that studying social studies can help young people sort out their lives a bit, grasp important ideals and define who they are as people.

When technology and understanding of the world comes together, a great combination is formed. Remaining technologically advanced and
on the same time having proper knowledge of our history, geography and civics, makes us a completely groomed citizen.

When these techniques will be involved in the process of teaching, learning and educating, anything that is taught will become more meaningful and effective. Teaching social studies through these methods would be much easier to explain by teachers to the students and easier to understand by students. By framing interactive sites, teachers can tell about the history of the country and world, by including pictures, images, graphs geography can be taught easily to the students and by framing interactive projects, students can be involved in overall personality development projects.

It is the need of time to make people aware of different subjects through social studies as they are somewhat losing the interest in basic and important aspects. Many students spend hours every day watching television, which is bombarding them with a multitude of images and ideas. Social studies teach students how to understand the information that they are constantly receiving. Social studies teachers explain to students how to think, rather than what to think. Teachers’ present information and
students then have to decide how they feel or what their own personal interpretation is.

Coupling together the social science and digital humanities methods would give a good start in studying, social computing and its relevance in the field of social studies. Social Science methodology focuses on social structures but increasingly needs to analyze online discourse to do so. Reciprocally, the digital humanities focus on discourse, including online discourse but increasingly require social modeling to understand what is happening.

So, we found that there is an intense relationship between social studies and digitization. It is very important to impart social studies to modern generation in this digital age so that they should not forget the basic values of life and to help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world.
Preservice Social Studies Teachers’ Conceptions of and Experiences with Discussion as a Pedagogical Tool

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Introduction

Extensive research has shown the positive impact of having students participate in discussion in the classroom (Hess, 2004; Parker, 2003). More specifically, a recent longitudinal study found that students who participate in discussion were more likely to vote in national, state, and local elections, engage in productive discourse with other citizens, support basic democratic values, and have confidence in their ability to influence the democratic process (Barton & McCully, 2007). Additionally, scholars have continuously found that discussion encourages students to interact with those who have varying perspectives and educate them on how to socialize in a progressively more pluralist society (Banks, 1993; Gutmann, 1999; Hess & Posselt, 2001). Therefore, it is essential that teacher education programs throughout the United States not only teach students why it is important to integrate discussion into their classrooms, but also how they can do so through purposeful modeling of proven
strategies and techniques.

**Purpose and Data Collection**

For that reason, this research analyzed how 12 preservice social studies teachers enrolled in a junior level social studies methods course in the fall of 2013 conceptualized discussion as a pedagogical tool. Further, the research sought to discover participants’ experiences with discussion both at the secondary and college-level and how such experiences impacted their beliefs toward teaching the social studies. Therefore, the research questions driving this study included:

A) How do preservice social studies teachers at a large southeastern university conceptualize the use of discussion in the secondary classroom? And,

B) How do the classroom experiences of preservice social studies teachers impact their intentions for integrating discussion into their own classrooms?

C) Do the lessons developed by preservice teachers align with their stated aims and intentions for the classroom emphasized in their teaching rationales?

**Data Collection**
Data collected included interviews, rationales, lesson plans, reflections on teaching, and field observations taken during class sessions. Convenience sampling was used since the researcher served as the instructor for the participants and had direct access to the aforementioned data (additionally, the researcher was able to collect informal data through discussions both in and out of the classroom). Finally, the case study approach was used in an attempt to gain a strong understanding of the participants’ conceptions of and experiences with discussion. This method allows the research to use open-coding to find key themes in the data (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2009). Further, after the data was collected, the researcher analyzed and triangulated the data to find themes both among individual students and the 12 participants who served in the research as a whole.

**Results and Implications**

Preliminary data shows that while most teacher educators emphasize the necessity for discussion in literature, rarely are explicit strategies modeled in methods courses to assist preservice teachers in developing the ability to foster discussion in their own classrooms.
Further, the data also demonstrates the fact that discussion is rarely integrated into college students’ general education courses. In this sense, preservice teachers traditionally experience four-years of serving as passive receptacles of knowledge and theory. When asked what methods or strategies are most often used in their coursework, students are not hesitant to emphasize how much lecture they experience at the university level.

And this is troubling for a variety of reasons. For one, preservice teachers often do not feel prepared to foster discussion amongst their students despite an implicit knowledge that having students discuss content is beneficial, if not essential for citizenship education. This was seen in multiple comments during preliminary interviews with participants who stressed their interest in using discussion as a pedagogical tool, but questioned their ability and feared the potential issues that may arise. Additionally, many of the lesson plans submitted by the participants were in direct contrast to the teaching rationales developed, which emphasized a student-centered climate and emphasized the need for discussion and limited lecture. Such lessons were in direct opposition of their stated aims.
of education in which broad theories of social justice, democracy, and equality underlined much of the data.

Further, there is an array of research demonstrating that preservice teachers are influenced more by how they are taught than the theories and methods they are taught in their teacher education programs (Crowe, Hawley, & Brook, 2012; Powell, 1992). Though not the sole reason for the often teacher-centered instruction that occurs in the social studies classroom, the strategies that preservice teachers both experience and witness will play a key role in the pedagogical methods they will use once they enter upon the classroom. It is for that reason that teacher educators must be cognizant of how the methods and strategies that they use will directly impact their preservice teachers’ pedagogy. Further, what teacher educators promote is often overshadowed by how they teach this material.

**Relevance to ISSS and Presenter Intentions**

Therefore, this presentation will seek to inform participants in the session about what the literature says regarding discussion in the classroom. It will then transition into an analysis of the data collected from the 12 preservice teachers and, finally, will provide implications for
teacher educators. Ultimately, the presentation will seek to encourage educators both at the secondary and post-secondary level about the necessity for modeling and integrating effective practices of discourse and dialogue into the social studies classes. In that sense, the presentation will appeal to a wide audience of social studies educators at both the university and secondary level who are seeking to improve their pedagogical strategies and better prepare either themselves or their preservice teachers to integrate discussion into their practice.
Social Justice in Social Studies Teacher Education: What is our Message?

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**Objective**

Do the designs of educational structures influence the likelihood of academic and social success for marginalized students? To us, the answer appears to be “yes,” because the structures and practices in education too often fail to meet students’ needs in culturally responsive ways. In the context of teaching and learning for life in a democracy, modern education institutions and structures do not, and historically have not, adequately supported psychological and environmental growth of students from marginalized groups. Nor have these institutions and structures achieved
relevance to the cultural traditions and practices of students from marginalized groups (Brosio, 1994; Giroux, 1994; Michelli & Keiser, 2005; Milner, 2012). How students from marginalized groups adjust to the demands created by this disconnect continues to lack a resolution.

Educators must have the capacity to appreciate and accept the variety of perspectives that construct situations and circumstances. Further, teachers must accept and design learning experience cognizant of the idea that students bring with them cultural experiences and backgrounds that may be valuable resources in the classroom. If, as educators, we fail to accept and put these experiences to use we are doing a disservice to our students; further, if we as educators force students to abandon their cultural backgrounds and experiences all together, in favor of the dominant way of knowing or doing, it is tantamount to educational malpractice. As teacher educators, this requires us to push past analyzing the institutions and structures at work; for us, it is also essential to examine the systemic influence on the people in our schools and communities. In this paper we argue for an explicit effort on the part of teacher educators to engage students in critical analysis of the systems,
structures, and institutions that influence and are perpetuated by the discourses and actions of oppressors and the oppressed. What follows is a conceptual framework for integrating this work into social studies teacher education coursework, namely methods courses, as teacher candidates engage with these texts and tasks in critical ways that intentionally inform teachers’ pedagogical content knowledge and the practice of teaching in schools.

**Conceptual Framework**

Ayers’ claim about the fundamental message of the teacher being that students can change their lives has not fallen on deaf ears. Ayers went on to argue:

To teach consciously for social justice, to teach or social change, adds a complicating element to that fundamental message, making it more layered more dense, more excruciatingly difficult to enact, and at the same time sturdier, more engaging, more powerful and joyful much of the time…Teaching for social justice is teaching that arouses students, engages them in a quest to identify
obstacles to their full humanity, to their freedom, and then
to drive, to move against those obstacles. (Ayers, 1998, p. xvii)

Ayers captured the potential and necessity of teaching for social justice as he identified the value to students and potential to enrich their learning and their lives. The value of this work was highlighted by Barry (2005) when he argued “the potentially revolutionary idea underlying the concept of social justice was that the justice of a society’s institutions could be challenged not merely at the margins but at the core” (p. 5). Recognizing that loud voices exposing these structures and institutions are important, we argue that in addition it is necessary for teachers, as the core of education in America, to have the capacity to work within the current system and work to change the current system. As teacher educators our reading, thinking, and discussion of these ideas has left us with two questions:

- How do teachers come to teach in this way?
• What should we do in teacher education to supporting teacher candidates to these ends within current educational structures?

Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) have questioned the sustainability of the influence of teacher education programs while at the same time strong arguments have been made for teaching against the grain, against the dominant ways of doing things in schools (Cochran-Smith, 2001). It is the spaces in between we have become concerned with in our own teacher education practices and programs. The spaces where the possibility to teach with purpose exists; spaces where teacher candidates can, through precipitous learning experiences, begin to develop a deeper sense of the social, political, and economic constructs at work in the world around them and articulate the implications of those constructs for their own teaching practice. This does not happen in teacher education naturally. The influence of the dominant discourses and structures permeate deep within us and emerge represented by our actions, language, and interaction. Teacher education for social justice, then, requires a deliberate disruption (Britzman, 1991).


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Theoretical Cognitive Principles Applied in the Social Studies Classroom: Procedure of Primary Sources

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Many theoretical critical thinking experts draw on analytics philosophy and logic traditions (Brookfield, 2012.) This entails a number of steps, including asking the right questions, thinking logically, applying critical thinking to moral problems, tying critical thinking to writing, and placing critical thinking within the students’ own lives. Oliver and Shaver (1966) call for a curriculum that exposes their students to the major problems of their era. Teachers should encouraged students to take a personal stance on social and political values. Historical events offer a safe venue for initiating exploration of modern issues. For instance, students can explore modern racial issues by first developing a mock trail event around *Plessy v. Ferguson.* In regards to labor, students can explore the Wagner Act or the Kohler strike. The lesson can end by examining
minimum wage and why citizens were drawn to protest Wall Street or why McDonald’s employees are calling for living ages. According to Weil and Joyce (1966), controversial historical cases allow students to explore conflicting moral, legal, factual, or definitional interpretations.

In Notturno’s view (1998), small groups offer a chance for intellectual discourse. This allows students to test hypotheses and defend their positions. The role of the social studies teacher is invaluable during this process. The social studies teacher must model the critical thinking process for their students. Within their everyday dealings, students are watching the social studies teacher as an adult role model. As models, teachers must provide students with hypothetical examples of social studies concepts and provide rationale for their decisions. Social studies teachers must encourage students to observe root causes. Clarke (1997) offers a number of social questions. As an individual, how do you respond to everyday situations? What if a crime took place in front of you? Would you walk away? Would you call for help? Would you physically intervene? Clarke contends that we must create a disorienting dilemma. A disorienting dilemma, explored sympathetically and courteously, may
be initially uncomfortable, but if the person effectively approaches the study of their experience with curiosity, it may result in powerful and positive modifications. Through this technique, learners will find new perspectives on what they thought concerning their limits of fairness, honestly, justice, and understanding.

**Critical Thinking Activities**

The justice system plays a key role in the foundation of societal norms. Mock trials allow students the opportunity to discuss what constitutes fairness and an understanding of the justice system. Using the ungrounded approach to teaching allows the teacher to create hypothetical legal cases with hypothetical outcomes. The real world application of the mock trial system is that we will all have to be participants in the legal process during our lifetime. Through this critical thinking process, According to Russell, Waters, and Turner (2014), multiple forms of mock trial can be used to complement a lesson in the classroom. For our purposes, we are focusing on hypothetical trials of past events or historical figures. From a critical thinking perspective, the verdict can differ from classroom to classroom; the social studies teacher can guide the students...
to examine poorly constructed logic, because faulty logic can lead to faulty conclusions (Halpern, 1998). As social studies teachers, we should be less concerned with final determination. The main aspect is the cognitive processes that the students undertake. For example, if the students find that the Native American removal during the 19th century was ethical and unavoidable, they must also acknowledge that similar events were appropriate, were unavoidable, and were necessary, for example, that the government under Andrew Jackson acted in accordance to human decency. The evidence must be present for their decisions, but the students must also draw the same conclusions in similar cases. If the students find that legalized genocide is appropriate, they must also admit that other similar events were justified. They would have to accept that during World War II the ethnic cleansing of Jewish people by Hitler was also appropriate. A student may argue that the Native American threat was different from the factors that the Jewish people faced in Europe. The opportunities for these discussions should not be avoided. This provides the framework for observing logical sequences.
Being able to observe logical sequences aids the teacher in the evaluation of critical thinking skills. For example, when student A says, “Finders keepers, losers weepers,” juxtapose the situation with the opposite case. Would student A draw the same conclusion if he lost something of personal value? If he misplaced a valuable family ring, and another student found the family ring would student A still believe in that statement? If the student A says yes, then student A is at least consistent in his logic. However, if student A decides that the family ring should be returned, he has exhibited what is referred to as situational logic. Situational logic occurs when a conventional wisdom suits an individual’s current needs and the individual evokes that conventional wisdom to help justify his/her decision. These types of discussion provide the framework for critical discussions.

Critical discussion essentially involves comparison of two or more theories. Theories become provisionally accepted because they offer greater explanatory power over opponents’ theories. Theories lose credibility through inconsistency, including inconsistency with the results of empirical tests (Popper, 1959, p. 160). According to Popper, human
evaluations differ from scientific evaluation. As social studies teachers, we must encourage dialog between opposing perspectives.

References


The History of the Handshake: Its Place in the Classroom in the Digital Age

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Introduction

If you could shake hands with anyone in the world, then whom would you select? Many people answer this question with the name of someone that is personally special or famously renowned – important people. Handshakes are important. This simple act should not be left behind as information and technology move ahead in a digital age.

Why Shake Hands in the Classroom

Technology is certainly on the list of items that came together around the turn of the twenty-first century to create the Information Age, commonly referred to as the Digital Age (Castells, 2011). In today’s world of business, Jim Collins’ famous research on 10X companies has yielded many findings about how companies’ performance has gone from good to great. One of the findings suggests companies that made the transition from good to great adopted technology after company transformation occurred (Collins, 2001). This seems counterintuitive to
the commonly accepted notion that new technologies drive the new economy. However, similar findings in today’s world of education may validate this point. In Amanda Ripley’s close look at three worldwide leading educational systems, the countries (Finland, South Korea, and Poland) are not in front because they lead with technology (Ripley, 2013). So if technology is not leading the way in today’s worlds of business and education, then what is? Focusing on the world of education, the answer may be found in works like Stephen Covey’s (2009) *The Leader in Me* and Paul Tough’s (2012) *How Children Succeed*. Both posit that soft skills lead the way for effectiveness and success, even in a tech-savvy society. These soft skills have a host of synonyms: non-cognitive skills, meta-cognitive skills, social emotional learning, and character traits. One of these soft skills, the handshake, might soon become a way of the past as more people communicate digitally. However, the handshake is a powerful soft skill and its use should perpetuate in the classroom.

**How to Shake Hands in the Classroom**

**The History and the Myths**
The history of the handshake is extended and controversial. This controversy stems from its roots predating written history. A snapshot of the handshake’s history will follow. The ancient Egyptians have the earliest known origins of the handshake. Around the 12th century BC, Egyptian kings clasped the hand of a statue of Marduk (creator god) during their New Year’s festival so authority was transferred from one year to the next (Black, 1981). In addition, the Egyptian hieroglyphic of the extended hand represents the verb, ‘to give’. Next, funerary stele from 4th and 5th century BC depicts a Greek husband and wife as well as two Greek soldiers clasping hands in a display of peace (Antikensammlung Berlin). Then, evidence became unclear. It can be considered a myth that the Middle Ages’ explanation of handshaking is for the purpose of displaying the non-concealment of weapons. Validation is lacking due to absence of records or examples of this commonly accepted handshake origin (Brasch, 1966). After, Sir Walter Raleigh is credited by historians for introducing the Western World to the handshake as it was used to seal agreement to release captives (Marler, 2012). Finally, the history of the
handshake has evolved from a transfer of power, to an exchange of peace, to a seal of agreement.

**The Digital Age**

The history of the handshake can be described as an evolution rather than a metamorphosis because each new form contains shape of the old. The handshake in today’s world involves aspects of power, peace, and agreement. Encompassing all three, trust is cited as the number one reason for hands to clasp in modern day business (Shapiro, Sheppard, & Cheraskin, 1992).

**The Act of Handshaking**

The widely accepted etiquette of Emily Post states that the handshake is currently an accepted form of greeting. Emily Post and others describe a “just right” handshake. The participants should stand not too close but not too far away, look the other in the eyes, clasp right hands not too firmly but not too loosely, shake up and down a few times, and exchange verbal greetings. Many variations exist due to differing cultural customs (Post, 2007).
What Next Steps are for Implementing Handshaking in the Classroom

Believe and Know Facts

The teacher should believe in the value of interpersonal communication through greeting students with a handshake and know facts about its science. Fundamental, powerful, and universal describe the desire for humans to interact with each other. Interaction in the form of skilled interpersonal communication can satisfy and reward lives (Hargie, 2010). For example, The Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience displays evidence to highlight the importance of handshaking in regards to creating a favorable impression during social interactions (Dolcos, Sung, Argo, Flor-Henry, & Dolcos, 2012).

News stories that oppose handshaking and websites such as stophandshaking.com claim that handshaking is responsible for spreading disease by passing germs via physical contact. However, the Center for Disease Control does not list handshaking as a reason to wash hands (Handwashing).

Teach and Model
The teacher can utilize websites and videos to display how (and how not) to greet others with a handshake from Emily Post and Capstone Publishing. Teaching students how to handshake does not have to take large amounts of instructional time. Modeling use with a handshake greeting can become a daily procedure. However, handshaking can be studied further. Famous handshakes could be studied for social science, and the act of the handshake could be a topic of how-to writing.

Discussion

In order to maintain safety, teachers should seek advice about parental and student consent for requiring a handshake as a daily procedure.

Conclusion

Scholars have predicted what human habits will be placed on the list of extinction as the digital age of technology and information begins. I believe the words of John Llewellyn and hope they stand true. “[H]uman touch, and its most ubiquitous franchise, the handshake, are here to stay” (Boyle, Phillips, Jenkins, & Llewellyn, 2011).
References


International Reductions in Compulsory Geography Education and Teacher Preparation: A Multi-national Pilot Study

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Globalization and increased uncertainty about the future bring about new challenges for education systems across the world. The past 30 years have seen dramatic environmental and geo-political changes with high regularity. Although it could be argued that every generation perceives its own challenges as more substantial than previous generations, the 21st century clearly poses the most significant challenges to date in terms of global relations, economics, politics, and health. In order to surmount these new challenges, we will need to understand how the world is organized culturally, politically, economically, and environmentally.

American Common Core Curriculum (2012) and the C3 Framework (2013) for social studies recognize the need for students who are knowledgeable about the world beyond their national borders—a world that is becoming more complex in that events in one part of the world have impacts that are global. Geography is the only academic
discipline in which this kind of knowledge is the primary focus. Unfortunately, geography education in the United States is not sufficient to meet today’s demands. Furthermore, the American education model is be exported/imported to/by nations throughout world.

Despite its inherent flaws, many aspects of the American education model are currently being replicated elsewhere. This includes the American paradigm of social studies. This pilot study was not an attempt to prove the “Westernization of education;” rather, simply aimed to 1. better understand the status of geography in school curriculum and teacher education across the world, and 2. theorize the implications of that status. This presentation will begin with a description of geography as a field, what it means to be geographically literate, and a brief summary of the past and current state of American geography education.

A number of large-scale and small-scale studies have been conducted over the past 30 years comparing the geographic literacy of children and adults from various nations. Blades et al. (1998) found that non-Western children perform equally well to Western children, providing evidence “against the traditional Eurocentric belief that the spatial
cognitive abilities of non-Western peoples are somehow inferior to those of Westerners” (p. 275).

Before 1988, it was unclear how well geographic literacy tests actually determined geographic literacy. MaCabe (1988) and others have produced and reproduced evidence that basic sketch maps and place-name location tests work as surrogates for higher-level geographic literacy. This is not to say that being geographically literate means knowing the location of places; rather, these tests show how participants who score well on basic place-name tests also have higher-level geographic literacy. A comparison with language is sometimes made to clarify this phenomenon: place-name geography is not like the alphabet. One who knows the alphabet is not necessarily a highly competent reader or writer; however, one who knows place-name geography is highly likely to be competent of higher-level geographic thinking. These fortunate results make it possible to accurately test for high-level geographic literacy using basic place-name tests.

The most significant geographic literacy tests yet to be done have been done in Britain and the United States. Although the U.S. routinely
scores low in multi-national studies, there has been an effort to find explanations and improvements over the past few decades. This has prompted multiple national studies by National Geographic-Roper Public Affairs (2002; 2006) and the NAEP (1994; 2001; 2010). National Geographic-Roper concluded, “Americans are far from alone in the world, but from the perspective of many young Americans, we might as well be. Most young adults between the ages of 18 and 24 demonstrate a limited understanding of the world beyond their country’s borders, and they place insufficient importance on the basic geographic skills that might enhance their knowledge” (2006, p. 3). NAEP (2010) results strongly suggest a significant difference between American students and students throughout much of the rest of the world with regards to geographic literacy.

When comparing how geography is taught internationally, it is important to keep each location’s political history in mind. Educational systems are products of history, and the similarities and differences between different nations can typically be explained historically. The most transparent example of this is the British system of education. If a country is or was at some point a British colony, there is a strong likelihood that its
educational system will resemble the British model. However, that trend may be shifting. In the United Kingdom, geography is a significant part of primary education, with history being the ancillary subject. It is also a compulsory subject throughout secondary school.

South Africa, Uganda, Egypt, and Bangladesh provide good examples of how American geography education may have been exported to other countries. These nations were colonized by Britain at some point in the past, and their educational system has resembled the British model ever since. This includes compulsory geography courses for five or more years, depending on the nation. Geography education has declined significantly with the adoption of social studies in the United States. The U.S. was the first nation to do this. It took many decades, but recent years have seen many nations do the same. Again, this is not to say that social studies itself is a poor idea; rather, it is the trends that follow that can be dangerous.

American social studies and geography teachers are not required to have much—if any—academic geography background. American students often can make their way through the system without taking a single
geography course. This is not currently the case in most of the world. Geography seems to be experiencing increased subjugation under history in elementary and middle schools in many nations, but geography courses in secondary schools are still typically compulsory. If the American model truly is being “exported,” we can expect to see further declines in years of compulsory geography education, particularly at the secondary level.

This pilot study presentation will detail the results of a multi-national comparison of geographic inclusion in the curriculum and teacher education in geography in Bangladesh, Brazil, Egypt, Ghana, India, Philippines, South Africa, and Uganda.
Creating a Space for Social Justice through Dialogic Interactions in a Writing Workshop

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This workshop will provide teachers with interactive activities about teaching social justice in the classroom settings. Teachers will engage in dialogic interactions. They will read and write about classroom practices reflective of social justice instruction and current educational issues.

During this teacher in-service writing workshop, participants’ dialogic interactions and narratives about social justice were examined. This writing workshop offered teacher candidates and teachers interactive teaching demonstrations. They explored questions about the teaching of writing through discussions of readings and writings about classroom practices for improving instruction and social justice education. This course counts toward initial certification, recertification and/or as credits toward the MEd program in Teacher Leadership. For students who sought
initial teacher certification and were not undergraduate and /or graduate English Majors, the workshop could count as the English course prerequisite. For teachers, the course was voluntary professional development.

The teacher candidates were English/ Language Arts majoring in elementary and/ or secondary education. Teachers taught different subject areas such as: English/ Language Arts, math, science, social studies, performing arts, ESL, and psychology. These teachers taught grades five through twelve. All participants worked in the United States of America. The teacher educators represented the Language Arts program from a reputable university. We sought to understand teachers’ perceptions of social justice narratives and dialogic interactions as they crafted and shared stories about issues in education and their hopes and desires for transformative and innovative classrooms.

In our Writing Workshop, we, the teacher educators, navigated the constraints and possibilities of implementing social justice narratives and dialogic interactions as innovative and transformative classroom practices, while the teacher candidates and teachers used their narratives and
dialogues to tackle persisting issues in education. As teacher educators, we, the authors, expressed continually and concurrently the importance of social justice narrative research in education, especially the use and examination of teachers’ pedagogical narratives and dialogic interactions to define teacher beliefs and practices.

As noted, dialogic interactions positioned the participants and teacher educators as thinkers, theorizers and/or critiques. These dialogic interactions were perceived from a hermeneutical perspective where participants’ communication and development relied on adjusting, revisiting and questioning perspectives, ideas and attitudes between participants’ practices and beliefs. Initially, these interactions began as dialogues where there was a back-and-forth between participants, formal and informal talk, in small groups and large groups, one-to-one conferences and written text to a set audience (writing workshop participants). Finally, dialogic interactions were couched in conversations where participants questioned, challenged, exchanged information and views while eventually taking an inquiry-based approach to the topic.
presented and worked in order to generate their own evidence and reasoning.

The participants made a shift toward experiential narratives in the lens of constructivist theory of teacher education. Rex and Juzwik (2011) maintained that “a constructivist theory of teacher education posits that repeatedly engaging pre-service teachers and teachers in dialogues evoked from tense moments, positions them to build discursive tools and strategies for opening meaningful dialogues in their own classrooms.”

This study, thus, explored two specific questions in relationship to our self-study of teacher education practices. First, how might engagement in dialogic interactions, writing social justice narratives, and sharing narratives foster innovative and transformative teaching practices? And second, how can teacher educators provide opportunities for teacher candidates and teachers to self-reflect and critically reflect about their teaching experiences and students’ learning in social justice education?

During the ten-day writing workshop, the seventeen participants, twelve teachers and five teacher candidates, and two teacher educators revisited their writing literacy and pedagogical practices and beliefs. The
teacher educators provided ten-day activities where all developed a personal perspective toward their own writing, sharing their stories about social justice, participating in the activities and interacting with the participants. Throughout their time at the workshop participants moved from inquiry to observation to discovery and finally, transformation.

This research was conducted as a qualitative self-study using focus group as the methodological approach. Using as our model of inquiry self-study methodology in teacher education research (Loughran, 2005; Hamilton, 2004; LaBoskey, 2004; Russel, 2004; Mitchell, Weber, & O’Reilly-Scanlon, 2013), we purposefully sought out to answer the questions – a) how and why we teach what we teach and b) how our teaching is reflected in the conversations, dialogues and narrative inquiries of our writing workshop participants.
Writing Workshop Fostering Social Justice through Creative Writing and Dialogic Interactions

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This workshop will provide teachers with interactive activities about teaching social justice in the classroom settings. Teachers will engage in dialogic interactions. They will read and write about classroom practices reflective of social justice instruction and current educational issues.

At this proposed writing workshop, participants will engage in dialogic interactions and personal narratives about teaching issues of social justice. This writing workshop will explore questions about teaching reading and writing through the discussion of readings and the production of writings about improving classroom practice. We seek to discuss teachers’ perceptions of social justice narratives and dialogic interactions as they craft and share stories their hopes and desires for transformative and innovative classrooms.
In our Writing Workshop, we, the teacher educators, will navigate the constraints and possibilities of implementing social justice narratives and dialogic interactions as innovative and transformative classroom practices. As the workshop leaders, we will express the importance of social justice narrative research in education, especially in the use and examination of teachers’ pedagogical narratives and dialogic interactions to define teacher values, beliefs and practices.

Dialogic interactions – both in conversation and on paper - position the participants and teacher educators as thinkers and theorizers. These dialogic interactions are a sound educational practice as they are perceived from a hermeneutical perspective where participants’ communication and development relies on adjusting, revisiting and questioning perspectives, ideas and attitudes among participants’ practices and beliefs. The participants will experience the use of self-discovery narratives through the lens of constructivist theory of teacher education. Rex and Juzwik (2011) maintain that “a constructivist theory of teacher education posits that repeatedly engaging pre-service teachers and teachers in dialogues
evoked from tense moments, positions them to build discursive tools and strategies for opening meaningful dialogues in their own classrooms.”

This workshop will explore two specific questions in relationship to teacher education practices. First, how can engagement in dialogic interactions, writing social justice narratives, and sharing narratives foster innovative and transformative teaching practices? And second, how can teacher educators provide opportunities for teacher candidates and teachers to self-reflect and critically reflect about their teaching experiences and students’ learning in social justice education?

Finally, it is our hope that this workshop will encourage educators to revisit their writing literacy and pedagogical practices and beliefs. Educators will share personal perspective toward their own writing, about teaching for social justice and improving their own student’s writing. Throughout their time in the workshop, participants will engage in activities that involve inquiry, observation, discovery and hopefully, transformation.