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**EDITOR:  
WILLIAM BENEDICT RUSSELL III**

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*The International Society for the Social  
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Table of Contents

<b>Document-Based Questions: Answers to Quandary through Student Discovery</b> <i>Teresa Bergstrom</i> <i>Holly McBride Jung</i>	<b>9</b>
<b>Using Filmic Counter-Narratives to Promote Social Justice Education in the Elementary Social Studies Methods Course</b> <i>Lisa Brown Buchanan</i>	<b>14</b>
<b>Engagement in the Social Studies: The Key to Student Learning</b> <i>Bradley John Burenheide</i>	<b>17</b>
<b>Urban Social Studies Teachers' Attitudes Towards Film</b> <i>Christopher Busey</i> <i>William B. Russell III</i>	<b>20</b>
<b>Using Case Studies to Teach about the Cold War</b> <i>Jeffrey Byford</i>	<b>22</b>
<b>The Fall and Rise of Social Studies in Ontario: 1955 – 1975</b> <i>Kurt W. Clausen</i>	<b>28</b>
<b><i>Caddyshack</i> = Teaching Aide: Using the Films of Harold Ramis to Teach Social Studies</b> <i>Charles Cummings</i>	<b>31</b>
<b>Constructivist Learning Environments in Social Studies Classes: Teachers' Perceptions</b> <i>Sahin Dundar</i> <i>Yucel Kabapinar</i> <i>Levent Deniz</i>	<b>34</b>

<p><b>Power and Liberty: A Long-Term Course Planning Strategy in American History</b> <i>Jason L. Endacott</i></p>	39
<p><b>Promoting Professionalism in Master’s Level Teachers through Research-Based Writing</b> <i>Jesus Garcia</i> <i>Paula S. McMillen</i> <i>David A. Bolin</i></p>	41
<p><b>Losing our Best and Brightest: Youth Retention in Rural Areas</b> <i>Jason Hedrick</i> <i>Jeff Dick</i> <i>Mark Light</i> <i>Greg Homan</i></p>	46
<p><b>Engaging Elementary Students in Historical Thinking</b> <i>Diane Hembacher</i> <i>Lisa Hutton</i></p>	51
<p><b>Psyche as Structural Force: The Focus of Causation in History</b> <i>Tahmeena Javed</i></p>	56
<p><b>Searching for a Consensus on Terminology of “THINKING” in Three NCSS Journals</b> <i>Ulku S. Karabulut</i></p>	62
<p><b>Turkish Middle School Student Responses to Social Studies Concept Questions on the 2010 Level Determination Exam in Turkey</b> <i>Emin Kilinc</i> <i>Fatih Kaya</i> <i>Lynn M. Burlbaw</i></p>	67

<b>Furthering Civic Aims through Primary Source Analysis</b> <i>Glenn P. Lauzon</i> <i>Leisa A. Martin</i>	<b>70</b>
<b>Tradition, Memory and Truth: Affirming Portuguese Communities in the Global State</b> <i>Fernando Magalhães</i>	<b>76</b>
<b>Making Connections: Making Social Studies Personal for Pre-Service Teachers</b> <i>Karen Larsen Maloley</i>	<b>81</b>
<b>Citizenship Education for Social Justice: Promoting Active Citizenship through Adolescent Literature and Service Learning</b> <i>Leisa A. Martin</i> <i>Lynn A. Smolen</i>	<b>83</b>
<b>The United States Pledge of Allegiance: Reflections from a Native American Perspective</b> <i>Leisa A. Martin</i> <i>Glenn P. Lauzon</i>	<b>87</b>
<b>Using Virtual Field Trips to Enrich Civic Education</b> <i>Leisa A. Martin</i> <i>Adam M. Anzelc</i> <i>Glenn P. Lauzon</i>	<b>92</b>
<b>“How Can I Establish a Relationship With Someone I Never See?”</b> <i>Rhonda K. McPherson</i>	<b>96</b>
<b>Teaching History Content with Video Games</b> <i>John Pagnotti</i> <i>William B. Russell III</i>	<b>98</b>

<p><b>Deliberation and Experiential Education through the Lessons of Paris</b> <i>Anthony Pellegrino</i> <i>Christopher Dean Lee</i> <i>Alex d'Erizans</i></p>	102
<p><b>At the Crossroads: Recent Tendencies in Civic Education in Russia</b> <i>Anatoli Rapoport</i></p>	107
<p><b>Let the Students Speak: Best Practices for Incorporating a Panel Discussion in the Classroom</b> <i>Michael L. Rogers</i></p>	109
<p><b>The Corporatization of American Higher Education</b> <i>Richard D. Savior</i></p>	112
<p><b>A Few Good Women (AFGW): Using an Oral History Project to Enrich Student Learning</b> <i>Karla M. Schmit</i></p>	115
<p><b>Thinking Across Contexts: Classroom to Classroom</b> <i>Ana M. Serrano</i> <i>Barbara Hawkins</i></p>	119
<p><b>Adolescent Vocabulary Develop in the Secondary Social Studies Classrooms</b> <i>Tanya Sturtz</i> <i>John Sturtz</i></p>	126
<p><b>Harold Rugg: A Pioneer for Citizenship in Social Studies</b> <i>Eddie Thompson</i></p>	129

<b>An Evaluation of MACOS</b> <i>Eddie Thompson</i> <i>Sarah Smilowitz</i> <i>Jeffrey Byford</i>	<b>132</b>
<b>Using Film to Develop Citizens of Character</b> <i>Stewart Waters</i> <i>William B. Russell III</i>	<b>138</b>



**Document-Based Questions:  
Answers to Quandary through Student Discovery**

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Document-based questions allow students to thinking deeply about a topic, through analysis and interpretation of various sources in order to form and support a thesis statement, as well as, create opportunities that will build a student's ability to work independently and collaboratively. The purpose of the conference presentation was to show how teachers can create document-based questions easily that are accessible with the use of textbook, supplemental, and digital materials that we, as teachers, are able to access on a daily basis. Thematic questions can make the study of historical events more mysterious, entertaining, and applicable to the variety of twenty-first century students; document-based questioning will build a student's ability to reference, research, and apply knowledge toward defending or opposing a question based on a subject area's context. Vitellaro and Tidd (2001), defined a document-based question (DBQ) is a question that is answered through analysis and interpretation of one or more written or printed source materials, which are used through a persuasive or expository essay.

Why document-based questions? Students need to learn how to think. The process of clear thinking should not be left a mystery to students, or to teachers. (Brady and Roden, 2005) Learning to think

requires practice in thinking. It's elemental, but research shows that only 1% of teachers' questions reach beyond fact and routine. Thinking needs to be frequent and ongoing. (Boyer, 1994) Students must confront that fact that thinking can be hard work and teachers must acknowledge it. (Brady and Roden, 2005) Yet, thinking is for everyone; It is not the preserve of the quick and slow does not mean futile.

How can you create a DBQ so that it could be useful in all classroom settings? First, develop a question that poses an opinion, yet can be proven through document analysis. Use up to 5-7 primary and secondary sources, depending on your student population, including charts, graphs, photography, political cartoons, journal entries, quotes, newspaper articles, and reliable secondary sources. The process might be tedious at first, but as you expose students to the process, they are able to become self-directed learners and DBQs could be completed in just a few class periods.

What is the process for completing a full DBQ for History? Usually you want to begin with an introduction, or "HOOK". This short activity could be a bellwork or "before class" assignment to introduce students to basic concepts, time period, or a similar issue from a separate time period.

Where to next? After completing the "hook" activity, students will need to learn more about the general topic of study. A background essay, or background information on the topic, would help solidify information that will introduce the who, what, when, where, how, and why of a topic

that is approximately 1-2 pages in length. Textbook material could be used if you are unable to gain access to supplemental or online sources. The reading and comprehension of the background essay allows the student to have unbiased information before they dive DEEP into analysis. How can students wrap their heads around a central question? Ask your students work collaboratively, or as a class, how they could best restate the DBQ in kid-friendly language. If some of the vocabulary in your DBQ is difficult, it is suggested that the class create a Vocabulary Glossary that could be helpful in listing vocabulary terms that need definitions. This will provide students an easy reference for unfamiliar words. It is important for students to fully understand the purpose for their research.

As document analysis begin, realize that there are multiple ways to complete this process with whole class, collaborative partnerships, or individual completion. To support the comprehension of each document, construct questions for them to answer or allow them to ask the questions themselves. Lower level readers might need guidance. Always end the each set of document analysis questions with how this document could help answer the Document-Based Question.

Remember that as students analyze documents, they will need to remain organized in their thinking and writing. Create a graphic organizer, like buckets, that could represent the body paragraphs they will construct later in their essay creation. Label each document as a number or letter so that when you create a “bucket” visual image, students are aware of where that document will be placed, and later used as a reference in their writing.

As students become familiar with Bucketing, they will realize how this is also a way to organize their essay.

A “chicken-foot thesis” is a graphic organizer that will help students create a thesis statement by looking at it in two separate parts. The first part, the “leg” part of the chicken, is used for the factual portion of their thesis statement; the rewording of the DBQ. The “claws” of the “chicken-foot” represent the buckets you titled and filled with the different documents. The “claws” become reasons why the student is answering the DBQ with a supportive or oppositional stance.

As students construct their DBQ Essay, they should apply information from their documents (placed into buckets that represent different paragraphs) within their essay to support their thesis. To build the importance of citing documentation, students can easily write the document letter at the end of the statement they are making, like this (Doc. A). This will help you locate whether students are making the critical connections between the analysis and interpretation of the topic.

After students compose their DBQ Essay, there are many post-activities that are possible to help continue academic growth, self-reflection, and discussion regarding the topic of study. Self-grading rubrics and group essay analysis of professional, satisfactory, and unsatisfactory work can be useful to help in the grading process. Debates are also useful activities that promote collaborative and self-directed learning. Learning can be exciting if it is presented in a way that students

can find purpose. Solving quandary through student discovery might just be the ticket!

**Using Filmic Counter-Narratives to Promote Social Justice Education  
in the Elementary Social Studies Methods Course**

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Social justice education should be the foundation of the elementary teacher education classroom, deliberately positioned to challenge and develop pre-service teachers' ideologies and instructional skills, while preparing them to use these same teaching and learning practices with their future elementary students. Contemporary research in elementary teacher education and social studies teacher education demonstrates the need for pre-service teachers to engage teacher educators who model social justice pedagogy within their teacher education courses (Loughran, 2006; Zeichner, 2009). This implies that elementary teacher educators should intentionally and explicitly teach for and with social justice education in the elementary social studies methods course. The elementary social studies methods course is an ideal location for developing pre-service teachers' social justice understanding through social justice teaching practices like filmic counter-narratives. Although literature about teaching with filmic counter-narratives is primarily situated in secondary classrooms and secondary teacher education, teaching with filmic counter-narratives is an optimal strategy for developing social justice pedagogy with elementary pre-service teachers.

Counter-narratives are uncelebrated or controversial historical accounts that do not follow the traditional narrative of historical events or

people. Counter-narratives are especially valuable for helping students to understand their own lives and the lives of others, even moving students towards developing historical empathy over time (Marcus, Metzger, Paxton, & Stoddard, 2010). Although counter-narratives present a beneficial and critical teaching strategy in teacher education, they can be contentious and difficult if they confront students with different historical perspectives than they have considered previously. Current scholarship surrounding teaching counter-narratives in social studies suggests that film is an ideal text to use for developing students' understanding and utility of counter-narratives while promoting a social justice perspective towards teaching and learning (Marcus, et al., 2010).

In the elementary social studies methods course, counter-narratives provide a unique and engaging shared text for challenging and developing pre-service teachers' social justice thinking while demonstrating social justice teaching in the elementary teacher education course (James, 2008). Counter-narratives allow learners to become actively engaged in exploring their own positionality and historicity as well as the past or contemporary lives of others. Through an unfamiliar and possibly contentious narrative, counter-narratives encourage pre-service teachers to recognize how their ideas and beliefs influence the ways in which they understand history and others (James, 2008).

Using film as a counter-narrative text is a unique and highly engaging way to model and develop social justice thinking with elementary pre-service teachers. Filmic counter-narratives allow the

teacher educator to position film as an alternative text to trouble pre-service teachers' ideologies, expand their understanding of the utility of counter-narratives, and model exemplary social studies teaching practices. Although filmic counter-narratives provide a unique and engaging approach to teaching counter-narratives in elementary social studies teacher education, the use of filmic counter-narratives has not been explored. As the body of research related to using filmic counter-narratives has not yet been developed, this illuminates the need for future research examining the utility of filmic counter-narratives with elementary pre-service teachers.

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## **Engagement in the Social Studies: The Key to Student Learning**

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In social studies education today, there is a dearth of engagement in classrooms. Most of the activities occurring focus on factual regurgitation in the era of high-stakes tests and direct instruction becomes the norm. This presentation focused on how to enhance engagement in social studies instruction with three strategies that were demonstrated in the presentation. After explaining this challenge to the social studies, the author began by defining engagement. Engagement is to involve students in intellectual activity in the classroom through various means. The three strategies advocated by the author are to focus upon active and constructive concept development, primary source investigations, and simulations.

Concept development is dependent upon structures that require students to compare and contrast, identify similarities, and experience the concept in its setting. This would mean using the concept as it is intended and understood. As an example, the author demonstrated how constitutional concepts such as search and seizure and the freedom of expression are developed through the understanding of several Supreme Court cases in rapid succession called the “Lightning Case” model.

Primary source investigations are the use of documents from the historical period to enhance student questioning, use of information,

critical thinking, and analytical skills. By having students analyze the document creates understandings of the historical situation, which produces enhanced understandings of historical phenomena that are significant. By having students explore the sources that exist, even secondary sources, students are able to construct understandings that are deep, rich, and indicative of deep understandings. The desired nature of these understandings is deep and rooted in constructivism.

Finally having students engaged in instructional gaming and simulations maximize the nature of constructivism for student understanding. By placing this strategy in the context of Kolb's Theory of Experiential Learning, This theory provides the guiding theory behind the strategies presented in this lesson. In all three of these strategies, it is important that students are deeply engaged in the exploration of topics. Instructional gaming and simulations provide students with the opportunity to explore in depth the key components of understanding.

One last component of the presentation was the acknowledgement of student learning styles as noted by Dunn and Dunn (1993). Teachers often overlook the modalities of thought that are embraced by students. Dunn and Dunn encourage teachers to look at a multitude of factors that may influence student understanding. The different factors of student learning studied by Dunn and Dunn need to be considered by the teacher who wants students to reach their full potential.

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## Urban Social Studies Teachers' Attitudes towards Film

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What do *Amistad*, *300*, *Apollo 13*, *Glory*, *Nixon*, and *Mr. Smith Goes to Washington* all have in common? These are all films that can be used to teach a specific content area within social studies be it American Government, World History, American History or Global Studies. The use of film in the social studies classroom is not a new phenomenon. Film is often used to teach historical concepts such as war, slavery, the Holocaust, and other life-changing events that have taken place throughout the world.

Engaging today's student in social studies content is even more important due to the complex nature of a global society in which we live in. Also, today's student is no longer limited as to the knowledge and information that is available to them due to the fact that news, books and other varieties of information are readily accessible with the touch of a button on a cellular phone or Ipad. As a result, to engage today's "Digital Natives", social studies teachers are turning more and more to film as a way to deliver and supplement the curriculum (Prensky, 2001).

It is also important to consider how film can be used to teach social studies to urban students as well. Generally, urban students are disconnected from the social studies due to the direct contradiction between social studies curriculum's patriotic and citizenship based

concepts as opposed to the environment that urban students often come from in which they are exposed to racism and other harsh aspects of society (Gay, 2005). This makes the use of film even more imperative in creating an education that is both meaningful and informative at the same time for urban students.

In order for us to determine the possibilities for film use in urban social studies classrooms, it is first important for teacher educators and researchers to assess some attitudes that urban teachers may have towards film. By doing this, we can then alter teacher education programs in order to ensure that urban social studies teachers are being equipped with the appropriate knowledge, and pedagogical strategies for using film in their classrooms. Determining teacher attitudes towards film allows for one to determine teacher ideology, and henceforth how their attitudes/ideology shape pedagogical uses for film.

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## Using Case Studies to Teach about the Cold War

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### Introduction

In May 1945, Nazi Germany surrendered to the Allied powers, dividing Germany into four separate zones of influence controlled by the Soviet Union in the east and the United States, England and France in the west. Four years later, the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany) was founded based on democratic principles and a free market economy. That same year, the German Democratic Republic (East Germany) was founded on the principles of communism and a planned market economy.

Although West and East German governments differed in terms of ideological goals, few resources are available to social studies teachers when teaching about the Cold War for students to explore the secret activities of Eastern Bloc. While students throughout middle and high school are repeatedly exposed towards the concepts of American vs. Russian ideology, little exposure is given towards life behind the secret war of espionage between East and West. Such investigations of secret espionage activities lend it well with the pedagogical expectations and requirements created by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS).

### **A Brief Background of the East German Ministry for State Security (STASI)**

With its conception as a nation in 1949, the Deutsche Demokratische Republik (East Germany) followed the Soviet Union's path for socialism. Formed in 1950, the Ministry of State Security (STASI) was modeled after the Soviet Union's Secret Police to protect the newly formed government. The mission of this new agency was three fold: 1) foreign espionage, 2) border and passport security, and 3) espionage on the East German people.

#### *Internal Espionage*

Shortly after the 1953 National uprising by farmers and workers demanding better wages, working conditions and amenities, which were efficiently crushed by garrisoned Soviet troops, Stasi national districts and local offices were established throughout East Germany to monitor potential threats from its own citizens. Stasi rationale for such monitoring was based on the belief they were defending East German Socialism. As a result, all dissenting views from East German citizens must come from capitalist, imperialist forces attempting to undermine the socialist cause. Politically undesirable East Germans were scrutinized and monitored. All descending opinions were subjected to Stasi control, which in turn, took massive state resources.

Stasi agents quickly became experts in monitoring its citizens and the working arm of the socialist government. Stasi agents actively worked to expose moles planted by Western countries, recruit East German

citizens to “inform” on one another, operational control (surveillance) of East German citizens, party officials, and military personnel, and provide security checks at strategic border checkpoints. The concept of “technical eyes dropping” was the preferred method of civilian surveillance. Often entering an individual’s home during the day, Stasi agents could both wire rooms with hidden microphones and tap telephones in less than twenty minutes. Additional information was gained through post and parcel interception that allowed Stasi district offices to open, copy, and reseal up to 90,000 packages each day. In all, there was an estimated one Stasi officer or informant for every sixty-three East Germans (Funder, 2003).

Once individuals were arrested Stasi agents would “extract” information through sleep deprivation, intensive investigations on detainee’s family members, and the destruction of one’s self-esteem. Confessions were the easiest method of conviction. The art of espionage did not end with an individual’s arrival to one of several special Stasi prisons designed to incarcerate those found guilty of either espionage against the state or assisting in escape to the West. Prisoners were actively recruited to collect information on fellow inmates providing Stasi agents with needed information not extracted before trial. The Stasi belief of “total surveillance” continued in prison. Stasi agents spied on the prison staff. Prison staff spied on the inmates. Inmates spied on other inmates, and prison staff spied on fellow staff members, creating a circle of total surveillance.



*Foreign Espionage against West Germany*

Stasi operations were primarily based on two elements in West German society: politicians and West German and United States Army Intelligence services. The Hauptverwaltung Aufklärung (HVA) was the secret espionage division responsible for spying and disinformation against West German politicians. The Stasi had a particular interest in West German and U.S. army intelligence group stationed in West Germany and West Berlin and their top-secret wartime contingency plans against Warsaw Pact Nations.

**The Stasi Case Study: A Model Lesson**

Students who were born after either the fall or the end of the Cold War often find it difficult to comprehend the sources of excitement, tension, fears and global competition among superpowers. In fact, coverage of Cold War events among survey textbooks indicate only key specific events covering the growth of tensions and the immediate aftermath of World War Two are covered (Walker, 1995). In an effort to expose students to events that occurred daily throughout the Cold War, the research utilized the case study model. The case study approach has distinctive benefits compared to traditional lecture and direct instruction. According to Wolfer and Baker (2000), case studies can be designed as either real or hypothetical situations that can engage and foster inquiry in various levels of Bloom's. In addition, the case study approach may help students to: 1) understand complicated cold war issues and materials; 2)

discuss issues related to the curriculum; and 3) engage students in informative discussions (Kunselman and Johnson, 2004).

This Cold War case study of the East German Stasi was tested and utilized in several high school classrooms. This case study is not intended to solely describe espionage operations conducted by both the western allies and eastern bloc nations, but an activity which may be used as either an introduction to a Cold War unit, or in a supportive role to gain students' attention and make the Cold War era more meaningful. The case study should take one 55 minute class period to provide ample time for a brief historical background of East Germany / Stasi operations, introduction, discussion, and analysis. However, this activity should be tailored to fit the needs of each social studies classroom.

### **Conclusion**

In an era increasingly dominated by standardized exams, and curriculum guides, trying to introduce fun, creative activities can sometimes be difficult. While complaints that curriculum is boring and not relevant sometimes prevail among students, creating activities that are realistic and thought-provoking can be time consuming and difficult. Case studies aide in the effort to provide students with a window of time that provides a snapshot of an era or time period. This case study provides students with hands on investigations and snapshots of East Germany's elite intelligence organization and espionage activities related to the Cold War.

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**The Fall and Rise of Social Studies in Ontario: 1955 – 1975**

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This historical study follows the progress of the social studies curriculum in the Ontario public school system over the course of two turbulent decades. Always seen by the Department of Education as an American-inspired invention, the “Social Studies” had reached great popularity in the province in the years preceding, during and succeeding World War II as a means of creating an engaged citizenry (Tomkins, 1986). As the 1950s wore on and the influence of Progressivism waned in North America, however, criticism of this amalgamated subject area became more intensified. In Canada, many academics rallied around the work of Hilda Neatby who mercilessly attacked social studies and the philosophy that supported it (Neatby, 1953). The peak of this anti-Progressive (and, in many ways, anti-American) movement came in 1957 with the fragmentation of the middle and high school social studies course into its smaller components of History, Geography and Civics. In no uncertain terms, the incumbent Minister of Education, William Dunlop, stated that he would strip the curriculum of “every vestige of progressivism.” Instead, he proclaimed that “we do not need to copy the educational systems of any other country ... Ontario’s educational system is the best in the world” (*Toronto Globe & Mail*, 3 Feb 1961).

This period of academic cold war only ended in the early 1960s with the entrance of a new Minister of Education, Bill Davis, and a new vision of education for the province. In one fell swoop, the entire Curriculum Division of the Ontario Department of Education was vacated and a new group of outsiders (mostly academics and field educators) replaced the long-term bureaucrats who had held sway for the past decade. Acting as the vanguard of a new Progressive-Humanist movement, these outsiders began with bold changes to the elementary curriculum and more guarded revisions to the secondary program (Fleming, 1973).

Inspired, created and supported by the Curriculum Division, the “Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives of Education in the Schools of Ontario” followed these reforms with a more ambitious re-envisioning of the entire system. Each member of this 22-person committee travelled at home and abroad to ascertain the most beneficial forms of education that could be adapted to the provincial system. Once again, visits to the United States played an important role in the committee’s re-creation of a vision for Ontario social studies curriculum. Known colloquially as the “Hall-Dennis Report” (1968), the findings of this committee set social studies on a new path that were to have root and branch changes for a generation to come.

In the ensuing years of the late 1960s and 1970s, based in part on recommendations by the now iconic report, social studies underwent a renaissance. In the elementary years, the social studies course was maintained, while in middle years connections between History and

Geography were strengthened. At the secondary level new courses were created in great proliferation that undertook the study of the human condition – from environmental studies, to sociology, anthropology, to Native and Black studies. Members of the committee and those in the Department inspired by the report all played a part in reshaping the scope, content and importance of social studies in the Ontario public school system.

This study examines the reasons behind these radical changes over this period based on close content analyses of the related documents, including curricula and Department of Education archival material. The Hall-Dennis Report and its collection of accompanying material form an area of especial interest for this project. As well, an extensive use of oral history interviews and media reports has helped to clarify the various philosophical positions that personnel within the Department held.

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***Caddyshack* = Teaching Aide:  
Using the Films of Harold Ramis to Teach Social Studies**

**Charles Cummings**  
*Bay Point Middle School*

Film legend Harold Ramis has offered us years of laughter through such comedic classics as *Ghostbusters*, *Animal House*, and *Caddyshack*. Examples will be provided on how to integrate his filmography into your curriculum as a teaching aide for Social Science education.

**Ramis – The Social Science Genius**

A famous name in film over the last 35 years, Harold Ramis has been associated with directing, producing, writing, and acting in some of the most memorable films since the late 70's. Ramis, predominantly a comedic actor since his early days as a Second City performer and writer, has worked alongside some of the biggest names in film. Bill Murray, Dan Akroyd, Chevy Chase, John Candy, John Belushi, Rodney Dangerfield, and more recently Jack Black, have worked alongside him in some of the greatest comedies of all time.

However, one of the untouched aspects of Harold Ramis' acting career is the copious amount of films that he has participated in which have ties to Social Science Education. Ramis' Filmography is a potential gold mine of aesthetically pleasing material! The credited workings of Ramis can offer a strong scaffold between a student's present

understanding of sociological materials and materials presented in the classroom.

### **Why the Films of Ramis?**

Many of Ramis' films are iconic enough to see monthly airplay on basic cable. Thus, these films have probably already been viewed by a significant portion of your students. Who knows, perhaps the plot of Ghostbusters is already etched into the mind of many of your students, or an edited version of Animal House might have persuaded some of them to go to college. What about Caddyshack? I know I picked up my first golf club to mimic Rodney Dangerfield. In fact, I imagine many of us teachers would be hard pressed to find a peer or colleague who wouldn't drop everything they were doing to zone out in front of a television for one of these memorable films (and many of us will quote these movies line-for-line).

These comedies have become a significant part of our lives as Americans because they are ridiculously funny and easily relatable. Comedic performances tend to stand out in our minds long after the film has ended. The combination of Ramis' efforts and the popularity of these comedic films ultimately allow for a discussion on the Social Science content hidden within the plotlines of many of these great motion pictures. The discussions derived from these plotlines can evoke critical thinking amongst our students, all the while generating a higher order thought in their evaluations of the works of Ramis. The combination of popular



Ramis comedies and topics relative to Social Science can foster a positive educational experience for your students.

**Notes**

In my presentation I argue the benefits of using the credited works of Harold Ramis as teaching aids for topics in Social Science Education, while also making a case for using the film Caddyshack as the ultimate visual representation to teach class systems and social hierarchies. If you would like to view my presentation given at the 2011 ISSS Conference you may do so at the following link:

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0mG9DkwKtM0>

## **Constructivist Learning Environments in Social Studies Classes: Teachers' Perceptions**

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**Yucel Kabapinar**

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In 2004, the Turkish Ministry of National Education made important changes in the Social Studies, Mathematics, Turkish, Science and Technology, and Life Science curricula. With these changes, the main approach of the social studies curriculum has been stated as constructivism (MONE, 2005).

### **Purpose of the Study**

In general, the aim of the present study was to evaluate the 5<sup>th</sup> grade elementary school teachers' perceptions of constructivist learning environments in social studies classes.

### **Method**

#### ***Participants***

The data was gathered from 201 5<sup>th</sup> grade elementary school teachers in the 2006-2007 academic year in Istanbul, Turkey. 58.7 % of the teachers in the sample were female, and 41.3 % were male. Of teachers 23.4 % were 30 and younger, 33.8 % were 31-40 years old, and 42.8 % were 41 and over. 45.8 % of the teachers had 10 years of experience or

less, 19.9 % of them had 11-20 years, and 34.3% of them 21 and more years of teaching experiences. 24.9 % of the teachers had 35 and fewer students in their class, 40.3% had 36-45, and 34.8% had 46 or more students in their class.

### Materials

In the study, the data was gathered by the Social Constructivism and Active Learning Environments (The SCALE) scale (Bonk, Oyer, & Medury, 1995) and the Survey of Use of Constructivism in Social Studies. The SCALE was originally developed by Bonk, Oyer, and Medury (1995) to investigate the gap between actual classroom instruction and student preferences from the constructivist viewpoint. Bonk, Oyer, and Medury (1995) indicated that “Instruments like the SCALE are intended to assist in curriculum and instruction reform efforts to assess the degree of constructivism present in classroom learning environments.” There are two forms of the SCALE as perceived/actual and preferred/ideal. Both forms of the SCALE consist of 40 items and eight factors (five items in each factor). The SCALE was designed as a five-point likert type that “1” indicated “very often” and “5” indicated “never”. According to this accounting, lower scores indicate higher levels of constructivism. Bonk, Oyer, and Medury (1995) used the SCALE to evaluate students’ perceptions on actual and preferred classroom environments for all classes overall, not for individual classrooms.

However, in this study, the teachers' form which was written parallel to the SCALE's actual form was used for the social studies classes' learning environments. Firstly, the SCALE was translated into Turkish, and linguistic equivalence study was carried out with four different classes in the Department of English Language Teaching of Ataturk Faculty of Education, Marmara University in Istanbul, Turkey. In the following process, the teachers' form was written parallel to the SCALE's actual form, and reliability and validity analyses were performed. For reliability analysis, Cronbach alpha reliability, item-total, item-remainder, item discrimination, and test-retest analyses were performed. For validity, subscale intercorrelation analyses were performed. Cronbach alpha reliability, item-total, item-remainder, item discrimination, and subscale intercorrelation analyses were conducted with the data gathered from the 355 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> grade elementary school teachers, but analyses for research questions were conducted with the data gathered from the 5<sup>th</sup> grade elementary school teachers (N=201). As a result of the item analyses, three items (items 4, 21, 22) were removed from the SCALE.

As mentioned earlier, lower scores indicate higher levels of constructivism in the original forms of the SCALE. However, in this study, unlike the SCALE's original forms, after the reliability and validity processes, counting of the items were converted in the way that "1" indicated "never" and "5" indicated "very often." Thus, it was provided that higher scores indicated higher levels of constructivism. Then, overall

scores were counted and analyses were performed. The other data collection instrument was “the Survey of Use of Constructivism in Social Studies.” (for full research, see Dündar, 2008).

### **Findings and Results**

The main results of the study are:

1. Female teachers perceived their social studies classes’ learning environments to be more constructivist than male teachers.
2. There was not a significant difference between teachers’ SCALE scores in terms of their ages.
3. There was a significant difference between teachers’ SCALE scores in terms of their teaching experiences. Teachers who had 21 years and more of teaching experience perceived their social studies classes’ learning environments to be more constructivist than teachers who had 10 years and less of teaching experience.
4. There was a significant difference between teachers’ SCALE scores in terms of their class size. Teachers who had a class size of 35 and smaller perceived their social studies classes’ learning environments to be more constructivist than teachers who had class size of 46 and larger.
5. 47.8 % of teachers reported that the application of constructivism in social studies, compared to other subjects, was much easier; in contrast, 26.9 % of them reported that the application of constructivism in social studies, compared to other subjects, was more difficult. However, 19.4 %

of teachers thought that there were not any differences in applying constructivism in social studies, compared to other subjects.

6. The three most repeated opinions about barriers for providing constructivist learning environments in social studies were *shortage of school facilities (materials, library, etc.); large class size; parents' lack of interest.*

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**Power and Liberty: A Long-Term Course Planning Strategy in  
American History**

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The purpose of this paper and session was to provide social studies educators with a unique method of connecting ideas from the past to the present using inquiry based learning methods and contemporary social problems in order to demonstrate the continuity and change of history within the context of recurring national issues. One way to encourage this connection is to weave a consistent historical thread throughout the various units of an American history course. Applying a consistent historical theme is an effective long-term planning strategy that can promote student engagement, retention of information, and contextualized knowledge.

This session demonstrated how one such theme, power and liberty, might be incorporated into a secondary American history course. Teachers should introduce the theme early in the course using questions designed to help the students define and understand the parameters of power and liberty as a lens through which the past might be viewed. Subsequent and repeated application of consistent scaffolding questions to events in American history promotes the analysis of the balance between power and liberty over time as it relates to individuals and various groups in society.

Teachers and students can also apply the strategy to contemporary issues by using power and liberty as a lens through which current events in

American society may be examined. Contextualizing information helps to promote citizenship through improving historically based decision-making and historical thinking. Framing important actions taken by those in the past as watershed moments in the ever-challenging balance of power and liberty promotes a better understanding of how democratic documents, important historical figures, and everyday citizens interact to decide the future of rights and responsibilities in our American democracy.



**Promoting Professionalism in Master's Level Teachers through  
Research-Based Writing**

**Jesus Garcia**  
**Paula S. McMillen**  
**David A. Bolin**

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Professional development in social studies instruction for experienced teachers has changed dramatically in the past four decades. In the early 1970's the "new social studies," emerged with an emphasis on inquiry-based instruction as the preferred teaching approach. At the same time, however, societal perceptions of education were changing, accompanied by increasing demands for accountability at all levels. Standardized test scores were promoted as the primary measures of school effectiveness and student learning as were placing math, science and reading in the spotlight, and diminishing social studies as a core subject in the K-12 curriculum. At the turn of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the passage of No Child Left Behind consolidated this trend; society's leaders sent a clear message to teachers regarding what subject areas of the K-12 curriculum they valued and social studies was not one of them.

As these trends worked their way through K-12 education, social studies teachers talked less about changing society, inquiry-based learning, or grappling with the big ideas, and more about instruction that was predictable but also less engaging to their students—often reverting to the learning of discrete information that appeared on standardized tests. While

I (Jesus Garcia) initially resisted teachers' efforts at changing the social studies content and instruction I offered in the master's level courses, I too eventually accommodated and, in the process, compromised the original goals of the professional development programs for social studies teachers. Three years ago I decided to no longer compromise.

In the fall of 2008, I took action by revising the capstone experience in the master's social studies program at my institution. The course was to be focused on writing for publication as a path to re-infusing teachers with the principles and values of the "new social studies." My intention was to have teachers reflect on their practice and to develop their identity as professionals with the knowledge and tools to express themselves on general educational issues and social studies education in particular. The teachers would put their own inquiry skills to use; under the direction of the instructor, they would be asked to identify a problem to explore, research the relevant issues, and then communicate their learning to a professional audience through writing. Writing is not only a powerful way to promote professionalism among teachers (e.g., Smiles & Short, 2006; Vieth, 2007; Whitney, 2009), but promotes conceptualization skills needed for effective information seeking (Kuhlthau, 2004). Writing is also one of the most powerful ways to influence communities locally, regionally and beyond. Teachers who can effectively research and write about proposed curricula or policies are better prepared to shape opinion and practice within their school, their district, their profession, or even at

the federal level through interacting with administrators, school boards, and elected representatives.

As I reshaped the capstone course, I quickly arrived at the conclusion that I would need assistance. I turned to a colleague, Paula McMillen, in the University Libraries for guidance on how to re-introduce teachers to research skills as an integral part of the inquiry-based writing process. Dr. McMillen viewed my invitation as an ideal opportunity for collaboration between social studies and library faculty members. She strongly endorsed the use of writing assignments to assess content knowledge, evaluate teachers' abilities to conceptualize and research a question, and develop their communication skills and professional persona. We concurred that these are essential competencies in order to be an effective change agent in society. In many ways the goals of the "new social studies" are a close match to those for "Information Literacy," the ability to recognize an information need and to effectively locate, evaluate and utilize information towards a specific purpose (ALA, 1989; ACRL, 2000), which has been the predominant instructional framework for academic libraries since the 1990's. The rapidly evolving information landscape requires new skills if social studies teachers are to be effective at practicing inquiry-based learning. In addition to more sophisticated search skills, the current flood of information requires an enhanced understanding of how to take a critical stance in relation to propaganda, misinformation and other abusive uses of information.

In this redesigned course, teachers were supported in both the inquiry and writing process through instruction on how to create each part of a professional article and how to effectively use information sources (e.g., databases) to locate research on topics of interest. They were provided with peer writing partners to give them feedback on the clarity of writing and direction of their investigations. Re-writing and re-searching were built into the syllabus, and reflection questions at the end of each project were designed to consolidate learning about both processes. Teacher responses to the reflection activities indicated that these developing professionals felt more empowered to take an active role in their classrooms and schools, and more equipped to find and weigh evidence on a topic and then create coherent and persuasive arguments or position statements.

Our own evaluations of teacher/student research and writing performance throughout the course highlighted future areas for attention. Consistent with other reports, faculty assumptions commonly made about graduate students' competences in these vitally important areas are simply not justified (Fabiano, 1996; Ivanitskaya, et al., 2005; Zhang, 1998). Opportunities for rigorous research-based writing and discussion of issues as they relate to professional practice must be built in earlier and reinforced throughout the course of graduate study.

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## **Losing our Best and Brightest: Youth Retention in Rural Areas**

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### **Introduction**

It is well documented that Northwest Ohio, like most rural areas across the country, is losing the young workforce even though the area is supported by nearly 14 “local” colleges. According to the Ohio Department of Development, Ohio has experienced a loss of 7.8% of 20-34 year olds since 1990. In Northwest Ohio, this loss averages 18%. Rural adolescents, more frequently than their urban or suburban counterparts, are more likely to experience the conflict of choice between the desire to live close to family and the necessity of moving away to achieve career success.

### **Objectives of Research**

The objectives of this research study were to analyze the current trends related to career, education, and future residency choice of high school graduates in Northwest Ohio. Specifically:

- What are the current trends of youth interest in career and educational objectives, particularly in rural Northwestern Ohio?

- How do parents, peers, economic factors, and distance from post-high school educational institutions impact educational decisions after high school graduation?
- What factors influence the intention of youth to either remain or return to the Northwestern Ohio area upon graduation?

### **Methods**

This descriptive and correlation study was conducted in spring of 2009 to assess workforce competencies, career and educational aspirations, and overall retention of graduating high school youth in Northwestern Ohio. Thirteen high schools were identified in six study counties (Mercer, Van Wert, Williams, Henry, Putnam, and Paulding). A written survey instrument was administered in 13 cooperating Northwestern Ohio High Schools with 875 high school seniors providing usable instruments for this research project.

### **Results**

#### *Demographic Data*

This sample of students from 13 cooperating school districts in six Northwestern Ohio Counties (Williams, Henry, Paulding, Putnam, Van Wert, and Mercer) is comprised of 875 high school seniors (as of May 2009). Approximately 52% of the sample was female. A large number of their parents were employed in the management/professional,

manufacturing, and skilled trades as professions. A relatively low percentage of the parents of these high school seniors had completed Bachelors or Graduate Degrees (approximately 22% of mothers and 17.5% of fathers). The vast majority of respondents indicated that their parents were originally from Northwest Ohio with over 80% of both parents being from the area (Table 6 and Table 7).

*Post-High School Plans of Northwest Ohio Graduating Seniors*

The researchers explored the intended high school plans of this sample of high school seniors. The vast majority (80.0%) reported an intention of attending college. Other findings include that 8.1% indicated that they were entering the workforce directly, 6.0% had chosen a trade school option, 3.1% selected a military plan, and 2.9% were unsure of their post high school plans. Of those seeking a trade school education, the most popular program areas included Auto/Mechanical (32.7%), Skilled Trades (21.2%), and Health Care (13.5%). The top three programs of study for those planning to attend college include Medical (29.7%), Business (17.1%), and Education (13.0%).

Moving outside of the home to attend college or trade school is the plan reported by 69.2% of high school seniors. Those that are moving, tend to report an overall close locale for their college/trade school of choice. In reporting the distance of their move to seek an advanced education, 63.2% reported a location less than two hours away. More than



50% of those that have selected to commute to a college or trade school will commute to seek their training.

Respondents were asked what type of job category they would seek upon graduation, if entering the workforce directly. Manufacturing, Construction/Skilled Trades, and Agriculture were the most common areas of intent for direct from high school employment. Of those working directly, 78.9% indicated that they believed they would stay in the Northwest Ohio Area for employment, while 21.1% revealed that they would be leaving the area.

#### *Impact of Youth Post-High School Plans*

The influence of college or trade school choice was evaluated using a series of Likert-Scale questions assessing influence. The strongest overall influencers on the choice of college or trade school were “Job Opportunities”, “Earning Impact”, and “Majors/Programs”. The influence of friends and the extra-curricular activities offered at the college/trade school were rated considerably lower than other variables rated in terms of their influence of the senior’s choice. Of those that were heading directly into the workforce, the top factors reported included: “Job Opportunity”, “Immediate Income/Wages”, and “School is Too Costly”. “Family Influence” and “Friend Influence” were rated lower in terms of their influence on post-high school workforce decision. Of those intending to enroll in the military, more than half agreed that they selected the military due to their “Desire to Serve Others” and “Monetary Influence”. The

influence of friends was rated considerably lower with 10.3% indicating friends played a role in their military choice.

Impacts on Youth Retention

The researchers analyzed if there was an impact on youth retention and if their respective parents were originally from Northwest Ohio themselves. Youth whose parents were born and raised in Northwest Ohio reported a significantly higher rating on the “Desire to Live in Northwest Ohio”, “Northwest Ohio will Provide a Good Job”, and “My Mother Influences me to Remain in Northwest Ohio”(p<.05). Youth whose parents were from Northwest Ohio were significantly more likely to reveal a greater employment opportunity in Northwest Ohio and that their fathers encouraged them to remain in Northwest Ohio (as compared to their peers whose parents were not originally from Northwest Ohio) (p<.05).

Not only do young people whose parents originate from Northwest Ohio tend to perceive their future employment success in Northwest Ohio more optimistically, but they also tend to have an overall more positive view of their respective community (when compared to their peers whose parents were not originally from NW Ohio). Statistically significant higher ratings were reported by seniors rating life/family quality of their community, employment growth, and cultural/entertainment options.

## **Engaging Elementary Students in Historical Thinking**

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### **Abstract**

This presentation provided an overview of a study of the development of historical thinking skills among culturally and linguistically diverse fourth grade inner city students, with a focus on a set of strategies that were developed to scaffold the development of these skills in the context of a fourth grade standards-based curriculum. Scaffolding strategies facilitated students' ability to analyze primary and secondary sources, and to make interpretations based on their analyses.

### **The Study**

There have been numerous calls among researchers of historical cognition for young people to “practice” history, rather than simply learn about history from textbooks (Brophy and VanSledright, 1997; Levstik and Barton, 1996; Sexias, 1994; Wineburg, 1991). History education reform groups have also advocated that students “do” history in K-12 classrooms (National Center for History in the Schools, 1994). However, there is a paucity of classroom research on the effectiveness of strategies for promoting historical thinking at specific grade levels, especially in the elementary school (VanSledright, 2002).

This study investigated the development of historical thinking skills among culturally and linguistically diverse fourth grade inner-city students. The study used a pre- post-test design to address the following question: Can a standards-based curriculum embedded with a set of strategies and tools designed to scaffold the development of historical thinking skills support the development of historical thinking among fourth grade students? Interview data and feedback from teachers was used to address a second question: What factors impact implementation of this curriculum in a diverse, inner-city public school classroom?

The study was conducted in the context of an in-service staff development program, under the auspices of a Teaching American History (TAH) Grant partnership between a university and a local school district. TAH staff members, including university researchers and teacher leaders, devised a set of strategies for scaffolding the development of historical thinking in the context of standards-based lessons. A fourth grade standards-based curriculum embedded with these strategies was presented to a group of fourth grade teachers in a small, urban school district serving diverse student populations, in a series of workshops. Teachers implemented the curriculum in their classrooms during the fall and spring semesters of the 2009-2010 academic year.

Scaffolding strategies included the use of a set of icons for interrogating primary and secondary sources. Icons cued students to analyze a source in terms of content, historical context, type of document, author or creator, audience, and inferred purpose of the source. Other

strategies included modeling, guided questioning and discussion, selection of sources appropriate for young learners, and use of photos and other visuals.

Data were collected using a pre- post-test design. Tests consisted of performance assessments, wherein students analyzed primary and secondary sources and fictional accounts, and made interpretations of historical events or phenomena based on their analyses of these sources. In addition, data was solicited from teachers by means of journals and interviews. Classroom observations by the researchers provided another source of data about the implementation of the curriculum, and students' participation in the activities. Also, student work collected throughout the year provided formative assessments of students' abilities to differentiate between primary sources, secondary sources, and fiction, to discuss the value of each type of source, and to analyze the sources using the icons.

Preliminary results suggest that fourth grade students are capable of engaging in some of the types of historical thinking included in the National Standards for Grades K-4 (National Center for History in the Schools, 1994), when instruction is carefully scaffolded. Students' responses on the post-test indicate their ability to “distinguish between fact and fiction”, “interrogate historical data”, and “marshal needed knowledge of the time and place, and construct a story, explanation, or historical narrative”. For example, many students were able to analyze accounts of the California mission system reflecting different perspectives, and to

create their own interpretation of the impact of the mission system on California history.

On the other hand, researchers found that a number of factors impacted the implementation of a curriculum focused on development of historical thinking skills in the elementary school classroom. These factors included time, lack of teachers' background knowledge about the content and about historical thinking, and low reading levels among English Learners.

While preliminary results suggest that students in typical fourth grade urban schools are capable of developing historical thinking skills, results point to a number of concerns and questions. First, this investigation took place in the context of an in-depth staff development program with on-going support, funded by a federal grant. Is it possible for teachers to implement a curriculum focused on historical thinking skills with a less intensive system of training and support? Can teachers learn to teach historical thinking skills in the context of a pre-service, teacher preparation program? Second, teachers in this study reported difficulties in implementing the curriculum in the face of time constraints. How can we promote teaching of historical thinking in classrooms where time is severely limited? Finally, how can we best support students with limited vocabularies and reading levels as they struggle to analyze primary source material? We hope that results from this study will inform future staff development and reform efforts, and will add to the body of

knowledge about the development of historical thinking among elementary school children.

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***Psyche as Structural Force: The Focus of Causation in History***

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For us to understand ourselves, it is important that the past is presented as a living thing. This can be done when we research with the conviction that; human heart and sensitivity was the same everywhere through ages, though lives differed. This paper is an effort to analyze the significance of psychoanalytic approach in representing history as responsive to individual personalities. I have focused on understanding the psychological structure of personality or *psyche* of some prominent women in medieval Indian history and how their *psyches* were fundamental or structural to the situation. Any change in that had the potential to change certain events, just like the structural forces.

There are incessant discussions about ‘determinism’ and ‘free will’ but ‘causation’ in history is still fundamental to all the historical discussions. However with the enlargement in the canvass of social sciences there are multiplicities of causes which can be assigned to one particular event. Historian’s task is to determine the most compelling cause and has to take the help of ancillary sciences and distinguish between different kind of causes; mechanical, architectural, geographical, biological and psychological to name the few.

*Psyche* as structural force; can be of prominent individuals or of the masses, to elaborate, in Russian revolution the *psyche* of Lenin worked



as structural force as Lenin knew his own mind as no one else did so his moves were not intercepted. When we talk of the *psyche* of masses as the structural forces of causation then we have no better examples than American Revolution, French Revolution and Industrial Revolution. When we talk about individual *psyche*; one's upbringing and earlier life experiences are determining factors in it, whereas *mass psyche* is created by the historical developments, work of fiction, media, philosophy etc.

The focus of this paper is on the individual *psyche* and how the concept of *self* evolves. There are two prevalent schools who are concerned with the processes with which the subject's identity or *self* is created. The Anglo-American school with their *object-relations theory*, focus on the early stages of development for clues to the formation of identity. While the French school or *post-structuralism* emphasize the *centrality of language* in interpreting and representing identity and gender consciousness. Based on the literary evidences, I started with the hypothesis that the *Psychic* structuring of the inmates of the Mughal *harem* was based on their earlier life experiences and those experiences created the psyche of *Self preservation*.

*Self* has multiple instincts like *self identity*, *self indulgence*, *self defense* and many more. I will be narrowing on *self preservation* as this dominated the inmates of harem. *Self preservation* is part of an organism's instinct that demands that the organism survives. Pain and fear are parts of this mechanism. In general, the distortion of the instinct of self-preservation leads the soul to adopt the quest for power, since safety as

well as pleasure is necessary in life. When the person sense an atmosphere of danger, in that instant the instinct of self-preservation starts to work. In order to ward off danger, the personality assumes certain inner and outer behavior patterns. These tendencies include aggressiveness, hostility, power drive, a need to triumph over others, competitiveness, and excessive demands.

As this paper is focusing on the *psyche* of the women in the Mughal *harem* (16-18<sup>th</sup> century) as the structural force, it is important to feel the times we are talking about. Mughal *harem* was the living quarters of the Mughal emperors of India, it included the relations like mothers, sisters, wives, daughters, aunts as well concubines and slave girls. It was a lively place, where all the amenities and pleasures were available. However beautifully or carefully crafted; this was an artificial world, which was created to meet the needs of the powerful. The *harems* were filled with an assortment of beauties from various countries and nationalities, although Indian women predominated. They could be sold, distributed or exchanged. They were never a scarce commodity; fresh arrivals or rivals were always replacing old ones. The result was the density of relationships, leading to vying for attention, positions, companionship and may be at times for love too. Therefore not all, but most of them were in perpetual fear to safeguard their interests and self-preservation dominated the *psyche* of them.

The women in the Mughal *harem* consisted of different nationalities as well as religions. Most of them were uprooted from their

families and were facing a sense of alienation. The feeling of displacement and being unwelcome in their surroundings was predominant. They were denied a firm and clear national and cultural connection and *well connected* roots. The ideas and concepts of individual liberties and civil rights changes with the perspective and distance from time but feeling of alienation and density of relationships is a mental state which is not associated with perspective but is inherent to neural processes and often results in tension and distorted sense of *self*. The structure of the *harem*; it seems to be working as a segmented unit and we have rare examples when the sense of community emerged. There were jealousies leading to treacheries finally culminating into depressions and suicides. Many such incidences were suppressed but some of them surfaced in case of inmate being of consequential importance. Although sporadic incidences can not be ignored when the sense of community emerged in harem but more or less it was not a family and so there was no support system. Their *psyche* disintegrated under the multiple layers of stress. They wore the most expensive cloths, and enjoyed all the worldly pleasures but it was all worthless for them as they were denied the basic pleasures of life. Those who could not endure the pressures and depressions either became *insomniac* or succumbed to life. The feminine sensibility is true to the essence of each experience. However individual circumstances act as a slight twist of the kaleidoscope and the panorama, though basically the same, varies in pattern again and again.

To elaborate how the psyche of self preservation, worked as the structural force, I will be using the case study of Maham Anga, the wet nurse of Mughal Emperor Akbar(1551-1605 AD) who on account of abundant sense and loyalty, held high place in his esteem. But as always the ties of love and trust, not supported by the relationships are tenacious and susceptible to give way under ambitions and pressures. Her son, Adham khan was regarded as foster brother of Akbar. Maham Anga was in charge of household and harem and even the regent Bairam Khan sought her assurances at the time of suspicions and made sure to win Maham Anga to his side. With the rapid rise in regent's power, Maham Anga became alarmed as she was not prepared to tolerate the exercise of powers by regent as *de facto* sovereign. After the return of royal ladies to India they discussed the issue and a definite line of action was drafted to curb the power of Bairam Khan. The fountainhead of these efforts was Maham Anga.

Although Akbar treated her as her mother but after the return of royal ladies and Akbar's real mother she was apprehensive of her position and wanted to achieve the political mileage over others. She could also foresee the lacuna between the downfall of Bairam Khan and Akbar's taking over the administration. This was a period of extreme insecurity for her and she attempted to take control of the situation before being out casted by the turn of events. She tried to secure political control by replacing Bairam Khan and instigated Akbar against him. Due to this power tussle Bairam Khan erred and Maham Anga gained foothold.

Bairam Khan was asked to leave the empire and go for pilgrimage and after his departure she undertook the charge of affairs. Though officially Bahadur Khan was the *wakil* but in reality the business was transacted by Maham Anga. This was the zenith of her power and she successfully preserved her *Self*. Her downfall started when Adham Khan, her son behaved in highhanded manner and was punished by Akbar, who threw him twice from the parapet. When Maham Anga came to know of this she visited Akbar, he told her that, as Adham killed Atka Khan, 'we have inflicted retaliation on him', Maham Anga replied, 'you did well' She did not complained or lamented but retired to her house and after forty days died of the sorrow. So the insecurities and *psyche* of self preservation of Maham Anga caused the forced retirement of Bairam Khan, whetted Adham Khan's appetite for power leading to the murder of Atka Khan and her own death. All these events led to the revolts of Irani nobles and eventually the establishment of Akbar's sovereign rule.

## Searching for a Consensus on Terminology of “THINKING” in Three NCSS Journals

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Since the inception of social studies, teaching students thinking skills has been its primary goal. Scholars generally held that “good thinking is a prerequisite for good citizenship” (Nickerson, 1987, p.31). Although teaching students thinking skills was perceived important, research studies as well as extensive reviews of literature have shown that in social studies classroom practices, thinking has been unsuccessful (McKee, 1988; Newmann, 1991; Onosko, 1991; Unks, 1985; Wright, 1995).

As to explain “why’s” of the absence of thinking, scholars focused on terminological confusion and the lack of an established conception of thinking. Since the early days, many scholars have noted that there is an absence of common definition of thinking and the meaning of thinking or critical thinking is somewhat vague or generic (Anderson, 1947; Beyer, 1985, 1988; Madison, 1977; McKay & Gibson, 2004; Newmann, 1991; Parker, 1991; Taba, 1967; Wilen, 1996). Besides, many of these authors have also claimed that the term thinking is one of the most extensively used yet confusing terms of the social studies literature.

For example, one scholar identified that the term thinking usually equated or used interchangeably with inquiry, logical reasoning, problem

solving or decision-making in the social studies literature (Beyer, 1985) and even cross-indexed in social studies textbooks (Wright, 1993). In the absence of a consensus in the literature, Parker (1991) identified terms such as critical thinking, creative thinking, problem solving, decision making, divergent and convergent thinking, metacognition, schema, domain specific and general thinking skills, dispositions, everyday reasoning, and higher order thinking used to describe various kinds of thinking. As a partial solution, many of these scholars have long supported clarifying the terminological uncertainty and argued that an agreed-upon conceptualization is definitely essential. Upon reviewing the literature Parker (1991) concluded no established consensus exists yet.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the terminology of thinking in three major journals of NCSS, *Social Education*, *Social Studies and the Young Learner*, and *Middle Level Learning*, between 1977 and 2006 and to search for a common terminology for thinking. These journals are identified because they are the major journals of NCSS, probably the most influential organization in the field since 1921, and are the important sources for discussion of social studies and teaching methodology for social studies teachers in United States and, to some extent, abroad. This study was guided by the following questions: Is there a common terminology of thinking? What terminology scholars used? Is there a particular term scholars have been favoring?

In this study, historical method was used. Based on the previous literature reviews (e.g., Cornbleth, 1985; Parker, 1991; McKay and

Gibson, 2004) the researcher identified words thinking, critical thinking, decision making, and problem solving as search keywords. Then, she accessed back issues of the three journals and looked for the each keyword within each article. Each published article analyzed by critically looking at the first couple of paragraphs and skimming the rest to determine whether or not that particular article is relevant to the purpose of the study. A total of one hundred thirty two (132) articles were identified and analyzed.

The analysis of published journal articles indicated that:

1- Scholars' application of terminology of thinking was problematic and confusing. Two patterns were identified, in particular, related to this confusion:

- Scholars used a variety of terms to refer thinking,
- Many of them did not provide a definition for the term(s) they utilized, used terms interchangeably, without making a clear distinction among them.

2- Scholars' terminology preferences for thinking remained mostly the same between 1977 and 2006.

3- The term *critical thinking* has been by far the most popular and the most frequently used term within the examined journal articles.

One implication to be drawn from this conclusion is that the term critical thinking needs to be more than a synonym for thinking, but a common term for thinking.



<u>1977 - 1986</u>	<u>1987 - 1996</u>	<u>1997 - 2006</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Critical Thinking*</li> <li>• Thinking</li> <li>• Problem solving</li> <li>• Decision making</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Critical Thinking*</li> <li>• Thinking</li> <li>• Higher order thinking</li> <li>• Inquiry</li> <li>• Problem solving</li> <li>• Decision making</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Critical Thinking*</li> <li>• Decision making</li> <li>• Higher order thinking</li> <li>• Problem solving</li> <li>• Inquiry</li> </ul>

Terms related to the teaching of Thinking (\* indicates the most frequently used term)

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**Turkish Middle School Student Responses to Social Studies Concept  
Questions on the 2010 Level Determination Exam in Turkey**

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Concept learning in social studies has been studied extensively in the United States over the past 50 years (see, for example, Hunt & Metcalf, 1968; Martorella, 1971; Taba, 1965). In the ten themes of National Council for the Social Studies (1994), concept attainment plays key role. Therefore, students need to learn concepts in order to understand the principle of social studies and to “develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good” (NCSS, 1994, p.3). While, social studies educators have different ideas about purposes of social studies (Brubaker, 1967; Fenton, 1967; Hunt & Metcalf, 1968), many agree with Martorella (1971) that concept learning is likely to be a highly desirable educational outcome.

Elementary and middle school social studies courses connect one year's knowledge with next year's knowledge; they must master each year's (Ulgen, 2001). As noted, one of the social studies instruction's central objectives has been the learning of concepts (Fancett, 1968; Hunt & Metcalf, 1968; Martorella, 1971). If students' concept attainment occurs in the correct way, students can make a connection with their previous learning and it effects students' future academic achievement.

Concept attainment is a cornerstone of social studies to help students to make informed and reasonable decisions and therefore is a fundamental and challenging to social studies content (Sunal & Haas, 2005). Social studies textbooks are indispensable tools of social studies teachers. Even though, they are using other sources, acquisition of concept play the key role for students understanding. Most of the time students are requested to read chapters of textbooks and independently comprehend the material from textbooks (Reyes, 1983). Therefore, it can be concluded that concept attainment plays critical role to comprehend social studies textbooks.

The purpose of this study was examine whether there was a difference of 6<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> graders responses on concept questions and other type of questions on 2010 Level Determination Exam (SBS) in Turkey to better understand the achievement of concept teaching at 6<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> grade social studies class in the 2010. Also, this study attempts to identify the relationship of the number of correct answers of concept questions in this test.

We hypothesized that students were less likely to choose the correct answer for the concept questions. However, this data showed that 6<sup>th</sup> graders could respond the concept questions more successfully than non-concept questions. Like the 6<sup>th</sup> graders, it seems that 7<sup>th</sup> graders in the current population provided correct responses to concept questions more than non-concept questions. There is no consensus in choosing correct answers across concept questions. For example, in 7<sup>th</sup> grade exam, question three and six which are concept questions students are more

likely to choose incorrect answer while for question 10, 82 percent of the students chose correct answer. It shows that there is no consensus in choosing correct answers across concept questions.

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### **Furthering Civic Aims through Primary Source Analysis**

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In the past two decades, historical thinking has taken a prominent place in scholarship of the social studies. The twin missions of this scholarship are to identify the specific mental activities historians perform in making sense of the past and to determine how learning experiences can be devised to aid young people in acquiring similar capabilities (Van Sledright, 2002; Wineburg, 2001). Inevitably, since they serve as the raw materials for historical inquiry, primary sources have been at the center of attention.

Broadly speaking, the rationales for using primary sources can be classified into three overlapping types: pedagogical, disciplinary, and civic. The pedagogical rationale emphasizes promoting student interest and engagement in the study of the past; the disciplinary rationale emphasizes students acquiring the habits of mind employed by historians. These rationales support the civic mission of the social studies: to cultivate the capacities and commitments needed for effective participation in public life. However, because of historians' regard for the integrity of the past, the civic rationale for using primary sources in the classroom has been de-emphasized. The social studies and civics, after all, have long

been associated with instructional approaches that prioritize contemporary issues, decision-making, and values (Evans, 2004; Leming, Ellington, & Porter-Magee, 2003). Using excerpts from primary sources as a platform for deliberating upon the right and the good (Parker, 2003) involves, almost inevitably, making judgments that invoke criteria that transcend particular contexts and considerations that are drawn from present-day experiences. Civic educators' tendency to stress the importance of understanding and applying concepts, particularly those derived from political science (Patrick, 2003), poses less difficulty for sound historical thinking. However, when applied to historical settings, concepts such as power, justice, and rights, and even citizen, highlight the similarities—not the distinctiveness—of past and present.

Can the historians' concerns be reconciled with those of civic educators? Can historians' concern for the particular (needed to decode primary sources) and the contextual (needed to fully understand primary sources, as well as to treat them as sightlines into the life of past) be reconciled with civic educators' concern for concepts (needed to understand the institutions and ideals of governance) and values (needed to weigh the good in policy affairs)? This paper suggests that the history/social studies classroom can have the best of all possible worlds in using primary sources. Purposeful selection of primary sources serves as the starting point. In addition to the usual criteria for source-selection, such as readability, centrality, and interest, primary sources can be chosen based on their potential to illustrate concepts related to governance or to

serve as entry points for exploring the principles or value claims inherent in an historical event (Potter, 2005a; Potter, 2005b). Assuming that sources are chosen to advance civics aims (concepts and values), the burden for reconciling competing historicist and civics priorities falls upon the instructional method.

Given the balancing act that must be achieved, the student-centered approach that is commonly advocated cannot assume the burden. In this approach, students use a heuristic device (that incorporates aspects of historical thinking) to analyze primary sources and draw conclusions about an historical problem. Typically, the heuristic device includes prompts intended to aid students in decoding and to remind them to think about relevant conditions and events (Drake & Nelson, 2009; Swan, Hofer, & Locascio, 2007). The problem with the approach is two-fold. First, decoding a primary source involves a complex set of thinking skills; for students to acquire and use appropriately complex thinking skills, direct instruction and modeling by an experienced thinker/teacher is required (Beyer, 2008). Second, fully understanding a primary source and recognizing its significance requires considerable background knowledge about its context. One must know what sorts of things to look for when reading the source and what sorts of things to connect to outside of it. A one-size-fits-all sourcing heuristic cannot supply this knowledge or direction. For this reason, some scholars of historical thinking emphasize the importance of a teacher's carefully-designed guiding questions, explanations, and verbalized reasoning processes (Reisman & Wineburg,



2008). If a primary source has been selected to do double-duty in the service of historical thinking and civics instruction, the teacher's role becomes doubly important. The student—already disadvantaged by his lack of contextual knowledge—will not likely be aware of the civics concepts and values considerations that motivated the teacher to select the primary source in the first place.

The approach that the authors have developed is the “text-context-concepts-values” strategy. To use this strategy, in combination with a modified interactive lecture format, the teacher chooses a primary source with an eye to reinforcing students' understanding of particular concepts or to exploring values. Prior to the class session, the teacher designs a set of guiding questions that, roughly-speaking, target each of the components in sequence (depending on the source, variations in sequencing may be needed, as in the demonstration included in the appendix). Several initial questions focus on comprehending the meaning of the text (its main ideas, unusual terminology, and implicit references). A few questions interrogate the text (its author's purpose and target audience) and bring relevant aspects of the historical context (signal events, conditions, ideas) to bear upon its contents. One or two pointed questions focus students' attention on the concepts or value considerations that were behind the teacher's selection of the source. These questions may lead back into fuller consideration of the historical context or to a recap of the main ideas of the lesson. Alternatively, the concepts/values questions may lead to brief discussion of parallel developments in other times (or places) in history, or

to brief discussion of events or conditions in the present-day that embody similar concepts or values considerations. With its emphasis on close reading and contextualization of primary sources, this strategy captures the concerns of the historically-minded. With its deliberate source selection and focused attention on concepts and values, this strategy channels historical thinking toward civic aims.

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**Tradition, Memory and Truth:  
Affirming Portuguese Communities in the Global State**

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**Abstract**

In the current framework of global competition, cities and regions claim their cultural difference (re)inventing traditions and memories. The cultural diversity or the (re)invented tradition and memory which they advocate, allow them a new position in the global space.

As an anthropologist, I have been researching the invention of regional traditions in Portugal. In this process, the memory of the past seems to justify the present existence of the region and its projection in the national and European framework. The community that I have been studying, called Leiria, is located in the north of Lisbon. Its memory, written by local elites, oscillates between an Arab tradition, and the Christian presence. According to some national historians, the foundation of the Leiria region was due to the action of the first Portuguese king, Afonso Henriques, and the Christian reconquest. So, this text aims to explain the tensions resulting from different visions of the past which created several "truths" about regionalisms in Portugal.

**Portuguese Regions Reinvention and Tradition Rule**

In my research I interviewed some leaders of the region. My aim was to research their views about the tradition reinvention in the

affirmation of the Portuguese Leiriense region and its projection in an increasingly globalized world. Some regional leaders that I interviewed like Acácio Sousa, Orlando Cardoso or Saul António Gomes (historian), and other leiriense leader's like Tomás Oliveira Dias or even the ethnographer Travaços dos Santos, invoke the historical tradition to claim their belonging feelings to a territory coinciding with the Leiria region. It's an operation where the *establishment of local traditions and the new social frameworks' construction of collective memory are processes through which the intellectual, political and economic authors make and impose representations about themselves and about their communities* (Davault, 2004).

So, in this context, makes sense to ask: what does cultural tradition means? How and why are so many oral and written leaders' speeches, claiming the historical tradition as the basis of a city or a regions' legitimating? Eric Hobsbawm and Terence Ranger (1984) define the tradition as *a set of practices, normally governed by rules tacitly or openly accepted; these ritual practices of a symbolic nature, are intended to inculcate certain values and norms of behavior through repetition, which automatically implies continuity with the past* (Hobsbawm e Ranger, 1984), and the tradition, as a cultural achievement, cannot be looked at in an essentialist way. These are created cultural events and occur in a given space and defined time according to the society in which we are inserted (Hobsbawm e Ranger, 1984; Foster, 1991).

According to Josep Ballart, tradition is a key element of social cohesion, allowing social stability through time. Tradition can be understood as the ideas, customs and beliefs process transmission (Ballart, 2002) as well as all other human acts, whether oral or written. Objects and other material or immaterial culture elements, are signals - recorded time - left for future generations.

Regarding the Leiria region, José Travaços dos Santos refers to an Arab tradition, often hidden, but which continues to define the leiriense inhabitant's behavior. The Arabic heritage can be seen in poetry, tales and stories, in civil architecture (fig. 2) and national monuments located in the region, *establishing continuity with a suitable historic past* (Hobsbawm e Ranger, 1984).

Ernesto Korrodi [1870-1944], another regional leader referred to this Arab past when he edited *Studies for the Leiria Castle Reconstruction*, 1898. The author defended the Arab architectural influence in the castle building. It features an *Arabic stamp, in a region where there are few examples [...] of the Moorish art combined with Christian. This Moorish art had influenced the carpentry civil art, mainly until the sixteenth century* (Korrodi, 1898).

Orlando Ribeiro, a prominent Portuguese geographer noted the Arab influence in the south of Portugal. In his view, *the Mozarabic were numerous in the southern lands: they were half the population of Lisbon, in the early twelfth century* (Ribeiro, 1977). Moreover, according to historian Saul António Gomes, the Arab presence did not have an

important role in the region foundation. The foundation of the Leiria region was due, in their view, to the action of King Afonso Henriques and the Christian reconquest. As a consequence, the king built the Leiria castle in the first half of the twelfth century. The Muslim heritage, visible in the castle architecture, was due to the fact that the Mozarabic, having worked for the first Portuguese king, helped to build the castle and other buildings (Gomes, 2004).

On the other hand, the establishment of the Cistercian Order in the region, in the twelfth century, was very important for the development of economic, social and cultural relations between the first inhabitants of the region. From there, people developed a common sense of belonging. According to Saul António Gomes, the Dominican and Cistercian territorial occupation, during the Christian reconquest, explain the foundation and further development of the community. This event attracted people who settled and created wealth, contributing to those who had inhabited the region, in a collective effort to unite the community. This effort materialization ended in the construction of Alcobaça and Batalha monasteries. As the author said, *the monasteries construction has brought a lot of labor-skilled for the region* (Gomes, 2007).

The outlook of many Leiriense authors shows a dynamic memory of the origins. In this process, memory reveals itself as flexible, versatile, soft and fragile, that collects, holds, shapes, and brings us back to reality and intimate sharing of our personal identity, collective and cultural in different truths (Le Goff, 1982a, 1982b; Cano, 2006). For this reason one

can't say that the monuments were necessarily created to realize a sense belonging to a community. According to Jacques Le Goff (1982b), *what survives is not the whole of what existed in the past, but a choice made partly by the forces operating in the temporal development of the world and humanity, both by those engaged in the science of the past, historians (Le Goff, 1982b) and anthropologists.*

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**Making Connections:  
Making Social Studies Personal for Pre-Service Teachers**

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When my elementary social studies methods students enter my class, on the whole, they have had little instruction in social studies. Many are nervous or afraid to be responsible to teach a subject they know so little about. They do not see the relevance of the subject to their own lives, much less the lives of the elementary students they will teach. In addition, when they go to their field placement classroom they are likely to be placed with a teacher who is disinclined to “make room” for social studies in the school day. Teachers feel pressured to emphasize reading and math in order to prepare their students for high-stakes state testing.

This is the dilemma I have struggled with as a social studies methods instructor. How can I help my teacher candidates make a personal connection to social studies? How can I help them become familiar with the state social studies standards? How can I give them the confidence and enthusiasm they need to teach social studies in their own classrooms?

The idea for the solution to this problem came from Dr. Janet Alleman at Michigan State University. She developed an assignment called “Social Studies is Everywhere” which she developed to give her students an assignment to complete over spring break that would bring them back to the classroom excited and ready to learn about social studies.

I adjusted this assignment to fit my needs and have had great success with it.

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**Citizenship Education for Social Justice: Promoting Active  
Citizenship through Adolescent Literature and Service Learning**

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In the United States, schools were created to prepare individuals for citizenship (Carnegie Corporation of New York & The Center for Information and Research on Civic Engagement and Learning, 2003). Likewise, the No Child Left Behind Act of 2002, section 2342, expects schools “to foster civic competence and responsibility” (United States Dept. of Education, 2001, para. 2). Educators can help their students practice active citizenship by having them explore a social justice issue such as poverty through non-fiction and global adolescent literature; the class can then take action to address the root cause of poverty on the domestic and international level.

Poverty can result in terrible problems such as starvation, malnourishment, disease, limited or no opportunities for education, and many forms of mistreatment and abuse. Based on the countries that reported data, the Central Intelligence Agency World Factbook (Central Intelligence Agency, 2010) noted that 26 countries have 50% or more of their country’s people living below their country’s poverty line. After studying the topic of poverty using non-fiction sources, the class can examine the topic through global adolescent literature. While poverty is an abstract concept, books such as *Sacred Leaf: The Cocalero Novels* (Ellis,

2007), *The Breadwinner* (Ellis, 2001), *Kira-Kira* (Kadohata, 2004), *Esperanza Rising* (Ryan, 2000), and *One Hen: How One Small Loan Made a Big Difference* (Milway, 2008) help students empathize with people suffering from poverty in different parts of the world. Literature on poverty can be organized into a text set to encourage students to make text-to-text connections. In approaching the text set, the class can be divided into groups, with each group assigned to read a different book. Each member of a group can discuss the book he or she has read by participating in a literature circle. They can discuss the characters in the book, the theme, and their personal connection to the book (Applegate, Quinn, & Applegate, 2006; Sandmann & Gruhler, 2007; Schlick Noe & Johnson, 1999); then, the literature groups can share their results with the entire class. The class can also make text-to-world connections to other countries where hunger exists such as the Republic of the Congo, Haiti, Bangladesh, Ethiopia, Somalia, Pakistan, and Indonesia. Next, through a service learning project, the class can demonstrate active citizenship and address a root cause of poverty. For example, to promote domestic citizenship, the students can organize a fundraiser to obtain gardening supplies and vegetable plants for local families facing poverty. From the vegetables, the families can receive food and have the opportunity to sell the remaining food at the local farmer's market. To address poverty on the international front, the class can organize a fundraiser for Heifer International (n.d.). This organization addresses poverty by providing livestock to families in need. For example, the organization might provide

a family with a chicken. The family can use the eggs laid by the chicken for food and sell the remaining eggs for profit. After completing the service learning project, the students can write a short reflective paper discussing what they learned from the project and how it might be improved the next year.

Educators can play an important role in students' lives by preparing them for domestic and international citizenship. By integrating non-fiction sources, global adolescent literature, and service learning into the classroom, teachers can help students understand an abstract social justice issue such as poverty, demonstrate active citizenship, and address a root cause of poverty on the domestic and international levels.

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**The United States Pledge of Allegiance:  
Reflections from a Native American Perspective**

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Students across the United States take part in daily recitations of the Pledge of Allegiance. Yet, empirical investigations of this practice are limited. Surveying teacher education students, Nash (2005) found that they did not express “any qualms about mandated forms of patriotism” (p. 223). After conducting approximately 100 seminars with people involved in education at various levels, Parker (2009) concluded that “few have seriously given thought to its [the Pledge’s] meaning” (p. 70). Researchers (Gaffney & Gaffney, 1996; Nash, 2005; Parker, 2009; Witherell, 1992) have not investigated the potential influence of participants’ race or ethnicity on their attitude toward the Pledge. In contrast, this study explored Native American students’ perceptions of the United States Pledge of Allegiance.

Over a one-week period, a survey was administered to 88 Mohawk students (40 males and 48 females) in a rural high school that is approximately 2/3 Mohawk and 1/3 Caucasian. The question of interest here is: “While the United States Pledge of Allegiance is being recited, do you say it? Why or why not?” Because the reservation straddles the border of the United States and Canada, Native American students could claim

three types of national citizenship: Mohawk Nation, Canada, and the United States.

Of the 88 Mohawk students, 74 students indicated that they did not recite the Pledge of Allegiance. Asked about their reason for not reciting it, there were three main themes. Twenty-two students (29.73%) cited their ethnicity, 20 students (27.03%) did not provide a reason, and 11 students (14.86%) who indicated that they simply wanted to sit or stand silently during the Pledge.

What might explain these Mohawk students' indifference toward the Pledge? Four major factors may be involved. Early socialization at an elementary school on the reservation may have encouraged a strong affinity for the Mohawk Nation. When asked why he didn't say the Pledge, one student—who resided in the United States portion of the reservation—wrote, “No, because I don't consider myself an American citizen.” Another student wrote, “No, I don't believe I have to pledge allegiance to a flag that doesn't stand for my Nation.”

Another potential explanation is the historical treatment of Native Americans by the United States government. One student explained that when the Pledge is recited, “I think about how we as Native Americans were pushed off our land and forced to pledge allegiance to their flag.” Some high school students connected that past to their personal status as independent-minded citizens who were capable of constructing their own identities. One student captured this complex relationship between history, citizenship rituals, and personal autonomy vividly:



I do not say it, or stand for it because I choose to decline this 'allegiance' in which my own people are harmed, herded, and abused behind the curtain of government. I chose to celebrate my own rights to make my own choices for my own life as a 'citizen' of a sovereign Nation.

Another explanation resides in the school district's recent elimination of the public recitation of the traditional Mohawk Thanksgiving Address (a ritual expression of gratitude for the earth, its features, and inhabitants). Two years earlier, students petitioned the school district to be permitted to recite the Thanksgiving Address alongside the Pledge of Allegiance. The practice was eliminated after non-Native community members protested and the state court system ruled that a recitation of the Thanksgiving Address over the public address system violated the principle of separation of church and state. Subsequently, the school district permitted students to voluntarily gather in the auditorium to recite the Thanksgiving Address at the start and close of the week.

Having experienced the Pledge of Allegiance alongside the Thanksgiving Address heightened students' awareness of the intention behind the practice: to promote attachment to a civil religion (Gamoran, 1990). Interpreting the Pledge as a prayer, they insisted that they should not be subjected to it. Mohawk students commonly referred to the Pledge as "a prayer" and recitation as akin to praying. One student, for example, after noting that she should not be required to pledge allegiance to another nation's flag wrote, "I also believe that this [the Pledge] is a prayer."

To what extent the Mohawk students' refusal represents rejection of United States citizenship and to what extent it represents a protest against school policy is unclear. Clearly, their encounters with the Pledge were filtered through their experiences as students, as well as their Mohawk identity. Their behavior directly contrasts with the receptivity toward the Pledge (Nash, 2005) and thoughtlessness about it (Parker, 2009) revealed in other studies. Furthermore, surveys of youth behavior indicate that, typically, youth engage in personally-responsible citizenship in which individuals follow laws and volunteer. These Mohawk students present something of an exception: by refusing to recite the Pledge, they sought to make their views known to school officials, thereby displaying what Westheimer and Kahne (2004) describe as justice-oriented citizenship. The students' dissent did not reverse school policy, but it did succeed in creating an environment in which reciting the Pledge became an anomaly rather than the norm.

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### Using Virtual Field Trips to Enrich Civic Education

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One of the main functions of social studies education is citizenship preparation (National Council for the Social Studies, 1994), and field trips can serve as valuable opportunities to enhance citizenship education. However, teachers who want to take their students on a field trip can face challenges such as the cost of entrance fees at the school trip site, the ability to obtain school buses for the trip, the cost of paying the school bus drivers, the travel time to and from the site, and restricted access for disabled students at some historic field trip sites. A virtual field trip can provide a feasible alternative.

Virtual field trips simulate a visit to a location from the past or the present. Through free downloadable programs such as Google Earth, students can fly through ancient Rome or zoom into present day locations around the world to supplement the class instruction (Google, 2010). For example, a common topic in Civics and United States history classes is the three branches of government. Educators can supplement their instruction with virtual visits to locations such as the White House, the state capitol, or the local court house.

Virtual field trips are not limited to Google Earth. With a flip camera, educators can create their own virtual field trip. For example, the authors created a virtual field trip on the voter registration process. In a Civics class and a United States history class, educators may discuss the importance of voting. However, students may not know where they can go to register to vote, or they may not know how to register to vote. Armed with a flip camera, the authors videotaped a visit to the local elections board. The virtual field trip showed how individuals can register to vote, the voter registration form, and one of the authors conducted an interview a representative of the elections board. During our interview, the representative answered our questions on the registration process and discussed the importance of voting in our democratic society. While our example addressed voter registration, educators can create their own virtual field trips on other social studies topics to enrich the class curriculum.

Virtual field trips can also be integrated into a service learning project. In a current events class or a service learning class, an educator can use virtual field trips to supplement instruction on a social justice issue such as economic disparity, and the class can create an action plan to reduce domestic or international poverty. The census data from 2000 indicates that Parmelee, South Dakota possesses 650 people and a per capita income of \$2,946 while Jupiter Island, Florida includes 620 people and a per capita income of \$200,001 (U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.). However, seeing the contrast between the mansions with private pools or tennis

courts at Jupiter Island, Florida versus the rural homes in Parmelee, South Dakota on Google Earth visually highlights the economic disparity. The teacher can also take the students on virtual field trips to the local food bank and the homeless shelter. The directors of the local food bank and the homeless shelter can visit the class as guest speakers, or they can visit via video conferencing using free technology such as Skype. After learning about the byproducts of poverty, the class can create an action plan to address poverty. On the local level, the class can organize a coat and mitten drive for the homeless shelter, or they can collect canned food for the local food bank. On the domestic and international level, the class can conduct a fundraiser to buy building supplies for Habitat for Humanity. This non-profit group seeks to end the cycle of poverty by having volunteers and future recipients build homes for families in need. Recipient families help build their home, put down a down payment, make mortgage payments, attend homeowner education classes, agree to a non-profit mortgage, and agree to help to build homes for other families who want to achieve the dream of home ownership (Habitat for Humanity International, 2011). On the international level, the class can organize a fundraiser for Heifer International (Heifer International, n.d.); this non-profit group addresses the root cause of hunger by providing livestock such as a chickens to a family in need. The family can then use the eggs for food and can sell the extra eggs for profit. As the livestock matures, the family gives livestock to another family in need. Through active citizenship, students learn that they can make a difference for fellow

citizens by addressing the byproducts of poverty on the local level and by focusing on the root causes of poverty on the domestic or international levels.

In summary, while some school districts have eliminated traditional field trips due to budget cuts, virtual field trips can supplement citizenship preparation in the social studies classroom. Educators can create their own virtual field trip on topics such as voter registration and the importance of voting. Virtual field trips also can be used to raise awareness about social justice issues such as economic disparity; in response, the class can take action to reduce a byproduct of poverty and a root cause of poverty. The goal of social studies education is citizenship preparation (National Council for the Social Studies, 1994), and virtual field trips are a tool that educators can use to help prepare students for active citizenship in our democratic society.

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**“How Can I Establish a Relationship With Someone I Never See?”**

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With the influx of online courses in the past decade, educators have often found it difficult to establish relationships with students that they never see. In this workshop, relationship-building strategies and techniques that were found to be statistically significant in the following study were discussed and practiced, leaving participants with tangible tools to build relationships both online and face to face.

Florida Virtual School was established in 1997 as an online education alternative for the residents of Florida. A statistical analysis of organizational, federal, and state policy changes was conducted spanning a ten year period at FLVS; the purpose of the study was to determine how policy changes impact student success in the secondary online education environment as measured by the student’s final letter grade in a course. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) found that the difference in student outcomes over the ten year period was statistically significant and warranted further research; therefore, regression analysis was conducted. Regression analysis found that the policy changes at FLVS over the ten year period explained some of the variance detected in the change in the mean, or GPA, of the school. Interestingly, policies that contained a relationship-building component (monthly phone calls and discussion based assessments) had the most impact on student success, thereby



indicating that building a positive relationship with online students is an important factor in the student's success in an online course.

## Teaching History Content with Video Games

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### Introduction

Our students play video games! In fact, they are probably more interested in playing a video game than doing homework assignments, taking notes, or talking about social studies related content with their peers. Video games have come a long way since they were first developed nearly fifty years ago. Now players are able to explore distant places from different times in highly detailed, realistic environments. They can lead the armies of Ancient Rome in tactical battles against the Barbarian hordes to save the empire. Video games even allow users to develop dynamic cityscapes; including infrastructure and policies preferences; to ensure simulated citizens are happy, prosperous and safe. They are interesting, fast-paced, self contained and entertaining. How can we compete?

### Why Use A Video Game?

Long ago, John Dewey recognized that powerful and sustained learning occurs when students are immersed in experience. Video games offer teachers an opportunity to engage students in unique learning experiences. The idea that games can be used as an educational tool is not new. Board games, for instance, have been used to teach character education in western culture for at least 150 years (Brown, 2008).

However, given the current generations penchant for life highly infused with technology, video games provide new avenues to reach students.

In the past decade, the technological innovations have become so profound in gaming technology that game designers are able to create interactive environments in which players must negotiate a series of complex tasks. No longer are players passively following a static story line, where a singular path will warrant success. Rather, video games have become sophisticated enough that they are a modern “choose your own adventure story” with open-ended problems that affect the outcome of a player’s experience (Shaffer, Squire, Halverson, & Gee, 2005).

Social Studies practitioners surely can use other means of immersing students in social studies content, however, what is unique about using a video game is they do so by *doing*, not by *passively* reading or theorizing about it (Squire, 2006). Shaffer, et al (2005) contend “video games are important because they let people participate in new worlds. They let players think, talk and act in new ways. Indeed, players come to in *inhabit* roles that are otherwise inaccessible to them” (p. 105). Much of the research focusing on video games as a way to teach argues the benefits of immersive environments to teach content in situated contexts, where players engage in learning experiences just for the pleasure of doing so (Brown, 2008; Squire, DeVane, & Durga, 2008; Gee, 2007; Squire, 2003a & 2003b). Moreover, research suggests that video games have a positive effect on student motivation (Bowman, 1982) and opportunity to learn history content (Lee and Probert, 2010).

### **Teaching Methodology**

To test the notion of using a video game to teach history content, a lesson plan built around Civilization IV by Firaxis Studios was developed. It was chosen for its depth and ease of game-play. This lesson was tested in a high school world history classroom and is appropriate for middle and secondary students. The primary focus is the exploration of the close relationship civilization development has with the advance of technology in a secondary social studies classroom. A secondary result of game play, causes students to be exposed to economic concepts; specifically, production capacity, distribution, and allocation of scarce resources. Over two days, student groups will develop two civilizations from infancy. One day focusing production capacity on food, culture, wealth or building production and the next balancing out productions to include scientific research to ensure technological advancement. Students recorded the total score (indicating civilization development), major events and accomplishments in both game's scenarios.

### **Feedback**

The feedback from students, teachers and administrators regarding the use of this lesson was extremely positive. Students loved it because they were literally building an empire from scratch and having fun doing so. The teacher enjoyed seeing his students be creative and engaged. The school principal was amazed by how focused the students were and how well they were working in groups together in an semi-autonomous environment. We were encouraged by how deliberative students were in

their groups when making decisions and the sophisticated arguments student demonstrated regarding the lesson guiding questions.

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**Deliberation and Experiential Education through the Lessons of Paris**

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For almost one hundred years, educators have used model deliberative bodies (e.g. Model United Nations) as a pedagogical tool to teach the complexities of diplomatic negotiations, geopolitical realities, and civic engagement. We believe that this type of role-playing may also serve another function, one more geared toward understanding the historical realities of a specific time and place. This tool has the potential to propel students into the thick of historical thinking by fostering historical empathy and strengthening analytical and decision-making skills.

Propelled by the Bradley Commission on History in the Schools, emphasis on historical thinking has been at the forefront of teaching and learning history for well over two decades (Evans, 2005). Tenets of historical thinking have encouraged students to employ practices often utilized by historians including issues-analysis, decision-making and recognition of historical perspective within the context of the time period under investigation (National Center for History in the Schools, Historical

Thinking Standard 5). Role-play and classroom simulations provide a vehicle for such historical empathy and higher-order thinking beyond memorization of names and dates of history and even beyond traditional classroom discussion (Handan, 2007; Jensen, 2008). Effective historical simulations often involve deliberative experiences through which students gain authentic experience of the historical actors and the conditions under which they lived.

To call for deliberation from our students, challenges them to resolve an issue, problem, or conflict based on a thoughtful examination of facts, a key ingredient in historical thinking (Wineburg, 2006). One salient example of an event in history, which provides myriad opportunity for such deliberative expression, is the Paris Peace Conference of 1919. This watershed occasion is not only addressed in most state standards, but its examination provides crucial foundational knowledge of the geopolitical climate that directly influenced subsequent events of the twentieth century including World War II and the Cold War.

The Paris Peace Conference negotiations required the Big Four (France, Italy, Great Britain, and the United States) to become more cognizant of long ignored ethnic, geographic, religious, and economic issues, and challenged them to face entirely new issues as well. It required the negotiators to make decisions based on principle as well as political expediency (MacMillan, 2003). With hindsight, many would argue that the negotiators in Paris, including the U.S. did not always hold true to their principles (Schmitz, 1999), and that the decisions made at the Paris Peace

Conference helped to bring about the conditions that led to World War II (Weinberg, 1999). A classroom exercise in which students are faced with deliberative challenges based on the post-World War I conference is an effort to provide students the opportunity to experience some of the complexities that went into these Paris negotiations through a simulation of the deliberative process.

### **Lesson Overview**

In this activity, teachers will engage students in a simulated experience of the Paris Peace Conference. Students will actively role-play members of various delegations from around the world, including the Big Four and other interested parties. This lesson may serve as a culminating activity following a unit on World War I. Student assessment is based on the quality of their written artifacts and their in-class performance as delegation representatives.

### **Lesson Directions**

Upon completion of lessons and activities related to World War I, the teacher establishes delegate groups, based on regions addressed in 1919, in an effort to provide students realistic simulation of grappling with regional challenges as well as national needs. For example, Poles, Czechs, and Slovaks represent Northern Europe, Turks, Arabs, and Jews represent the Middle East, Japanese and Chinese represent Asia and Greeks, Yugoslavs and Romanians represent Southern Europe. Overall, four



regions and the Big Four become the five delegations. Student groups are based on these delegations with each attempting to persuade members of the Big Four to address their aspirations of statehood, autonomy or increased regional influence. Groups research the situation of their ethnicities, nations and regions in the post-World War I world and develop national as well as regional statements to be considered during deliberation. The deliberative process occurs as the disparate delegation representatives develop consensus statements for their region for presentation to the Big Four. Upon presentation of these statements, members of the Big Four are likewise challenged to develop consensus statements addressing delegation needs as well as satisfying their own constituents at home. Authentic assessments are done via follow-up documents, which address the decisions of the Big Four in terms of delegations' demands and actual outcomes of the conference. These assessments take the form of letters to the editors of home nation newspapers and detailed letters to the Big Four praising or raising concerns for the decisions made in Paris. The Big Four delegates write their own letters to home newspapers outlining the decisions they made and the reasons why these decisions are in the best interest of their constituents.

Upon successful completion, students will have a realistic sense of deliberating in the complex environment that was 1919. Moreover, the revelations of the actual decisions made during the Paris Peace Conference

will likely provide memorable fodder for discussion and further deliberation as you move forward in 20th century history.

In an effort to facilitate this lesson for classroom use, we have developed a website to house delegation documents which summarize the positions of each nation involved. You can find these documents as well as other relevant resources at <http://cehd.gmu.edu/book/pellegrino/>

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**At the Crossroads: Recent Tendencies in Civic Education in Russia**

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During its short post-Soviet history since 1991, Russia witnessed two competing curricular models, namely liberal and traditional, which followed one another, and mirrored two distinct social and economic developmental models during the last decade of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and the first decade of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Both models are Russia's response to the two major challenges: construction of the new identity and globalization. The choices are highly reflective and demonstrative of the type of citizens that the ruling elite intended to educate. Thus, civic education that is particularly susceptible to even miniscule shifts in ideological and political paradigms, found itself at the very intersection of organic needs of society and individual political ambitions.

Two aspects of citizenship education in Russia seem to become an epitome of Russia's ideological and cultural reaction to the challenges of identity construction and globalization. These are patriotic education and religious education. The obviously heightened official attention to patriotic education and push for introduction of religious doctrines in public education in the last decade starkly contrast with the more liberal model of civic education of the 1990s. Observers noted that the educational reform of the early 1990s to humanize, democratize, and decentralize schools in Russia, drastically changed its direction (Ioffe,

2006) and now the new model aims at the promotion and restoration of some of the Soviet features, including “centralized control, curricular rigidity and political-ideological functions” (Karpov & Lisovskaya, 2006).

This paper demonstrates that the focus on patriotic metaphoric narrative, the infusion of patriotic discourse in civic curriculum, the revitalization of the Soviet-style military rationale, and gradual introduction of religious education in public schools are attempts to expeditiously solve the problem of new civic identity and, at the same time, are a traditionalistic counter-reaction to radical political processes on Russia’s borders. The paper concludes that patriotic, military, and to some extent nationalistic components have become dominant in contemporary civic curriculum in Russia. It also argues that the recent traditionalistic tendencies in Russia’s civic education do not leave much room for critical thinking and decision-making techniques that are central to democratic citizenship education.

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**Let the Students Speak: Best Practices for Incorporating a Panel  
Discussion in the Classroom**

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Ever wondered how to get students to speak with enthusiasm and confidence in the classroom? Regardless of the subject being taught, a panel discussion can be integrated into any lesson plan with desired results. In addition, a panel will bring the textbook or topic of discussion to life while providing an enjoyable and educational experience for both the teacher and students. This paper proposes a series of guidelines for incorporating a panel discussion in the classroom.

A panel discussion is when a team of specialists converse on a topic in front of an audience. Since the purpose of a panel discussion is to educate the audience by presenting facts and different points of view, each panel should discuss the pros and cons of its topic. A panel consists of questions and answers and the answers should be researched in advance and based on facts and not opinions.

The first step for incorporating a panel in the classroom should be to divide the class into groups of four to six and instruct each group to select a moderator. Once this person has been selected the group should then select a topic to discuss. It is helpful for the instructor to provide a list of approved topics for each group to select from. After each group selects a topic instruct them to come up with three to four questions regarding their selected topic of discussion. (They will later discuss these questions

in front of the class.) Once the questions have been approved, the students should begin researching each question in preparation for the panel discussion. It also a good idea to require each student to turn in a bibliography of research in order to verify his/her research. If possible, schedule a tour of the campus library or have a school librarian present in class in order to show students proper research and citation techniques.

It is important to allow adequate time for students to prepare for the panel discussion. Once the students finish researching their questions, the panels should meet for a practice session so they can discuss the facts of their research; rehearse the timing (previously decided by the instructor) and flow of the panel and to decide who will speak to each question. This is also a good time to go over or reinforce panel rules (dress code, professionalism, etc) and for the students to ask any last minute questions about the panel instructions. Once preparation time has concluded, the panelists should be ready to discuss their topic in front of the class.

A typical classroom panel should last fifteen to twenty minutes and much of the success or failure of a panel discussion is determined by the moderator of the panel. One of the moderator's most important roles is to ensure that each panel member gets equal discussion time and no panelist(s) dominates the conversation. As with any classroom activity, the instructor may need to adjust these rules or procedures to fit the desired learning outcome.

The day the panels begin should be exciting! Students should be familiar with their topic and hopefully eager to share their research with

the class. Once a panel is called on to begin, the moderator should take charge and organize the group in front of the class and give any last minute instructions. The moderator will open the discussion with an introduction of the topic and panelists followed by the opening question(s). The moderator will then direct the question to a specific panelist(s) and the discussion begins! Once the time limit for the panel concludes, the moderator should summarize the discussion and thank the panel members, those in attendance and take questions from the audience. Each panel should follow a similar pattern so the instructor can now relax and watch the students speak with confidence and enthusiasm!

## The Corporatization of American Higher Education

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While there exists' an ongoing debate as to whether American higher education is or is not a "business", there appears to be little doubt that it is in the process of being "corporatized." Significant research has been conducted into the impact of various factors driving this corporatization of the American educational system. These factors include the growing shift toward school choice, privatization of school services and management, the growing application of "business models" to the education sector, schools competing for students as consumers, the outsourcing of school and district services to private companies, the introduction of for-profit Educational Management Organizations (EMOs), and the consequent impact of all of the above on educators and the public mindset (English, 2005).

Other evidences include the outsourcing of a wide variety of nonacademic functions to external for-profit corporations; developing entangling relationships with other corporate entities; providing salaries to college officials that are comparable to those of corporate executives; and the downsizing of staff and faculty (Rickford, 2010). Corporations are also encouraging America's colleges and universities to seek corporate sponsorships as a way to increase funding to their schools.



The growing movement toward consumerism, privatization, cost-effective models, greater accountability, and declining public and governmental support for education are putting pressure on non-profit institutions to change their ways. This involves adopting practices previously seen only in corporate environments, giving even greater emphasis to reducing costs, and causing institutions to seek new non-tuition-based sources of revenue (also known as profit making opportunities). These changes carry with them risks, perhaps most important a loss of focus to the very essence of education: student and instructors committed to learning and educating, and research whose objective is bettering society.

It is when the “business model” is imposed at the expense of worthy academic standards and programs that it draws its greatest criticism. When the application of business metrics eliminates academic programs based solely on low enrollments, regardless of their academic value, it is wrong. When corporate-sponsored research is influenced, directed, or constrained in order to unduly guide corporate objectives, it is wrong. And when the human element in the classroom is minimized to maximize return on investment, regardless of any negative consequence to quality and experience, it is wrong.

Higher education may be a business, but it isn’t the same as “business” and the “business model” is the wrong model for education. Education is uniquely distinct in its mission from the corporations that increasingly seek to influence its existence. Beyond conveying

knowledge, educators need to deliver an environment where students learn to navigate the world in a civilized, responsible manner. This requires highly-humanized discourse, debate, and discussion free from external influence (Bok, 2003).

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**A Few Good Women (AFGW):  
Using an Oral History Project to Enrich Student Learning**

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*A Few Good Women: Advancing the Cause of Women in Government, 1969-1974* (AFGW) is a curriculum project for grades 6-12 that uses an oral history collection at Penn State as its core component. The project uses oral histories, biographies, audio segments, and digitized historical documents and images of the AFGW collection (Kaye, 2009). The collection provides a first-hand look at an initiative that emerged from the administration of President Richard M. Nixon to recruit and advance women in government positions (Grigor, 2010). The curriculum project is a way to transmediate the oral history collection in new ways. Transmediation involves bringing meaning from one sign system to another (Semali, 2002). Information from multiple formats (the oral histories, historical documents, and images) come together, and the data is transformed into a new medium (experienced by students through their responses and the products they create as translated from the learning strategies and lesson plans of the curriculum).

In one activity experienced through Readers Theater and titled *One Question Makes a Difference for Women*, a student in the role of the journalist Vera Glaser asks President Nixon the pivotal question, “Mr. President, in staffing your administration, you have so far made about 200 high-level Cabinet and other policy position appointments, and of these

only three have gone to women. Could you tell us, sir, whether we can expect a more equitable recognition of women's abilities, or are we going to remain the lost sex?" Readers Theater is uniquely suited for an oral history collection as it allows students to become characters and use the actual words of the women and men from the time period (Grigor, 2009; Schmit 2009).

WebQuests challenge students to use the Web for information. WebQuests are a natural venue for exploring a digitized collection as they are interdisciplinary, collaborative, and provide for the integration of technology to increase content knowledge (Dodge, 2007; Schmit, 2009). One WebQuest explores the AFGW oral history collection by looking at a historical document written by the women's task force commission created by President Nixon. After group research reviewing charts and maps among other materials, students create their own policy statement. In another WebQuest, students compare the number of women in government service in the United States with other nations of the world.

The Essential Questions section of the curriculum gives students an opportunity to look at the short interview vignettes and biographies of the individuals featured in the digitized collection and to consider obstacles that were overcome in the late sixties and early seventies to pursue a career in government.

Concept maps in the AFGW curriculum highlight ideas and images from the 1970s in order to provide students with a context for the time period in which the oral history reminiscences take place. There are six

concept maps with the following themes: Music; Fads and Fashion; Science and Technology; Sports; Education; and Entertainment. The six smaller concept maps can be printed to create one large poster with related images. For example, the Education Amendments of 1972 (prohibition of discrimination based on sex) represented by Title XI are highlighted on both the Sports concept map and the Education concept map. These maps can be used in a variety of ways for students to conduct research with more depth in order to contextualize the 1970s and to better understand the emergent roles of women.

The AFGW curriculum also includes timelines, “famous first” profiles of women in government and significant events in women’s history, a glossary, suggested readings and other web resources. Video clips include interviews and presentations by Penn State archivists on the development of the oral history project and explaining how students might conduct research using primary and secondary sources. A video presentation by the Honorable Barbara Hackman Franklin, former Secretary of Commerce is featured.

The curriculum highlights the digitized AFGW collection, and illustrates how the events of the time period and the actions of the women and men involved impacted what has happened with women in politics and government positions today (Schmit, 2009). The study of a historical time period such as this one helps young people to become literate and knowledgeable about the ways in which events of the past influence the present, and continue to shape the future.

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**Thinking across Contexts: Classroom to Classroom**

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This study examines the teaching and learning contributions surrounding the topic of conscription during the Vietnam War as part of a larger unit on the role of personal freedom as it relates to civil disobedience in the 1960s. More specifically, the study examines student participation around this topic in two educational contexts: a private Jewish high school (JHS) in a suburb of New York city, and a public International High School (IHS) for ESL students, located in New York city. It focuses on how students in social studies classes from both schools responded to the same task, as well as the extent to which they contribute to each other's ways of thinking. The two schools represent different linguistic, economic and ethnic contexts, which allow us to investigate how students in these distinct school contexts think about social issues, how they support their ideas and how they respond to ideas of students from a different context. Of particular interest is the examination of whether or not students from the two selected sites have anything to offer each other in terms of their interpretation of and thinking about the identified issues.

## Method

### Participants

The participants included 15, 11<sup>th</sup> grade US History ESL students in the IHS, and 14, 12<sup>th</sup> grade US History students in the JHS, and 2 US History teachers. For this particular study, the emphasis is on students in both settings, tracking the presentation and evolution of their ideas as participants in the HEI task. All participants were presented with procedures for the study, as well as possible risks and gave their consent for data to be collected and used for educational and scholarly purposes.

### Data Collection

The teachers from each class co-created a Hypothesis-Experiment-Instructional task (HEI; Itakura, 1962, in Hatano & Inagaki, 2003) which centered on the topic of civil rights as they related to conscription during the Vietnam War. The task was used in each teacher's classrooms to generate the discourse that forms the data for the study. Generally, HEI tasks are designed to promote the exchange of thinking between students; in this exchange, the teacher no longer acts as the main conduit through which every idea must flow. Instead, the exchange of information tends to remain on a "horizontal" plane among students. A significant outcome that this horizontal interaction may bring about is extending students' analysis "beyond either the merely subjective or the slavish imitation of the teacher's opinions" (Knapp, 2002).



The specific data utilized for this paper include four lessons. The first lesson was the introduction of the conscription HEI task and subsequent student discussion. The second lesson had students reading and responding to the each other's responses to the conscription HEI task.

### Data Analysis

Each lesson was videotaped, transcribed, and examined for emergent categories. Observation and analyses of data rendered three categories of arguments presented by students to defend their position regarding civil disobedience:

- personal belief should be the basis for decision making relative to civil disobedience and the Vietnam War conscription,
- public responsibility should be the basis for decision making
- conflict between personal beliefs and public responsibility in determining the basis for decision making,

Data analyses also included tracking changes in beliefs within and between classroom contexts.

### **Research Questions & Hypotheses**

Our general research questions are centered on ways of thinking and problem solving for students. Consequently, we will evaluate the

viability of HEI tasks for social studies as they relate to the following questions:

- What is the evidence that the HEI task promotes student thinking and questioning as it relates to civil disobedience with respect to conscription during the Vietnam War?
- How do students respond to each other's ideas both within and between groups?

Our hypotheses related to each question are:

- There will be evidence of historical responses on the part of students to an issue “experts” in social studies would understand (i.e., civil disobedience as it relates to conscription during the Vietnam War), but which “naïve” learners would not usually have dealt with, at least overtly,
- There will be evidence of a rich exchange among the participants in these various contexts with respect to the content of the HEI task, each context offering something that is not necessarily easily accessible from within each individual context)

### **Results**

Results indicate that there were great differences within and between group responses to the issue of civil disobedience and

conscription. The HEI task allowed these differences to manifest themselves in the ongoing discussions.

- a) ***Within Group.*** While there was disagreement within groups, students consistently incorporated parts of each other's arguments/evidence in their contributions to the class discussion. In general, the results indicated that the JHS students tended to focus on and support public responsibility as the basis for decision making, or to highlight the difficulty of sorting out the legitimacy of personal beliefs versus public responsibility as the basis for civil disobedience. Very few cited personal beliefs as a sufficient basis for civil disobedience of the draft. The IHS students, however, tended to focus on personal beliefs as the basis for decision making, with smaller minorities that either supported public responsibility or spoke of the difficulty of sorting out the interaction between personal beliefs and public responsibility.
- b) ***Between Groups.*** When classes were presented with each other's arguments, it became clear that arguments centered around cultural contexts. One group (JHS) tended to use U.S. History evidence to support their thinking, whereas the other group (IHS) tended to use World History (often related to their countries of origin) and personal experience to support their thinking.

The Jewish group relied on the fact that conscription laws include provisions for deferment of which many of them could take advantage (e.g., enrollment in a college). For the International group, however, the exemptions for deferment were seen as beyond their life circumstances (e.g., college education). The exposure to alternative ways of viewing civil disobedience and conscription, although it provided an opportunity for each group to hear and discuss ideas they would not normally discuss, did not easily convince either group of the validity of the other group's arguments. The task did provide, however, multiple opportunities for students to contemplate a broad range of views within and between contexts, and clearly engaged them in discussion of differing ideas, even if it was only to try to refute them.

Throughout the two lessons, the use of HEI task promoted discussion in which students were setting forth criteria to explain reasons for war (e.g., just cause). For example, questions about who decides if there is a good/just cause for war were raised. Throughout discussions, students refined their beliefs either in support of their own ideas or of those proposed by others.

We found that students grappled with sophisticated concepts and recreated discussions found in the literature around civil disobedience (cf Dworkin, in Krauss & Anderson, 1989). As the lessons progressed,

students were more focused listeners and generated tighter arguments to support their beliefs. There were instances of more effective communication skills, which included more distributed turn-taking along with persistent inquiry of each other's ideas. It appears the HEI offers a genuinely open-ended task for students that not only require their best thinking, but that also honors it.

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**Adolescent Vocabulary Develop in the Secondary Social Studies  
Classrooms**

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Middle and high school students encounter about 10,000 or more new multi-syllable words a year in content-area textbooks and reading materials, including social studies texts (Archer, Gleason, & Vachon, 2003). Yet, research has shown that approximately 10% of adolescents struggle with word identification skills (Curtis, 2004; Moats, 2001), a fundamental process in reading that influences their ability to decode words and recognize multi-syllable words (Archer et al., 2003; Curtis, 2004; National Reading Panel, 2000). In addition, students who struggle with decoding multi-syllable words will also struggle with building vocabulary knowledge and comprehension. Students need to learn how to decode multi-syllable words in order to understand what they are reading in all content-area classes including the social studies (*What Content-Area*, 2007). The field of social studies education has investigated literacy, particularly in history (Wineburg & Martin, 2004). While literacy relates to the ability to read and write, this paper focuses on vocabulary development, which leads to comprehension.

### **The Need for Vocabulary Instruction**

The 2005 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) found that 27 percent of eighth graders were unable to read at the basic level and in the 2002 NAEP, they found that 26 percent of the twelfth graders were unable to read at the basic level. This makes it difficult for students with poor reading to meet the demands of high school and beyond (Schumaker, Deshler, Woodruff, Hock, Bulgren, & Lenz, 2006). When the stakes are so high, no one content area can claim to own reading instruction. It must infuse all content areas including reading intensive areas such as social studies. Adolescents today have higher academic demands placed on them, yet approximately 8.7 million students in grades 4 to 12 struggle with reading and writing (Kamil, 2003).

### **Next Steps**

The research supports the need for adolescent literacy, but many middle and high school teachers lack the training to incorporate literacy instruction in their content area. In addition, they lack the resources to assist students who are struggling readers (Strickland & Alvermann, 2004). Teachers and school systems need to make secondary reading instruction a priority in order to improve student outcomes. Adolescents need to learn how to decode multi-syllable words because these words carry much of the meaning in their content-area text (Archer et al., 2003; Curtis, 2004; Kamil, 2003). Success in school and beyond is connected to the ability to read (Salinger, 2003).

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**Harold Rugg: A Pioneer for Citizenship in Social Studies**

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**Background of Harold Rugg**

Harold Rugg was professor of Education at Columbia University's Teacher's College. He was born in Massachusetts and was the son of a carpenter. Graduated in 1908 from Dartmouth with a BA degree in civil engineering and a graduate degree in 1909. He began teaching a few years after graduation and he received his Doctorate of Education in 1915.

He was the Cofounder of the National Council for the Social Studies and is credited with a taking a quantum leap from a historically, single-discipline approach to a pluralistic, social studies approach. In 1928 Rugg co-wrote his first major work, *The Child-Centered School*. It explored the foundation for the two major points of emphasis within progressive education. The two emphases focused on child centeredness and social re-construction. In many circles, Rugg was known as a Social re-constructionist.

In 1938 Rugg published *Man and His Changing World*, a social studies textbook and during the 1930's, nearly half of the social studies students in the United States were reading Rugg's textbook series. The question explored in light of the experience with Harold Rugg was: Should Citizenship be taught in the Social Studies classrooms? Many during this time felt that citizenship should be taught in the classroom, but

were opposed to the “brand” of citizenship that Rugg and his textbooks were endorsing.

### **What was the American Problem?**

Harold Rugg made reference to the American problem. The American problem, according to Rugg, was “How could the United States develop a society of abundance, adhere to democratic principles, appreciate the integrity of expression and develop with potential available for tomorrow. It became apparent that Rugg’s idea of citizenship was contrary to the idea of many in mainstream society.

The American Legion and the National Association of Manufacturers attacked him. Rugg was labeled as a Marxist and was accused of putting forth Communist propaganda. Magazines and newspapers of the day begin to carry editorial cartoons highlighting Rugg’s “communistic” influence in the country.

### **What is Citizenship?**

The question for most Americans during the 1930’s and 1940’s was not whether we should teach the qualities of a good citizen, but who would provide those qualities. What are the qualities or characteristics of a good citizen? Many in education will contend that the marks of a good citizen can fluctuate from person to person. The citizen that was envisioned by the 1916 NEA Committee on Social Studies would greatly differ from that of Rugg’s opinion. The citizen that Rugg envisioned was

one who can be intellectually independent and considers each issue on its own merits without regard for cultural bias or political indoctrination.

### **Rugg's Philosophy**

Harold Rugg's philosophy concerning citizenship and the role that students should take in their world is best defined in a book that he authored in 1941, *That Men May Understand*. "We stand indeed at the crossroads of a new epoch; in various directions lie diverse pathways to tomorrow. Some lead to social chaos and the possible destruction of interdependent ways of living. One leads, however, to the era of the Great Society. There is no way to short-circuit the building of this new epoch. There is only the way of education, and its great purpose is that men may understand."

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### **An Evaluation of MACOS**

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### **Beginnings of MACOS**

Man: A Course of Study created by Jerome Bruner and Harvard educationist Peter Dow in the 1960's with a 6.5 million dollar grant from the National Science Foundation became one of the more controversial curriculums in the 1960's. This was one of the few times in history that university based research scholars and not professional educators, led the design for K – 12 curriculum reform. The curriculum was based on Jerome Bruner's idea expressed in his 1963 book, *The Process of Education*; "We begin with the hypothesis that any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage."

Foundational assumptions of the MACOS project centered around three questions. The first question asked was what is human about human beings. The second question was how humans got that way and the third was how humans can be made more human. MACOS had two major sections. The first section contained a series of animal studies of salmon, herring gulls, and baboons. The second studied the lives of the Netsilik Eskimos in the Pella Bay region of Canada. Students addressed fundamental questions about human nature by comparison and contrast with several animal species and with another human culture. The Netsilik

material emphasized the uniqueness of human beings and the basic similarities that unite all races, ethnic groups, and cultures.

Materials used in MACOS included movies, filmstrips, and recordings. Instructional materials fell into three categories: film and other visual aids, written materials, and interactive activities, such as games and group projects.

### **Benefits of MACOS**

According to supporters of MACOS, the program did possess benefits for students as they achieved a new sense of the ingenuity of mankind and uses that to benefit society through new plans, inventions and problem solving abilities. This course taught a new sense of appreciation for student's culture and the importance of that culture. Teachers utilized MACOS curriculum as a springboard to talk about many other issues involving man and his place in this world as well as a tool to help students gain a new respect for humanity and the human race.

### **Study Methodology**

Two Private schools in a Southeastern city were selected to be used in the study. School number one is a private school that is associated with a church and school number two is a private Christian school that does not have an association with a church and is controlled by a board of directors. Seven junior high teachers from each school were supplied with one lesson from the MACOS project. Each teacher was surveyed and

interviewed using a set of interview questions. Each school was given the same set of questions. The following interview questions were used:

- 1) Suppose the MACOS project was to be implemented in your school and your class, how would you feel and respond to it?
- 2) Some teachers believe that middle school students should be taught about other cultures in the world including cultures that have cannibalism, genocide, euthanasia and other questionable practices. What would you say?
- 3) Would you say that your willingness to teach the MACOS curriculum is different after you have surveyed portions of the curriculum then when you first were provided with a simple overview of the curriculum?
- 4) What do you think is the ideal way to teach other people's cultures?
- 5) What do you think the ideal grade level would be to teach the MACOS curriculum?
- 6) Some Congressman during the 1970's stated that this project is detrimental to middle school students. What would you say?

### Responses from School Number One

I would do everything possible to convince the school leadership that this isn't a curriculum that should be taught. I disagree with the whole premise, so I would be unable to teach it without being able to put my own slant on it. This would be by stating that this is one theory. I would need to be able to teach an alternative. If forced to teach this (as is) I would resign.

It is interesting to see how dangerous this teacher felt the MACOS curriculum could be in the following comment:

I do not believe that this is the place for these topics because this is a very impressionable group of young people at this stage of their life, and quite frankly I would not want a child of mine exposed to this things this morbid at this time in their life.

Comments from school number two seemed to be similar on in the area of what age level that this curriculum should be taught. Both schools felt that middle school was too early to use MACOS curriculum. When it came to the curriculum itself, teachers in school number two favored using the curriculum in some or fashion and could see benefit out of it.

If MACOS were to be implemented in my school and class, I would want to know its purpose. Being a Language Arts teacher, I see it fitting into a Geography or Science class over Literature or English, and only under the intent to teach other cultures and theories through the lens of a Christian Worldview.

It seems that the second school understood the value of teaching other cultures to their students even if the culture had some practices that we would label as unique and unacceptable to our culture.

I believe middle school students should be taught about other cultures in the world, including anything that deviates from our culture. Because I teach World Geography, I have the opportunity to do this and discuss why some cultures engage in certain cultural rituals. Also because I teach at a Christian school, I can bring in Biblical references and a Christian worldview to my teaching.

### **Findings**

Among both private schools, school #1 which is a “church based” school was very closed to the idea of using the MACOS project in any form. School #2, which is a private school, but does not have a church affiliation, was much more open to the idea of using the MACOS project and it’s information to some degree in the classroom. It seems that the affiliation with a local church creates a conservative outlook among the faculty and has influence on the curriculum selected within the school. School #1 closely mimics the feelings of the majority of the conservative population during the 1960’s. School #2 tends to support a desire to create a worldview within their students. Although MACOS has been around for over 50 years, it still produces controversy among both public and private educators.



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## Using Film to Develop Citizens of Character

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Schools are often considered to be institutions that promote the advancement of knowledge and the building and sustaining of quality character traits among its student body, which enables individuals to develop into effective citizens. The notion that effective citizenship can be created and fostered through the school curriculum is not a new revelation, especially in the United States. From the earliest days of the new republic, individuals such as Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, and Benjamin Rush have all noted the importance of educating citizens for participation in a democratic society (Rosenberg, 1996, Hunter, 2000). In fact, the need for educating children to be citizens in a democracy is part of the reason for the formation of free public schools during the 19<sup>th</sup> century (McClellan, 1999). As the population, power, diversity and influence of the United States continued to grow throughout the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> century, so too did the importance of incorporating civic responsibilities into the curriculum of public schools. One of the most common forms of training students for citizenship is through moral and character education. Although the methods and nature of character education have changed throughout history based on social, economic, and political factors, the overall goal of educating students to become effective citizens continues to be a driving force in character

education programs throughout public schools. While there are many great programs, curricula, and activities available to teachers, there is one major approach that is largely ignored from the popular discourse on character education for building effective citizens. The approach, outlined and discussed in this presentation, is based on using Hollywood films to develop citizens of character.

Engle (1960; 2003) stressed decision-making as the heart of social studies education. Pressing that students learn the decision making process, instead of content memorization. Using film to build citizens of character is an excellent way to help students with their decision making. Showing students' films, or clips from films, can help provoke meaningful inquiry regarding social issues, personal values, and moral dilemmas, thus allowing students to personally reflect and make insightful decisions, which is a key characteristic of being a citizen of character in a democratic society. Quite often, films are very effective in presenting the complexity of character choices and decision making. Take for instance the concept of responsibility, as explored through the film *John Q* (2002). In this film, the father of a dying son in need of a heart transplant to survive takes over the wing of a hospital because he does not have the money to pay for the operation. He takes hostages and insists that the hospital conduct the surgery before he lets the hostages free. Are his actions responsible? Whom is the father more responsible too, the law, or his son? Are family responsibilities more important than civic responsibilities? Should the father be prosecuted? If so, what penalty should the father face for his

actions? Is the father a “good citizen?” Why or Why not? This is just one brief example of how a film can provide scenarios for students to analyze their own values, decision making, and civic responsibilities.

Film is a unique instructional tool because it has the power to be a meaningful supplement to the classroom. Teaching students to critically examine and analyze films will enable them to transform from passive receivers of information into responsible consumers able to interpret meaning from cinema. Incorporating film into classroom instruction to build citizens of character has two essential goals for students, helping them critically analyze and interpret films, and engaging students in moral reflections to help them analyze their own values and beliefs in order to improve their decision making. Having an improved understanding of their own values and decision making will allow students to think deeply about what it means to be an effective citizen in such a diverse and ever changing world. As many films will show, sometimes making the correct moral or civic decision is clouded by a variety of influences, situations, and consequences that individuals interpret differently. Allowing students to consider their own thoughts, feelings, attitudes, and beliefs through the engaging medium of film will empower them to rationalize and defend their own values, which is a necessary skill for all democratic citizens in the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

For more detailed information on this topic please see:

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