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Aims and Scope

The Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies seeks to publish manuscripts in the Journal that focus on any of the following:

- Creative ways of teaching social studies at the elementary, secondary, and higher education levels
- Research articles
- Explanations of new types of materials and/or equipment that directly relate to social studies teaching, particularly those developed and/or implemented by teachers
- Explanations of teacher developed projects that help social studies students and teachers work with community groups
- Reviews of books and other media that are relevant to the teaching of social studies
- Analysis of how other academic disciplines relate to the teaching of social studies

Instructions for Authors

All manuscripts must adhere to the following formatting guidelines. Manuscripts that do not meet the guidelines will be returned to the author without going out for peer review. The editors of Social Studies Journal accept submissions on a rolling basis. However, calls for manuscripts are issued for both regular and special issues.

- Type and double-space submissions using 12-point font and one-inch margins
- Include any figures and/or images at the end of the article
- Authors are responsible for obtaining copyright permission for all images
- Average manuscript length is between five and fifteen pages, though exceptions can be made on a case-by-case basis
- Follow guidelines of the current Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association
- Do not include author name(s) or other identifying information in the text or references of the paper
- Include a separate title page that contains the title of the article, author(s) name(s), institution(s), and email address(es)
- With submission email, authors must attest that the manuscript is original, not under review elsewhere, and not published previously
- Papers must be submitted as Word documents to the editors at: editors.ssj@gmail.com

Journal Information

Social Studies Journal is a biannual publication of the Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies. The Journal seeks to provide a space for the exchange of ideas among social studies educators and scholars in Pennsylvania and beyond. The editors encourage authors both in and out of Pennsylvania to submit to the Journal.

All manuscripts go through a blinded peer-review process. In order to encourage and assist writers, the reviewers make suggestions and notations for revisions that are shared with the author before papers are accepted for final publication. The editors encourage authors in both K-12 and higher education settings to consider submitting to Social Studies Journal.
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Membership in the Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies is currently free. Correspondence about membership should go to Executive Secretary, David Trevaskis: david@leapkids.com.

The Journal is currently available for free, open access on the Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies website: www.pcssonline.org. Correspondence about editorial matters should be directed to the editors at: editors.ssj@gmail.com.
From the Editors

We are excited to share the fall, 2018, issue of Social Studies Journal (SSJ), a publication of the Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies. This issue includes five articles – all written by women, a first for SSJ since we have assumed editorship – that address important content and pedagogy for social studies teachers at all levels.

We are especially thrilled that this issue features an invited piece by Anne-Lise Halvorsen, Maribel Santiago, Eliana Castro, and Alyssa Whitford of Michigan State University titled, “Civic life in the neighborhood: Leveraging historical context to teach injustice in the elementary grades.” This article centers critical approaches to teaching elementary social studies which is extremely an important contribution to a discipline (and journal) often dominated by secondary methods.

Sarah Shear and Amy Cohen both authored articles for this issue which invite secondary social studies teachers to include traditionally marginalized groups of people into their curricula in meaningful ways. Sarah encourages social studies teachers to utilize Indigenous-made films to introduce students to perspectives, histories, governments, languages, religions, and other cultural elements commonly excluded from traditional social studies curriculum. Amy details a Document Based Lesson to support teachers in using the new documentary film Sisters of Freedom: The Daring Battle to End Slavery in their classrooms. The lesson empowers students to practice history inquiry and reasoning to make sense of the extraordinary actions of Ona Judge, a woman who escaped her enslavement by President George Washington. Both of these pieces outline high quality instructional practices to support a more inclusive social studies curriculum.

The final two articles address the integration of social studies both across the curriculum and through community engagement. Sara Demoiny and Stacie Finley explore the outcomes of an integrated social studies and STEM summer camp in which their preservice teachers participated. They leverage these experiences to make recommendations for integrating social studies in other academic subjects. Jennifer Kaschak describes how service learning can be integrated with social studies through a National History Day (NHD) Project. She invites social studies teacher educators to consider how teacher candidates might be involved in NHD to develop historical thinking skills and pedagogical skills, as well as meet an actual need of the NHD program.

Finally, we would like to thank Michael Perrotti and Joseph Anthes for their support as corresponding editors. We hope you enjoy this issue of SSJ!

Sincerely,
Jessica B. Schocker, Editor
Sarah Brooks, Associate Editor
Naomi Wadler, an 11-year-old keynote speaker at the March for Our Lives protest in March, 2018, is a shining example of the power that children have to lead social justice efforts. Naomi, like the Parkland students and other organizers and participants of the March for Our Lives protest, reminds us of the power of education in general – and social studies in particular – to encourage children to “read, write, and think deeply; and act in ways that promote the common good” (National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS], 2014, p. 5). Promoting the common good often involves noticing and confronting injustice.

Elementary social studies educators have always known that young children are capable of, and highly engaged by, efforts to understand and protest injustice both locally and globally. Children are naturally curious and naturally compassionate. They care deeply about fairness, taking care of the environment, and the health and well-being of those around them (Paley, 1992). Yet, teaching the historical contexts, current complexities, and multiple perspectives of events and experiences related to injustice requires careful and thoughtful curriculum design and instruction. When done effectively, children can gain a deep understanding of the origins of current injustices, why people have different perspectives, and/or why an injustice might not be as easily addressed or rectified in reality as it is in children’s minds.

We recognize that people have different, often conflicting, ideas of what constitutes an injustice. We draw on the definition of injustice as a public (rather than a familial or private) situation involving a lack of fairness or justice – e.g., when people’s civil liberties are denied; when leaders abuse their power; or, when laws or policies designed to increase access and opportunity are broken (Teaching Tolerance, 2016). Here, we are not focusing on public issues (matters of public concern about which people can reasonably disagree). Others, such as Diana Hess and Walter Parker, have written extensively about the power of deliberating public issues. Instead, we are choosing to focus on what we and others have recognized as injustices. Readers may disagree with our stances on the particular injustices we highlight, but we argue that social studies education requires taking a stand and not attempting to be politically neutral (Gold, 2016; Journell, 2016). We aim for the ideas here to be transferable to your particular educational context, which will naturally involve selecting the injustices that are...
relevant and important to your communities.

In this article, our goals are to demonstrate the power of engaging elementary students in responding to instances of injustice and to provide resources for your own enactments. As part of this effort, we offer recommendations and resources grounded in educational research and theories. First, we provide a theoretical background and a brief review of the relevant literature to demonstrate how current practices and recommendations are shaped by previous scholarship. Second, we describe two case studies showcasing ways elementary methods courses and elementary classrooms can engage teacher candidates and students in learning about incidents involving injustice in historical context. Third, we suggest a framework for educators seeking to engage their own students in responding proactively to injustice. Fourth, we provide resources to help you do this work in elementary social studies methods courses and elementary schools.

Theoretical Framework: Grounding Public Issues within Powerful Social Studies and the C3 Framework

The importance of teaching investigations of and discussions about injustices is rooted in both NCSS’s “A Vision of Powerful Teaching and Learning in the Social Studies” (2014) and The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards: Guidance for Enhancing the Rigor of K-12 Civics, Economics, Geography, and History (NCSS, 2013). The Vision and the C3 Framework argue for a social studies education that can empower citizens in a democracy. The Vision statement outlines five qualities of powerful and authentic social studies: meaningful, integrative, value-based, challenging, and active – all qualities that can easily be infused in the teaching of injustices. The C3 Framework speaks to the active role that social studies education can and should play in encouraging students to become engaged citizens who are able to think critically and knowledgeably. It uses an “inquiry arc” to help students “recognize societal problems; ask good questions and develop robust investigations into them; consider possible solutions and consequences; separate evidence-based claims from parochial opinions; and communicate and act upon what they learn” (NCSS, 2014, p. 6).

Part of developing robust inquiries requires educators to consider what values we teach children. Values are inherent in everything that we teach. Even trying to “only teach the facts” is rooted in what teachers value. What facts are we teaching? Where do these facts come from? Whose voices are centered? Whose voices are omitted? These seemingly benign decisions are crucial to helping children understand who and what matters. Values are deeply embedded in discussions about injustices, as these hidden values send a message to children about when and how to stand up for others; in other words, whose lives and rights are worth defending.

These considerations are particularly important for social studies education, in which children are seeking to understand relationships among humans, relationships between people and their environments, and relationships between the powerful and the powerless.
The four major disciplines in social studies—economics, geography, history, and political science—naturally deal with injustice. We use the elements of meaningful and value-based social studies as the basis to argue for a social studies education that encourages students and teachers to engage in issues of injustice. Together, the C3 Framework and the NCSS Vision provide a rationale for engaging students and teachers in encouraging youth to become active citizens in their schools and communities. The question then is, active civic participation for what purpose? This question can intimidate educators who fear being accused of indoctrinating students, or fear retribution for being forthcoming with their political views (Romero & Ochoa O’Leary, 2014).

**Histories for healing and challenging injustices.** Approaching the teaching of injustices through an historical lens may help ameliorate the political concerns teachers face about their instructional decisions. We draw from the work of historians who argue that all histories are purposeful and come from a point of view (Levins Morales, 2016). We draw on this historical approach because it directly addresses the misconception that history is neutral and points out that history should serve the purpose to heal communities. As Levins Morales (2016, p. 146) states, “Being objective is often understood to mean not taking sides; but failing to take sides when someone is being hurt is immoral . . . We are in the midst of [history] right this minute and the stances we take matter.” Not taking a stand simply reaffirms existing unjust practices. And as history has proven, not taking a stand can have fatal consequences.

The goal then is not to be objective, but rather to present full and complex histories that reveal the good, the bad, and the in-between. This approach serves multiple purposes. First, heroic histories do little to reveal how difficult it can be to enact change (Alridge, 2006; Woodson, 2016). Children and their teachers need examples that are grounded in the past that can function as models for how to challenge unjust practices. Related, it is not enough to celebrate omitted and undertold histories, but to also interrogate them to help students and educators reflect about their own role in perpetuating injustice (Levins Morales, 2016). Youth need to recognize when they are complicit in systems of oppression and understand that they have the agency to change them. Teachers can then “work with students to critique regressive practices” (Paris & Alim, 2014, p. 92). Sustaining heritage and community languages, literacies, histories, and practices does not absolve educators from the responsibility of ensuring that they and their students do not repeat damaging patterns of interaction. For instance, White Parkland student organizers recognized their movement as the latest iteration of youth campaigns against gun violence and for sensible gun laws. They also recognized that previous efforts led by youth of color in urban cities were overlooked. The White Parkland student organizers acknowledged their racial and economic privilege and then proceeded to meet with youth of color in Chicago to collaborate (Witt, 2018). This collaboration ultimately shaped the March for Our Lives programming and speaker list, ensuring that children like Naomi Wadler could take center stage.
Last, these histories are meant to not only expose the disturbing aspects of our histories, but also to help us heal. Accepting one’s role in unjust practices is part of a healing process to right that which is wrong. Social studies, but history in particular, has the power to heal communities. History can be medicinal, as it can “provide those healing stories that can restore the humanity of the traumatized” (Levins Morales, 2016, p. 135). Eleven-year-old Naomi Wadler understood this when she issued a call to her audience at the end of her speech: “I urge everyone here and everyone who hears my voice to join me in telling the stories that aren’t told” (Rosenberg, 2018). These undertold and omitted histories are needed to promote practices that foster historical and cultural pluralism under circumstances that capture and celebrate the complexity across these differences (Paris, 2012; Paris & Alim, 2017). Digging into the complexity holds promise for empowering youth; in giving historical context for the public issues of today, teachers also present models of how people have resisted oppression in the past. Youth can build on these activist practices in their own efforts to combat injustice. In this vision, students are affirmed, their agency is recognized, and their assets are put to use. Seeing students’ potential to think critically about complicated social issues is, at the core, effecting change.

Case Studies: Wade-ins and Walkouts

In this section, we draw on two cases that we have found effective in teaching about injustice. First, we provide historical context for these instances of injustice, and then we describe how they could be taught in both an elementary social studies methods course and in an elementary classroom.

Wade-Ins

**Historical context.** There is a long history of using wade-ins to protest segregated swimming areas in the U.S. Since late 1800s, African Americans were banned from public beaches and pools. In many places, there were no designated Black beaches for decades. One such place was Broward County, Florida. The county did not set aside a Black beach until 1954, and even then, the beach was highly inadequate and inaccessible. The county had also enacted a strict “rioter or disturber of the peace” ordinance, ostensibly to curtail the activity of college students visiting during spring break. In 1961, Eula Johnson (president of a local National Association for the Advancement of Colored Peoples [NAACP] chapter), Dr. Von Mizell (local Black physician), and Robert Saunders (Florida NAACP Field Secretary) led wade-ins at Ft. Lauderdale public beaches from July 4 to August 8. The wade-ins grew progressively larger, and many of the protesters who joined were local Black students (Crawford, 2007).

The City of Fort Lauderdale sued the NAACP, Johnson, Mizell, and Saunders and lost. But the use of wade-ins was not new in 1961; similar demonstrations were staged in Santa Monica, California (1927), in Miami-Dade County, Florida (1945), and in Biloxi, Mississippi and Chicago, Illinois (1960). Subsequent wade-ins also took place in 1964 in St. Augustine, FL. Their outcomes varied, and swimming areas nationwide were slow to desegregate. The struggle to
desegregate public swimming spaces is therefore a phenomenon that spans most of the twentieth century. The use of nonviolent means against this form of discrimination unfolded at beaches, in pools, and on Americans’ television screens.

**Teaching this topic to teacher candidates.** In the midst of the controversy over segregated swimming areas, a children’s show provided a striking example of advocacy. *Mr. Rogers’ Neighborhood*, featuring Fred Rogers, was a popular program in many homes across the country when Rogers asked François Clemmons to join the cast as a singing policeman (StoryCorps 462: In the Neighborhood). Clemmons became the first African American actor to have a recurring role on a children’s television show, and he played this role for 25 years. Although this casting alone was groundbreaking, Rogers went even further when, for a 1969 episode, he invited Officer Clemmons to join him in cooling their feet together in a kiddie pool, directly addressing the segregation of swimming spaces. Rogers, a Presbyterian minister, concluded with the biblical gesture of using a towel to dry Officer Clemmons’s feet. Powerfully, Rogers stated that “just a minute like this can make all the difference” (StoryCorps 462: In the Neighborhood).

Instructors in an elementary social studies methods course at our institution, Michigan State University, used Mr. Rogers’ actions as a template for addressing injustices with young students. In preparation for the lesson, teacher candidates read “Shifting Out of Neutral,” an article that challenges the assumption that teachers can, or should, maintain neutrality within their classrooms in regards to political and social issues (Gold, 2016). Teacher candidates also listened to a podcast episode entitled *In the Neighborhood* to provide historical context about the advocacy of Fred Rogers (StoryCorps 462: In the Neighborhood).

The instructors scaffolded the connections between Rogers’ actions and the concept of neutrality in the classroom by conducting both small group and whole class discussions around five questions. Specifically, they asked students to consider:

- What social/political issue did Mr. Rogers address on his television program?
- What message did this social/political issue send to children?
- What message did Mr. Rogers send to children/viewers regarding this issue?
- How did Mr. Rogers enact this message on his television program?
- What gave Mr. Rogers the power/social capital to enact this message?

Throughout the discussion, instructors guided teacher candidates to see the connections between these questions. As a class, they examined how the social/political injustice of segregation sent a message of inequality that could be easily internalized by children. They then discussed how Mr. Rogers counteracted this message with his own, using purposeful actions to show his young viewers the importance of respect and love across race lines.

**Teaching this topic to elementary students.** Using Mr. Rogers’ actions as a template, the teacher educators asked teacher candidates to consider an assigned current injustice, specifically the separation of parents and children at the
U.S. border. Within small groups, students addressed the following parallel questions on a provided handout (see the Appendix):

- What message does this social/political message send to students?
- What message would you want to send to students regarding this issue?
- How would you enact this message with elementary students? What activities might you use?

Instructors joined group discussions throughout the activity to provide informal feedback and challenge thinking as needed. During this time, teacher candidates analyzed their roles as educators, collaborated, developed several powerful messages they hoped to send to students, and began to plan lessons that aligned with those messages. Most groups worked to combat the message of inequality they saw as the most pressing social/political message being sent to young students. To illustrate this planning process and provide examples of how to teach about this injustice in elementary classrooms, we describe three student-designed activities below.

**Using history.** Several groups scaffolded understanding by beginning with historical instances of injustice. One such group chose to send the message that there can be a difference between morally right and legally right. To do this, they planned a read-aloud about Clara Lemlich, a young immigrant who fought for better working conditions in factories in the 1920s. Throughout the read-aloud, they planned a class discussion about how abusive factory conditions were legally acceptable at that time while still being morally wrong. They also planned to highlight Lemlich’s contributions and advocacy as an immigrant to transition to discussing the modern issue of separation at the border.

**Simulation.** In order to send the message that all people are deserving of, but don’t always have access to, equal resources, a group of teacher candidates planned a simulation activity. In this activity, elementary students will be split into groups. Each group will be given the same task, but given a different amount of resources. After collaborating within their groups, the class will discuss their experiences together, emphasizing the inequality and the difficulties faced by those who had fewer resources. This experience will serve as a foundation for discussing inequality within current immigration policy.

**Building empathy.** Several groups chose to focus on fostering empathy in their future students. To accomplish this, one group planned to integrate writing into their activity, beginning with a prompt that asks students to consider a time when they felt alone. After writing and sharing their experiences, students will expand their thoughts to consider how they might feel when travelling to a new place, and then how they might feel if they were separated from their families once in the new place. Through scaffolding and discussions, the teacher candidates plan to connect these emotions to the reality of current immigration policy. This activity culminated in the opportunity to respond emotionally through poetry to the idea of familial separation at the border.
Walkouts

Historical context. Another historical event that models student activism and that teachers can use in the classroom is the series of student walkouts (or blowouts) that took place in East Los Angeles in 1968. Dissatisfied with the inadequate curriculum, instruction, and facilities in their schools and with school segregation in general, young Chicanxs across the city walked out of their schools in March, 1968. The March 14, 1968, issue of The Los Angeles Times reported that as many as 500 students walked out of Edison Junior High School but that a total of approximately 1,100 students were “missing” from a student body numbering 3,300 (Sosa, 2013). Five days later, students presented a list of 39 demands to the Los Angeles Board of Education. These demands included changes to the curriculum, discriminatory tracking practices, and the staffing of Mexican/Mexican American/Chicanx-majority schools.

In the short-term, the demands at the heart of the walkouts/blowouts were not immediately met; the district cited lack of funding for most of the proposed initiatives, and the struggle for equitable education continues. Over time, however, it became evident that this political movement was a watershed moment in the development of Chicanx consciousness among youth, even those of middle school age. If the walkouts’ success is measured in terms of the district’s concessions to the demands, then it was greatly limited. But these youths set a powerful precedent. Other walkouts in protest of similar injustices took place across the country, including at Chicago’s Harrison High School in 1968 and the following year in Crystal City, Texas. More recently, students across the country staged walkouts to protest gun violence in schools and to support the campaign for sensible gun reform (Simpson, 2012).

Teaching this topic to teacher candidates. Since the school shooting in Columbine, Colorado in 1997, over 187,000 school children have been exposed to gun violence (Cox & Woodruff, 2018). Many children don’t talk about “if” a shooting will happen at their school but “when” (Zezima, 2018). Preparing teacher candidates for this reality is complex. They need to learn safety measures, how to console children who are scared during lockdown drills, and how to respond to children who ask, “Will a shooting happen at our school?” They also need to engage children in thoughtful dialogue about the question on many of their minds: “Why isn’t anyone doing anything about all the shootings?” Discussions at the kindergarten level will look different from those at the upper elementary level, and discussions in communities with active gun rights advocates will look different from those in pro-gun control communities.

Teacher candidates also need to be aware of the powerful ways in which young people, such as Naomi Wadler and others, are expressing their concern and outrage through marches, media, and protests including school walkouts. Yet, a complication of studying these walkouts is the question of why the shootings in Parkland drew media and celebrity attention and worldwide support when other activists (mainly youth of color) have attempted to raise awareness about injustices through movements such as Black Lives Matter without receiving the
same levels of support and often drawing backlash.

In small groups, students read a series of articles about the history of youth activism provided by Rosinbum (2018) in a lesson plan on placing the National School Walkout in a historical context. They then answered the following questions:

- What challenges did the activists face?
- What achievements did they make?
- How did this activism compare to the March for Our Lives activism?
- How would you teach this event to elementary students?

Then, using an article from Vox.com (Lockhart, 2018) that described the contrasting public responses to Parkland and Black Lives Matter, teacher candidates analyzed reasons for these different responses and also ways in which youth organizers of the March for Our Lives protests attempted to be inclusive of diverse people and voices. Specifically, we asked students to consider:

- What movements helped pave the way for March for Our Lives?
- What was different about the previous movements and March for Our Lives, and how do those differences explain the differential treatments of the two protests?
- What lessons did March for Our Lives protestors draw on from previous movements?
- Why do you think the March 14 National School Walkout Day drew so many participants from diverse locations in the country?

Teacher candidates engaged in dialogue about their responses to these questions. They then began brainstorming if and how they would facilitate political protests such as walkouts among their own students, the steps they would need to take, and the ways in which they would help ensure students were fully informed about multiple perspectives on the injustice.

**Teaching this topic to elementary students.** Some might argue that lower elementary students are not ready for discussions about what is prompting political protests. However, we argue, if they are old enough to participate in lockdown drills, then they are old enough to learn how young people are organizing to challenge injustices. As educator activist Paula Rogovin reflected about why she felt her first graders were old enough to learn about child labor and the dangerous and horrific conditions faced by children, she argued that if young children were being forced into labor then young children, like her first graders, were old enough to learn about the topic (Behind the Label, 2007). Yet, teachers need to consider children's developmental levels and their background experiences and communicate with families prior to engaging students in discussions about injustices.

Just like students need “mentor texts” when learning to write a new genre (Fletcher, 2011), examples of protests are critical for helping students to imagine what is possible and what it takes to engage in a protest. We argue that students will be most interested in fighting injustices that are authentic and real in their lives or communities. Students may raise their own concerns, but if not, they can be taught to be aware of a particular injustice, by noticing ways in which liberties or rights are being violated.
We suggest reading to students two news articles (Breaux, 2018; Kebede, 2018) about children taking action in their community to protest an injustice interviewing youth who have participated in protests or walkouts, or watching videos of student protests. Students need to learn the ways that they can make a difference in improving their community through walkouts as well as through other means of activism such as communicating with decision-makers (e.g., Serriere, Mitra, & Cody, 2010). They also need to learn why others may oppose student participation in walkouts or protests and how to respond in civil and reasoned ways to questions and opposition. We believe that if students learn the history of youth activism, when they encounter an injustice in their own lives or communities, they will have the tools to use to act.

**Framework for Teachers Seeking to Engage Students in Injustices**

In this section, we offer a framework to guide teachers in engaging students in injustices. We conceived of the framework broadly so that it could be easily modified depending on the topic and on the age and interests of the students. It is based on our own work as classroom teachers and teacher educators.

1. Listen to the students. Seek to understand what is on their minds and what their questions, concerns, and fears are. Students are often most interested in discussing injustices they find relevant and meaningful to their lives, although often their concern and curiosity can extend to far reaches of the globe.

2. Decide on the injustice of focus. Select one that is of interest, that is not “overdone,” and that is accessible to and developmentally appropriate for students.

3. Check in with families to let them know you will be focusing on this injustice. Invite them to share their experiences and/or expertise if they are comfortable.

4. Do your research. Find credible sources, both in the media as well as first-hand accounts from people with experiences with and knowledge of the issue.

5. Know your students. Some injustices may cause trauma for students, particularly if the injustice is something they or their family may have experienced. Some students may want to talk about it; others may not.

6. Frame the injustice. Provide historical context for both the injustice and attempts to resist the injustice.

7. Design follow-up questions to stimulate discussion. Consider your role as facilitator to encourage students to consider alternative perspectives and how to respond to those who might object to student resistance to the injustice.

8. Decide next steps. Often with instances of injustices, there is a great deal of talk but little action. Decide as a class if you are going to take action—on a small scale such as reaching out to government representatives, or a bigger scale such as fund-raising, creating a Public Service Announcement, writing a book, or looking inward at one’s own school environment to determine if there are instances of this injustice occurring and deciding how to take action.

This is just one possible framework but one we hope is a jumping-off point for you to help your students engage, authentically, in resisting and fighting injustices that matter to them.
Resources for Elementary Methods and Elementary Classrooms

In this section, we conclude by providing a list of selected resources for use in elementary social studies methods courses and in elementary school classrooms.

Elementary Methods


Elementary Classrooms


Additional Websites

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<p>| Message This Injustice Sends to Elementary Children: |</p>
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<th>What conclusions might students draw about this issue? What ideas might be internalized?</th>
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<p>| Message YOU Will Send to Your Students: |</p>
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<th>How can you counteract negative message students might have internalized? What big idea(s) do you want to send?</th>
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<p>| How You Will Send This Message: |</p>
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<th>What activity might you use? Does the activity align with your message? How can you make this experience powerful for your elementary students?</th>
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References


Behind the Label. (2007). Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MXBw_9cH8c


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TEACHING AND LEARNING WITH INDIGENOUS-MADE FILMS IN SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION

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“Help me blow the nose of George Washington at Rushmore for our people, give them a good laugh, maybe that’s all we need.” – Mogie Yellow Lodge in Chris Eyre’s Skins

All social studies education takes place on Indigenous lands. If we are going to teach honestly, we need to begin with this truth. Just as we are looking at our state standards, textbooks, and other curricular resources to trouble and rethink how we teach and learn about Indigenous peoples and Native nations (Calderón, 2014; Chandler, 2010; Chappell, 2010; Rains, 2003, 2006; Sabzalian, in press; Sabzalian & Shear, 2018; Shear, 2015; Shear, Knowles, Soden, & Castro, 2015; Shear & Stanton, 2018; Stanton, 2012), we also need to trouble and rethink how we use films in our classrooms to present the histories and cultures of the Native nations of Turtle Island. In a 2004 survey of Connecticut and Wisconsin social studies teachers, 92% used feature films in their classrooms at least once a week (Marcus & Stoddard, 2007). Of the feature films listed in the study, 25% of teachers reported showing Dances with Wolves and 19% showed The Last of the Mohicans. These were the only films with Indigenous characters and/or storylines that had any significant showing. Other films on the list that included, at least in part, Indigenous characters included The Mission (4.8%), 1492 (3.6%), Christopher Columbus (2.4%), Little Big Man (2.4%), Lewis and Clark (1.2%), Pow Wow Highway (1.2%), Squanto: A Warrior’s Tale (1.2%), Rabbit Proof Fence (1.2%), Westward Expansion (1.2%), and Whale Rider (1.2%).

Films have become so integral to our lives—Americans and Canadians bought over a billion movie tickets in 2009—and to our memories of historical events that people find it difficult to let go of movie versions of stories even when presented with proof to the contrary (Nathan, 2017). In a 2006 national survey (Russell, 2012), 63% of 8th grade social studies teachers used videos and/or films as a part of their teaching. By extension, and considering the statistics previously stated, the popularity of films depicting Indigenous peoples in social studies has a negative history that needs to be problematized. McCoy (2018) noted, “too often, the primary opportunities for non-Natives to see Native peoples comes from Hollywood cinema, appropriated tribal motifs in fashion, and (frequently disembodied) warrior imagery at sports games” (p. 260). As such this article will

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1 I recommend educators follow the lead of how Indigenous peoples and their sovereign nations name themselves. I use Indigenous and Native throughout this article (unless otherwise quoted) when referring to the collective of peoples who have lived on these lands since time immemorial (Sabzalian & Shear, 2018; Shear & Stanton, 2018).

2 I recognize nation state names like the United States and Canada, and indeed all the “Americas,” are colonized understandings of the lands upon which we live and teach. I wish to begin this article by acknowledging the sovereign nations who call Turtle Island home.
discuss the history of Indigeneity on film in the United States and provide teachers a rationale and examples for opening teaching and learning spaces that challenge settler colonial narratives using Indigenous-made films.

**Hollywood Problems and Possibilities: A Brief History of Indigeneity on Film**

In his 1915 essay criticizing Hollywood’s attempts to cast Indigenous actors as Indigenous characters, Ernest A. Dench argued Indigenous actors posed a threat to White actors because of their too-realistic use of clubs and tomahawks, as well as the inclination of Indigenous actors to drink too much on set (Singer, 2001). Dench concluded that White actors should be cast in Indigenous roles because “to act as an Indian is the easiest thing possible for the Redskin is practically motionless” (p. 17). Shohat and Stam (1994) provided a myriad of examples of White actors playing Indigenous roles, noting “Rock Hudson, Joey Bishop, Boris Karloff, Tom Mix, Elvis Presley, Anne Bancroft...are among the many Euro-American actors who have represented Native American roles. Movie-goers were, and sometimes continue to be, most comfortable with two versions of Indigenous characters: Noble Savages and violent warriors (McCoy, 2018). The release of *Nanook of the North* in 1922 challenged both viewers and movie executives. While the film’s depiction of Indigenous characters conflicted “with [the] images of warring Indians in the Plains which American executives at the time were comfortable [seeing],” it was a smashing success worldwide (Singer, 2001, p. 17). Despite the success of *Nanook* the casting of White actors in Indigenous roles continued.

Shohat and Stam further argued that Eurocentric story lines legitimized casting White actors in the role of Indigenous characters well into the 1990s with two notable films: *Dances with Wolves* and *The Last of the Mohicans*. As these films were also the most popular in the previously mentioned 2007 survey of teachers, it is important to highlight the problems of these two films. *Dances with Wolves* and *The Last of the Mohicans* are notable because of the narratives underlying the casting of White actors (Kevin Costner and Daniel Day Lewis) in the role of Americans-turning-Indigenous. Prats (1998) commented that in Kevin Costner’s John Dunbar we see the “full measure of the refigured Indian. His cultural conversion is meant to be so complete as to render him thoroughly and unambiguously Lakota. It is to him that we look for the whole image and expression of the new and refigured Indian” (p. 5).

Prats further noted the idea of a long forgotten “wild and free” Indigenous person was at the heart of Costner’s intention for the storyline—a storyline told through the eyes, ears, and feeling of the “White-man-become-Indian” (p. 7). Similarly, Daniel Day Lewis’s Hawkeye in *The Last of the Mohicans* is a White-become-Indigenous-become-White again character. In the film, Hawkeye was raised Mohican and sent to the Reverend Wheelock’s school to learn English by the “multiculturally-aware Chingachgook” (Edgerton, 1994, p. 14). Hawkeye’s adopted Mohican family—Uncas and Chingachgook—are secondary characters to Hawkeye’s transformative journey. In depicting the stories this way, we see the creation of the Indigenous characters
framed within White, Euro-American eyes and a White, Euro-American ideal.

Both films also pit the Noble Savage and the violent warrior against each other, ultimately leading to the demise of all Indigenous peoples. This demise, Gerster (2013) argues, remain a staple “of the still-popular saga of manifest destiny from a white male protagonist’s point of view” (p. 144). In her analysis of students’ engagement with Indigenous characters in Hollywood films, Gerster further argued,

While exploring how Hollywood films encourage viewers to lament the passing of innocent Noble Savages (Lakota Sioux in Dances with Wolves) and rejoice in the killing of vicious Hostile Savages (Pawnee in Dances with Wolves), students can realize the role of Hollywood films in establishing the invisibility of contemporary Indians. (p. 144)

This gaze of a stereotype comes at great expense. Corbin (2013) noted that in both films, “viewers may feel sympathetic toward the Native characters, but the viewing position remains resolutely outside the Native cultural landscape” (p. 177). For both Dances with Wolves and Last of the Mohicans, the story remains one of impending White expansion and the refusal of Native sovereignty.

Hollywood films started to change in the late 1990s and early 2000s with Indigenous filmmakers and storytellers finding success at the box office. Indigenous stories told by Indigenous filmmakers and featuring Indigenous actors were showcased in movies like Smoke Signals (1998), Atanarjuat: The Fast Runner (2001), Rabbit-Proof Fence (2002), the Oscar-nominated Whale Rider (2004), and Older than America (2008). These and other Indigenous-made films challenged the stereotypes created by earlier movies. As Lawson (2013) notes, “this myth of the ‘vanishing race’ is a myth that contemporary Native American filmmakers often work very hard against” (p. 207). Lawson goes on to highlight that Indigenous-made films work to counter White narratives of history “by making films about contemporary Native Americans proving that Native Americans have not vanished and are not defeated” (p. 207).

Preparing to Teach Against Colonialism Using Indigenous-made Films

Despite the problematic history of Indigeneity on film, using Indigenous-made films in social studies classrooms can introduce students to perspectives, histories, governments, languages, religions, and additional cultural practices. As such, it is critical for teachers to carefully and conscientiously prepare themselves and students for viewing films depicting Indigenous storylines and characters. Russell (2012) noted films have the power to connect with students on an emotional level, thus helping them connect on deeper levels with specific content. In order to optimize the power of film as a teaching and learning tool, Stoddard, Marcus, and Hicks (2014) suggested, “teachers need to consider the perspectives of the films and other media they engage students with and provide students with the opportunity to analyze, interpret, and contextualize the stories that are being told” (p. 16).

In choosing films created by Indigenous filmmakers, I recommend teachers engage the wealth of literature available about Indigeneity on film. In addition to addressing problems and
potentials in film, many of these texts (see Table 1) also provide much needed background knowledge teachers can use in planning lessons about Indigenous cultures, histories, and current sovereignty movements. I heed McCoy’s (2018) call to action: “Teacher have great power when it comes to shaping students’ perceptions of themselves and others” (p. 263). As social studies educators shape their curriculum to address various aspects of history, geography, civics, economics, and other social sciences, we must also address our own blind spots when it comes to content and perspectives. This is especially important when choosing films, as Waters and Russell (2017) noted: “The sometimes-shocking number of incidences revolving around teachers mishandling films in the classroom highlights the need for additional training and professional development” (p. 4).

The need for teachers to dedicate time to their own learning is vital to appropriately engaging Indigenous counter narratives with students. It is important to acknowledge, as educators open spaces to learn from Indigenous filmmakers, that settler colonialism is a structure undergirding the United States. This structure seeks to deny Indigenous peoples their identities and lands—settler colonialism is not a singular event confined to history books (Sabzialian & Shear, 2018; Tuck & Yang, 2012; Wolfe, 2006). Deloria (2004) calls on us to,

Think of expectations in terms of the colonial and imperial relations of power and domination existing between Indian people and the United States. You might see in expectation the ways in which popular culture works to produce—and sometimes to compromise—racism and misogyny. And I would, finally, like you to distinguish between the anomalous, which reinforces expectations, and the unexpected, which resists categorization and, thereby, questions expectation itself. (p. 11)

In taking up Deloria’s call, we can create learning experiences for students that upend the expectations of “manifest destiny”—a way of being and knowing that supports White supremacy, which also exists in social studies curriculum.

Challenging Colonialism: Using Chris Eyre’s Skins in Secondary Social Studies

To begin changing the ways Indigeneity is presented in social studies using film, I offer an example for secondary social studies education. The following commentary and table provide content and connections to the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework (NCSS, 2013) for Chris Eyre’s 2002 release of the motion picture Skins. Capitalizing on the inquiry arc, teachers can engage students in learning from the Indigenous perspectives in the films and in asking critical and creative questions. These questions can focus on the historical and contemporary lives of Indigenous peoples and the relationships their sovereign nations have with the United States. As secondary students delve deeper into their studies of American history, civics, and government, it is vital they engage in a more critical study of the impact of manifest destiny’s racist colonial traditions in seeking to deny Native nations their sovereignty and Indigenous peoples their Native identities. Raheja (2010) wrote that the intersections of “race, identity, representation, and literature remain an important and unresolved (and perhaps unresolvable) feature of the field
of Native American studies... The question of who controls Native American representation is central to the debate and is... tricky — if not impossible — to answer” (p. 110).

This question of representation and who has the right to represent Indigenous experiences is central to the narrative of Chris Eyre’s *Skins*, which tells the story of Mogie and Rudy Yellow Lodge on the present-day Pine Ridge Reservation in South Dakota. These two central characters embody the conflict of expectation of identity, and their story redefines Indigenous experiences on film. *Skins* plays on mainstream stereotypes of Indigenous peoples, especially the Lakota (Sioux), to highlight the realities of contemporary reservation life. Deloria (2004) discusses the collision of cultural expectations and stereotypes to understand the power they have over the sovereignty of identity. Having Indigenous voices central to the telling of the experiences of Lakota characters in *Skins* is a major step in reshaping how non-Indigenous Americans see, hear, and learn from Indigenous perspectives.

The opportunities abound in *Skins*, not only for U.S. history courses, but also in civics/government courses at the secondary level. *Skins* engages students not only in content learning, but in inquiry into issues related to stereotypes, sovereignty, settler colonialism, poverty, and resilience (as seen in Table 2), all of which provide students opportunities to challenge the problems inherent in traditional social studies learning about Indigenous peoples. Stanton, LeClair-Diaz, Hall, and Ricciardelli (2017) articulated, “Careful questioning can also help students recognize the ongoing influence of difficult history and inappropriate representations” (emphasis in original, p. 121). Using Indigenous counternarratives, such as those posed in *Skins*, opens social studies classrooms to needed reflexive evaluations of dominant White discourses of history and current events. As Stanton and colleagues further argued, “critical evaluation of mainstream films can help students (and teachers) think about colonization and genocide, as well as the lasting effects of historical trauma and forced assimilation” (p. 122). I would extend their discussion to say that Indigenous-made films also provide students and teachers the ability to learn from ongoing Indigenous resistance.

It is my goal that Table 2 serve as a starting point for teachers to consider the ways Indigenous-made film can be included in their teaching of secondary social studies, especially as they relate to United States history and government. At the same time, elements of geography, religion, current events, and economics are also embedded in these larger questions and topics. In thinking about the complexities presented in *Skins*, I recall Raheja (2010)

Native American media-makers on the virtual reservation also challenge and complicate representations of Indigenous people by voicing dissent, offering counternarratives that reveal the often dismal and depressing aspect of inhabiting homelands that are still colonized in an otherwise seemingly postcolonial world. (p. 155)

*Skins* offers teachers and students the opportunity not only to challenge traditional, Euro-American versions of history, but also inquire into the lasting impact that history has on Indigenous peoples and their efforts to reclaim and redefine their own sovereignty.
Concluding Thoughts

It is the goal of this article to engage teachers in re-thinking the ways in which Indigeneity, past and present, enter social studies classrooms through film. While not exhaustive, the commentary and examples are provided in the hope that we, as educators, engage our own learning and the learning of our students with rich storytelling and compelling questions from Indigenous-made films, told from Indigenous perspectives and portrayed by Indigenous actors. Lawson (2013) argues that teaching students visual literacy using Indigenous-made films “can help them understand their significance in terms of self-representation. It is all too easy for most students to take representation for granted, since they have some sort of realistic semblance of themselves on screen—but Native Americans have not” (p. 220). Teaching and learning from Indigenous-made films help social studies educators fight against tokenism and cultural tourism and instead create spaces where historical misrepresentations and white-washed, traditional social studies become undone.
Table 1. Recommend Books for Teacher Professional Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Author/Editor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“All the real Indians died off” and 20 other myths about Native Americans (Beacon Press, 2016)</td>
<td>Roxanne Dunbar Ortiz &amp; Dina Gilio-Whitaker (Colville Confederated Tribes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An Indigenous Peoples’ History of the United States (Beacon Press, 2014)</td>
<td>Roxanne Dunbar Ortiz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do all Indians live in tipis?: Questions and answers from the National Museum of the American Indian (Smithsonian, 2007)</td>
<td>Contributors to the text include Mary Ahenakew (Cherokee), Stephanie Betancourt (Seneca), Miranda Belarde-Lewis (Tlingit/Zuni), Jennifer Erdrich (Turtle Mountain Chippewa descent), Liz Hill (Red Lake Band of Ojibwe), Nema Magovern (Osage), Rico Newman (Piscataway/Conoy), Arwen Nuttall (Cherokee), Edwin Shupman (Muscogee), Georgetta Stonefish Ryan (Delaware), Tanya Thrasher (Cherokee Nation of Oklahoma)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everything You Ever Wanted to Know about Indians (Borealis Books, 2012)</td>
<td>Anton Treuer (Ojibwe)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indians in Unexpected Places (University of Kansas Press, 2004)</td>
<td>Philip J. Deloria (Dakota)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indians on Display (Left Coast Press, 2013)</td>
<td>Norman Denzin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native Americans on Film: Conversations, Teaching, and Theory (University Press of Kentucky, 2018)</td>
<td>M. Elise Marubbio &amp; Eric L. Buffalohead (Ponca Tribe of White Eagle, OK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native Features: Indigenous Films from Around the World (Continuum, 2008)</td>
<td>Houston Wood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing Indian (Yale Historical Publications, 1999)</td>
<td>Philip J. Deloria (Dakota)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reservation Realism: Redfaceing, Visual Sovereignty, and Representations of Native Americans in Film (University of Nebraska Press, 2010)</td>
<td>Michelle H. Raheja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unthinking Eurocentrism: Multiculturalism and the Media (Routledge, 1994)</td>
<td>Ella Shohat &amp; Robert Stam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wiping the War Paint Off the Lens: Native American Film and Video (University of Minnesota Press, 2001)</td>
<td>Beverly Singer (Santa Clara/Diné)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content in <em>Skins</em></td>
<td>Questions for Teachers and Students to Consider</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sovereignty and treaty rights</td>
<td>How do the Lakota and other Native nations view sovereignty and their past, current, and future relationships with the United States? In what ways do the roles of Mogie and Rudy Yellow Lodge exemplify the struggle for treaty rights? Why is this narrative central to the story of <em>Skins</em>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massacre at Wounded Knee</td>
<td>In what ways did the Massacre at Wounded Knee and other massacres of Indigenous peoples shape present relations between Native nations and the United States? While <em>Skins</em> takes place in the present-day, why does the Massacre play a central role in both Mogie and Rudy's character development throughout the film? Why do you think Chris Eyre includes this history in the film?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mount Rushmore and the Black Hills</td>
<td>What is the historical and current relationship the Lakota have to the Black Hills? In what ways is the carving of the presidents on Mount Rushmore a violation of Indigenous sovereignty? The closing scene of <em>Skins</em> marks a pivotal turn in the character development of Mogie and Rudy. Why did Chris Eyre’s choose to end the film this way?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social issues and resilience</td>
<td>In what ways did/do settler colonialism and the reservation system impact the lives of the Lakota and other Indigenous peoples? Are Rudy and Mogie heroes or victims in the film <em>Skins</em>? Why do you think Eyre presents the characters in these ways? How have Indigenous peoples worked to protect their rights and homelands from further encroachment by the U.S. and Canada? (e.g. #NoDAPL Movement)</td>
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References


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READIMG AND WATCHING LIKE A HISTORIAN:
USING DOCUMENTS TO TEACH SISTERS IN FREEDOM

Amy Cohen
History Making Productions

After twenty years as a middle and high school social studies teacher, I left the classroom at the end of the 2013 school year to become the Director of Education for History Making Productions, a documentary film company based in Philadelphia. My job is to create educational materials to accompany our films and to let teachers know about both the films and materials.

The materials I have developed reflect four core understandings obtained during my two decades of teaching a variety of courses to diverse groups of students in several different public school settings.

- Primary sources are essential to the effective teaching of history.
- History is more vibrant and compelling when taught as an evolving interpretation of the past rather than a set of static facts.
- Effective social studies education promotes the development of literacy, communication, and critical thinking skills.
- Most teachers are saddled with excessive workloads and can benefit greatly from having access to high quality, adaptable materials that follow a predictable sequence.

The materials that accompany our 14-part series, Philadelphia: The Great Experiment, exemplify how I have incorporated these understandings. For each 25-minute film, there are a set of activities to do BEFORE (introductory hooks to stimulate student interest, essential questions, vocabulary lists), DURING (watch-along note-taking sheets, suggested pause points) and AFTER watching the film (discussion questions, graphic organizers, primary source based lessons, quiz questions). When presenting these materials, I always emphasize that the various components are meant to be used on an à la carte basis in order to suit a range of curricular needs and student readiness levels. (NOTE: All films and classroom materials are available at historyofphilly.com.)

A year ago, I learned about another collection of social studies materials that also fits well with the core understandings identified above. The Reading Like a Historian curriculum was developed by the Stanford History Education Group beginning in 2006. A concise summary of the approach can be found on their website sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons:

The Reading Like a Historian curriculum engages students in historical inquiry. Each lesson revolves around a central historical question and features a set of primary documents designed for groups of students with a range of reading skills. This curriculum teaches students how to investigate historical questions by employing reading strategies such as sourcing, contextualizing, corroborating, and close reading. Instead of memorizing historical facts, students evaluate the trustworthiness of multiple perspectives on historical issues and learn to make historical claims backed by documentary evidence.
Fortunately for Pennsylvania students and educators, the lead developer of the Reading Like a Historian curriculum, Dr. Abigail Reisman, has relocated from Stanford to the University of Pennsylvania. Dr. Reisman is currently turning some her attention and talent to working with the School District of Philadelphia and other local entities, including History Making Productions, to develop lessons centered on our local and regional history.

History Making Productions has recently released Sisters in Freedom: The Daring Battle to End Slavery which focuses on the courageous efforts of female abolitionists. Like the films in the Philadelphia: The Great Experiment series, Sisters in Freedom features compelling reenactments, expert interviews, rich primary sources, and state-of-the-art graphics and animation. Unlike those films, however, Sisters in Freedom is fifty minutes long.

Aware that I needed a different approach than my usual BEFORE, DURING, and AFTER menu and eager to explore the Reading Like a Historian method, I approached Dr. Reisman about collaborating. The social studies curriculum team at the School District of Philadelphia, already working with Dr. Reisman on other projects, also chose to support this work. Although I have developed several Document Based Lessons (the building blocks of the Reading Like a Historian approach) for Sisters in Freedom, in this article I will explain just one. My hope is that by describing the key elements of a single lesson, the elegance and intelligence of the Reading Like a Historian method will be illustrated. The full lesson plan, appropriate for either middle or high school, follows this article.

Each Document Based Lesson (DBL) begins with a Central Historical Question (CHQ). The CHQ needs to have more than one possible answer and the potential to yield insight into a historical event or era (Reisman, 2012). For this lesson, the CHQ is “Why was President George Washington unable to return Ona Judge to his family after she fled the President’s House in Philadelphia?”

The next key component of the DBL is Establishing Background Knowledge (EBK). The purpose of this segment of the lesson is to equip students with the information they will need to analyze the primary sources that will be used to answer the CHQ. The EBK can take the form of an excerpt from a textbook, a brief PowerPoint presentation, or a short lecture. In this lesson, the opening five minutes of Sisters in Freedom and a timeline serve as the EBK section.

The film clip introduces Ona Judge, a 22-year-old enslaved woman who was Martha Washington’s personal attendant. Although born at Mt. Vernon, Judge had traveled to both New York and Philadelphia with the First Family. While enslaved in Philadelphia, Judge is exposed to a vibrant free Black community and becomes aware that the Washingtons are violating the spirit, if not the letter, of Pennsylvania’s Act for the Gradual Abolition of Slavery. Taking an enormous risk, Judge flees the President’s House and boards a New Hampshire bound ship (Armstrong, 2017). After viewing the film segment depicting Judge and her daring escape, students read through a timeline to clearly establish the chronology of relevant events. The teacher then explains that students will be reading through
documents that help to bring to light the reasons that President George Washington, the most powerful person in the United States, was unable to capture a young, illiterate woman who fled his household.

Two aspects of the DBL model set it apart from other primary source based lessons. First, teachers are expected to model document analysis for their students, focusing on the key historical skills of sourcing (noting when, where, and by whom the document was created in an effort to assess its reliability), contextualization (considering how the era in which the source was created influences its content), corroboration (determining points of agreement and disagreement between and among documents), and close reading (analyzing how language and evidence are used to convey information or support an argument) (Reisman, 2012). For this lesson, the teacher reads and reacts to a 1796 letter from President Washington to a New Hampshire customs agent. The teacher makes observations and explains relevant findings such as who wrote the letter and when it was written (sourcing) and known information about the letter’s recipient and his home community (contextualization).

The other aspect of the DBL approach to primary sources is Document Modification. Primary sources are altered to make them more approachable and less time-consuming for students. Documents can be shortened (ideally a page or less in length), sections irrelevant to the CHQ can be excised, and challenging vocabulary words can either be defined or replaced. While this may be anathema to some educators and historians, as a teacher I frequently (albeit guiltily at the time) used to modify documents for classroom use. Even though I taught at an elite academic magnet school with some of the strongest students in the state of Pennsylvania, I made sure that primary sources were presented in manageable chunks. I did this as a way to scaffold my students’ learning of how to analyze primary sources. This often led to just the type of modification that Reisman et al. (2012) endorse as necessary, particularly to engage struggling readers.

The heart of the DBL is reading primary sources and responding to Guiding Questions. Students working alone, in pairs, or small groups, read through the documents and answer about three to five questions that can be answered by reading the text and which will help them to reply to the CHQ. The questions emphasize the same historical skills that the teacher has modeled and/or they have practiced in previous DBL lessons. In addition to the 1796 letter penned by George Washington that the teacher has introduced, students read an article based on an interview done with Ona Judge many decades after she became a fugitive. This Sisters in Freedom lesson utilizes only two sources, however, many lessons in the Reading Like a Historian collection use more.

Once students have reviewed the documents and answered the Guiding Questions, the teacher leads a whole class discussion—beginning with the CHQ. Students are encouraged to share different points of view and to back up their responses with textual evidence. A collaborative approach between the teacher and among multiple students is required to answer the CHQ as fully as possible. Follow up discussion questions
should also be subject to varied interpretations.

Although not an integral part of the DBL structure, the lesson that follows includes a writing prompt to be used as an exit ticket, homework assignment, or follow-up question to begin class on the following day.

Unfortunately for my students and me, I did not come upon the Reading Like a Historian approach until I was out of the classroom. I hope, though, that readers of this journal will find both the method described and the film that this lesson accompanies to be helpful in your practice.

References


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Inquiry: The Escape of Ona Judge

Central Historical Question: Why was President George Washington unable to return Ona Judge to his family after she fled the President’s House in Philadelphia?

Materials:
- Copies of Timeline
- Copies of Documents A & B
- Copies of Guiding Questions

Plan of Instruction (1 60-minute period):
1. Introduction (3 min.): Ask students to quickly brainstorm where they have seen the image or heard the name George Washington. Encourage students to recognize that Washington’s image is on the dollar bill and Mount Rushmore; although he died over 200 years ago, most of them can likely easily picture his face. There are numerous cities, states, roads, bridges, colleges, schools, etc. named for him.
   Indicate that they will be learning about a young, enslaved woman who chose to leave President George Washington’s household in Philadelphia.
2. Establish Background Knowledge (5 min.): Show clip of the first five minutes of *Sisters in Freedom: The Daring Battle to End Slavery*. This excerpt introduces Judge, her relation to the Washington family, the milieu of Philadelphia and two relevant laws—Pennsylvania’s Act for the Gradual Abolition of Slavery and the federal Fugitive Slave Law signed by Washington himself.
3. Transition (5 minutes): Hand out timelines. Read through timelines and explain that today we’re going to read through documents that help to bring to light the reasons that President George Washington, the most powerful person in the United States, was unable to capture a young, illiterate woman who fled his household.
4. Presenting the evidence (10 min.) Hand out Document A and have students watch you as you practice cognitive modeling of sourcing and contextualization.
   a. When we practice any historical thinking skill, we start by centering ourselves on the CHQ: Why was President George Washington unable to return Ona Judge to his family after she fled the President’s House in Philadelphia? We will use sourcing, contextualization, and corroboration on two documents today to help us answer this question.
   b. I’m going to be looking for who wrote this, and what is the writer’s perspective? When was it written, and where? Why was it written? Is it a reliable source? I’ll underline anything I think is important as we read through the document.
   c. Let’s look at Document A. We can see that this letter was written by President Washington about six months after Ona Judge fled his household. He indicates that he has already had someone try to persuade her to return willingly to his household.
   d. As Washington has been trying to get Judge back to his household, he often claims that she was treated well and had no reason to run away. I wonder, though, how Judge felt about her life as a slave to the first family.
   e. Now let’s consider contextualization. The letter is written to Joseph Whipple, someone who voluntarily freed the enslaved people he owned. Although Whipple’s job is dependent on Washington’s favor, why might Washington be reluctant to demand that Whipple capture Judge and force her to return to the Washington family? Elicit a few responses.
   f. Now that we have considered the context, I’m wondering if a letter written to Whipple by Washington will be a reliable source for determining why President Washington was unable to return Ona Judge to his family.
5. Students complete Guiding Questions for Document A (10 min.). Elicit a few student responses. Indicate that students will now read a document that presents a different explanation of Ona Judge’s ability to avoid recapture.

7. Discussion Questions (12 minutes)
   a. Have we answered our Central Historical Question? Why was President George Washington unable to return Ona Judge to his family after she fled the President’s House in Philadelphia?
   b. Which version of events, the one told in Document A or B, more closely matched your initial hypothesis? Did this surprise you?
   c. How might Ona Judge have been influenced by spending seven years in Philadelphia where she was regularly exposed to a vibrant free black community?
   d. Although President Washington had many more resources than Ona Judge, where might she have found the strength and determination to avoid his attempts at capturing her?
   e. George Washington was arguably the most powerful person in the country at the time of Judge’s escape, yet he was unable to have her return to his family. Use the historical thinking skill of contextualization to explain this failure.
   f. Why might someone be willing to both break the law and defy the President of the United States? Who, other than Ona Judge, did both of these things in order to ensure her freedom?
   g. Return to the timeline. Why is it significant that George Washington asked for his nephew’s help in finding Judge in August of 1799?
   h. Which historical thinking skill (sourcing, contextualization, or corroboration) was most helpful in answering the CHQ?
   i. Ask students to reflect on whether they ever stop to think about George Washington as an owner of enslaved people when they encounter his name and likeness.

8. Wrap up (5 minutes): Either of the following prompts can be given as an exit ticket, a homework assignment, or a follow-up activity on the following day.
   a. Imagine that you are a New Hampshire resident who knows that Ona Judge has fled from President George Washington. She knocks on your door because she needs a place to hide. The rest of your family is afraid to take her in. How do you convince them that they should do so?
   b. At the outset of the lesson, you were asked to think about where you have seen images of heard of places named for President George Washington. In what ways might you think of the first president of the United States differently following this lesson? Do you think it is important to have a fuller understanding of such an important historical figure?
Timeline

1780: An Act for the Gradual Abolition of Slavery is passed in Pennsylvania. According to this law, people born after its passage would be freed at the age of 28. Among the exceptions were enslaved people being held in Pennsylvania by non-residents of the staying for less than six months.

1788: Passage of An Act to Explain and Amend Pennsylvania’s Act for the Gradual Abolition of Slavery. This law is passed to close a loophole that had enabled long-term visitors to Pennsylvania to maintain ownership of enslaved people by sending them out of state when their residence approached six months.

1790: Ona Judge accompanies the Washington family when the national capital is moved from New York to Philadelphia

1793: President Washington signs the Fugitive Slave Act requiring authorities in free states to return escapees from slavery to their owners

May 21, 1796: Ona Judge runs away from the President’s House in Philadelphia at age 22

April-December, 1796: George Washington repeatedly seeks assistance for the return of Ona Judge

August, 1799: George Washington writes to a nephew asking for assistance in recapturing Ona Judge

December, 1799: Death of George Washington

1848: Death of Ona Judge in Portsmouth, New Hampshire. She was never recaptured nor officially freed.
DOCUMENT A: George Washington Letter to Joseph Whipple

Joseph Whipple, a politically connected businessman, was serving as customs collector in Portsmouth, New Hampshire—a state in which many people opposed slavery. He was responsible for overseeing ships arriving in the city’s port, an important job for which he had been appointed by President Washington. Whipple had chosen to free the enslaved people he owned.

Philadelphia 28th November 1796

Sir:

I regret that the attempt you made to restore the girl (Oney Judge as she called herself while with us, and who, without the least provocation fled from her Mistress) met with so little success.

I was afraid that if she had any previous notice of the intention to send her back, that she would try to avoid it; for whatever she may have asserted to the contrary, there is no doubt in this family, of her having been seduced and tempted off by a Frenchman who used to frequently introduce himself into the family; & has never been seen here, since the girl left. I have recently been told, through other channels, that she did go to Portsmouth with a Frenchman, who getting tired of her, as is presumed left her, and that she had betaken herself to the Needle—the use of which she well understood—for a livelihood.

I do not mean however, that such violent measures should be used as would excite a mob or riot which might be the case if she has supporters or even uneasy sensations in the minds of well-disposed Citizens. Rather than either of these should happen, I would forego her services.

We would rather have her sent to Virginia than brought to Philadelphia; as our stay here will be but short; and as it is not unlikely that she may, from the circumstance I have mentioned, be in a state of pregnancy. I should be glad to hear from you on this subject, and am Sir Your Obedient Humble Servant

George Washington

Vocabulary:
- provocation: action or speech meant to anger or annoy
- betaken herself of the Needle: took up sewing
- forego: do without

Guiding Questions for Document A:
1. (Sourcing) How long after Ona Judge’s escape was this written? How might President Washington be feeling about Judge’s escape at this point?
2. (Close reading) According to Washington, who was responsible for Judge’s escape from the President’s House? What evidence does he present to support this claim?
3. (Contextualization) Why might Washington assume that using violent means to capture Judge might “excite a mob or riot”? Why would Washington want to avoid creating this kind of reaction?
DOCUMENT B: Article in *The Granite Freeman*

*This article was printed in The Granite Freeman, a Concord, New Hampshire abolitionist newspaper on May 22, 1845. It is based on an interview of Judge conducted by the author, Reverend T. H. Adams.*

There is now living in the town of Greenland, N.H., a runaway slave of Gen. Washington. Her name at the time of her escape was ONA MARIA JUDGE. She is not able to give the year of her escape, but says that she came from Philadelphia just after the close of Washington's second term of the Presidency, which must fix it somewhere in the [early?] part of the year 1797.

Being a waiting maid of Mrs. Washington, she was not exposed to any peculiar hardships. If asked why she did not remain in his service, she gives two reasons, first, that she wanted to be free; secondly that she understood that after the death of her master and mistress, she was to become the property of a granddaughter of theirs, by name of Custis, and that she was determined never to be her slave.

Washington made two attempts to recover her. First, he sent a man by the name of Bassett to persuade her to return; but she resisted all the arguments he employed for this end. He told her they would set her free when she arrived at Mount Vernon, to which she replied, "I am free now and choose to remain so."

Finding all attempts to seduce her to slavery again in this manner useless, Bassett was sent once more by Washington, with orders to bring her and her infant child by force. Bassett, being acquainted with Gov. [then Senator John] Langdon, then of Portsmouth, took up lodgings with him, and disclosed to him the object of his mission.

The good old Governor must have possessed something of the spirit of modern anti-slavery. He entertained Bassett very handsomely, and in the meantime sent word to Ona Judge, to leave town before twelve o'clock at night, which she did, found a place to hide, and escaped the clutches of the oppressor.

When asked if she is not sorry she left Washington, as she has labored so much harder since, than before, her reply is, "No, I am free, and have, I trust been made a child of God by the means."

**Guiding Questions for Document B:**

1. (Sourcing) Whose version of events is conveyed in this article? How long after Judge escaped the Washington household was the interview on which this article is based conducted?
2. (Close reading) What reasons does Judge give for escaping from the Washington household? What can be inferred about the Custis granddaughter?
3. (Corroboration) How does Judge’s explanation of her reasons for fleeing differ from that of President Washington?

(Close reading; Contextualization) Who told Judge that someone had been sent to return her to President Washington?
THOUGHTFUL SOCIAL STUDIES INTEGRATION: IT’S POSSIBLE!

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Social studies is no longer part of the core curriculum today in many elementary schools. The Center on Education Policy (2007) found that a majority of schools have increased instructional time on literacy and mathematics while decreasing non-tested disciplines by up to 145 minutes each week. Since the reauthorization of NCLB in 2007, teachers report spending an average of 12% of their instructional time on social studies instruction (Heafner & Fitchett, 2012). Although reasons for this trend range from high-stakes testing to perceived lack of autonomy in curricular choices by teachers (Fitchett, Heafner, & Lambert, 2014), it is concerning to observe social studies sidelined in U.S. elementary schools.

With the decrease in social studies instruction in elementary schools, there has been a call for integration with other disciplines. At the national level, Common Core (Council of Chief State School Officers & National Governors Association, 2018) encourages the integration of reading and writing skills with historical informational texts, including primary sources. The National Council for the Social Studies (2013) developed the C3 Framework, which frames social studies instruction through inquiry pedagogy, requiring the use of literacy skills. As evidence of the devaluation of social studies has been reported, scholars have recommended curriculum integration as one solution to increase social studies in elementary schools (Denton & Sinks, 2015; Holloway & Chiodo, 2009). In a survey of 115 elementary school teachers, Holloway and Chiodo (2009) found that teachers reported incorporating 47 social studies concepts into their instruction. They insisted social studies is being done in elementary schools, but it looks different than it has in the past as a stand-alone subject.

Presently, most examples of social studies integration demonstrate a merging with English Language Arts (ELA) (Field, Bauml, & Ledbetter, 2011; Roberts & VanDeusen-MacLeod, 2015). For instance, Sell and Griffin (2017) taught an integrated mini-unit focused on justice-oriented citizenship. Fifth grade students analyzed historical primary sources, using literacy practices and disciplinary literacy to identify examples of justice-oriented citizenship in the past. Then, students completed the mini-unit by writing a found poetry piece. Examples of integration with STEM disciplines are much less common within the literature, yet there are legitimate connections between social studies and STEM concepts. Krutka (2018) has pointed out the overlap between social studies and STEM, particularly regarding technology. When analyzing Texas high school social studies standards, he realized that all the standards related to technologies portrayed a narrative of progress without wrestling with the negative effects of the technology. He encouraged social studies teachers to consider the question, “Even if we can, should we?” as they teach content and concepts within the realm of the NCSS.
national standard, Science, Technology and Society (Krutka, 2018, p. 284). When using NCSS themes as a guide, one can recognize many opportunities to integrate social studies with STEM disciplines.

**Need for Purposeful Social Studies Integration**

Although elementary teachers may be attempting to integrate social studies with other disciplines, the result is often a trivialization of the social studies content (Boyle-Baise, Hsu, Johnson, Serriere, & Stewart, 2011; Heafner, 2018). Boyle-Baise et al. (2011) engaged in courageous conversations with 100 K-6 teachers and administrators to encourage and to support the development of exemplary social studies instruction. Through their conversations, they found that social studies was referred to as “a momentary aside” when it surfaced in discussions based on the literacy text (Boyle-Baise et al., 2011, p. 144). The teachers simply viewed social studies as a “helpmate” to teaching literacy skills. Similarly, Pace (2011) found that teachers sacrificed social studies instruction to prepare for high-stakes testing, which meant students did not gain a deep understanding of social studies concepts. Heafner’s (2018) recent case study with elementary teachers revealed similar findings in that, teachers foregrounded literacy instruction even during a time dedicated for social studies and English Language Arts integration. These studies highlight the pattern often occurring when elementary teachers integrate social studies with other disciplines, particularly with English Language Arts, where social studies is trivialized. When social studies is included, the limited time results in shallow coverage of content.

Considering the current move towards social studies integration and the subsequent challenges, social studies teacher educators need to prepare their elementary pre-service teachers to integrate social studies thoughtfully into the curriculum. Elementary pre-service teachers have reported seeing little social studies instruction in their field placements (Hawkman, Castro, Bennett, & Barrow, 2015), and through this experience they have expressed the need to learn how to integrate social studies with other disciplines (Good, Heafner, O’Connor, Passe, Waring, & Byrd, 2010). Gleeson and D’Souza (2016) restructured their social studies methods course to include research-based practices for reading and writing instruction, and Hawkman et al., (2015) called for social studies teacher educators to intentionally include integration strategies in their elementary methods course syllabi.

Recognizing the need for elementary pre-service teachers to learn how to integrate social studies with other disciplines, and having an alternative field placement for the summer semester, Sara (the first author) revised her elementary social studies methods course to include explicit instruction on integration and provided students the opportunity to practice social studies integration in their practicum experience, a STEM summer camp. The purpose of this paper is to expand the ideas for teaching and incorporating social studies integration with STEM disciplines in thoughtful and meaningful ways.

**Alternative Field Placement Context**
During the summer semester, our teacher education program has a cohort of students who take elementary methods courses. Field placement experiences are a requirement for the courses. The elementary faculty developed a STEM summer camp three years ago allowing our pre-service teachers to gain teaching experience as they lead classes of 3rd through 5th graders. During the summer of 2018, we decided to have an integrated STEM camp, and the camp served as an alternative field placement for all pre-service teachers in summer methods courses.

In total, the program served an average of 140 campers in seven classrooms. The pre-service teachers were assigned to co-teach for one full week of camp. The elementary faculty determined the STEM focus and essential questions for the week, and then the pre-service teachers developed an integrated unit plan for their assigned week. The STEM topics were robotics, structures, and force and motion. In the following section, we describe three classroom examples of how the pre-service teachers integrated social studies with ELA and STEM. The examples offer different ways to consider what social studies integration may look like in the elementary classroom.

Social Studies Integration Examples

While working at the STEM camp, the elementary pre-service teachers were challenged to envision social studies integration beyond the idea of simply reading a picture book about a historical topic; as such, they expanded their views of social studies integration. The classroom examples below illustrate ways in which thoughtful social studies integration leads to deeper understanding of social studies concepts and skills.

Walking Debate

**STEM Focus: Robotics**

**NCSS Theme: Science, Technology & Society**

During the first week of camp, students explored different types of robots and considered all the places where robots can be found in society. As part of the unit, students read Newsela articles illustrating the many uses of robots, including “Robot Kitchen: Burger Restaurant Installs Machine to Flip Patties” and “Students Send Robots to School When They’re Too Sick to Go Themselves” (see additional articles in the resources section below). The pre-service teachers set a purpose for reading the articles and provided graphic organizers for students to keep track of important details from the texts. Then, the pre-service teachers posed the question, “Should robots be allowed to have jobs in the workplace?” Students had a few moments to think about their response, then they wrote three reasons for their position on a post-it note. The pre-service teachers introduced the walking debate strategy. On one classroom wall, there was a label “yes” and the opposite wall was labeled “no.” Before students moved to the side of the room that aligned with their opinion, the pre-service teachers reviewed how to disagree and build from one another’s point of view by using sentence stems. Then, students moved to stand at one position, and took turns sharing the rationale for their opinion. If a peer made a comment which caused students to reconsider their opinion, then they could take two steps towards the other side of the room. This structure allowed for students to think critically about their
peers’ reasoning and to recognize one’s opinion is not static.

The pre-service teachers identified this lesson as social studies integration by relating it to the NCSS theme “Science, Technology, and Society.” In the theme’s description, NCSS (2010) posed the questions, “Is new technology always better than that which it replaces? How can we manage technology so that the greatest numbers of people benefit?” (para. 31). Students engaged with this theme as they considered how science and technology impact and influence our lives, values, and culture. Students were wrestling with the opportunity cost of robots taking someone’s job while knowing the robot made for safer working conditions. In addition to thinking critically about the effects of technological advances, students were practicing how to have dialogue around a controversial issue. Hess (2011) argued that, “discussing controversies about the nature of the public good and how to achieve it” are vital to democracy (p. 69), and as social studies educators, we are tasked with preparing students to become active democratic citizens.

**Bridge Proposal**

**STEM Focus: Structures**

**NCSS Theme: Civic Ideals and Practice**

Structures was the focus for the second week of camp. In the fifth grade classes, students were learning about bridges. The pre-service teachers developed an authentic task for students by giving them the following scenario:

In the small town of Tiger Town, Alabama, they have a problem. The Coosa River cuts right through the middle of the city limits and prevents easy access from the west side of town to the east side of town. The Coosa River is about 400 feet across. The town population is small but with the addition of a bridge, they would experience a lot of tourism. The bridge creates a new path from Birmingham to Auburn that reduces the drive from 2 hours to 1 hour and 15 minutes. As a result, the bridge is expected to see a lot of traffic. It will need to be durable and long lasting. You will need to use your knowledge to write a building proposal to the mayor of Tiger Town. Your proposal will include whether your bridge will be an arch, suspension, or beam bridge. You should also state whether or not it should be a toll bridge and, if so, how much should the toll be? Should the toll be different for town citizens and tourists?

In order to prepare students to write their bridge proposal, the pre-service teachers set up centers where students learned about different types of bridges, played a bridge building simulation game, and watched a video about the soil and weather along the Coosa River. In addition to these stations, students analyzed excerpts from a primary source, 76th Congress House Document No. 272 “Toll Roads and Free Roads” (U.S. Bureau on Public Roads, 1939) and an informational text from the Federal Highway Administration “Why Does the Interstate System Include Toll Facilities?” (U.S. Department of Transportation, 2017) Through facilitated discussion, the students identified the pros and cons of including a toll on their proposed bridge.

As the pre-service teachers developed this authentic assignment, they integrated social studies through the NCSS theme Civic Ideals & Practices. Students explored this theme by “learning how to apply civic ideals as part of citizen action” in exercising “democratic freedom and the pursuit of the common good”
(NCSS, n.d., para. 39). Students had to contemplate what type of bridge would be the safest structure in this area while at the same time consider how the cost would impact the community of Tiger Town. Students contemplated how a toll would affect local citizens who would use the bridge to go to work each day while also considering how a bridge could boost the local economy. The decisions they were making required students to think about the common good for the community as a whole. By participating in this task, students could begin to understand what it looks like to be involved in local government decision making and the importance of being an active citizen.

**Assembly Line Simulation**

**STEM Focus: Force & Motion**

**NCSS Themes: Time, Continuity, & Change; Science, Technology, & Society**

During the last week of integrated STEM camp, each class focused on force and motion. The third grade classes looked specifically at force and motion in cars. Students built cars, like the Rubber Band Racer Car (see Appendix A). Since students were building cars with pre-made parts, the pre-service teachers decided to plan lessons looking at how cars developed over time, particularly through the standardization of parts and the assembly line. Pre-service teachers led an interactive read aloud with *The Inventor’s Secret: What Thomas Edison Told Henry Ford* (Slade, 2015), which includes non-fiction texts at the end discussing Ford’s assembly line. Then, students compared photographs of assembly lines in Fords’ factories to assembly lines in car factories today. Students listed the similarities and differences they noticed. Finally, pre-service teachers divided the students into groups of four. Each group member was assigned a role in the assembly line for building a shoebox car (e.g. make holes in the paper plate wheels, place a straw through the holes in the shoebox and attach wheels). After the simulation, the pre-service teachers debriefed the lesson, and students made connections to the text and primary source photographs. Additionally, students discussed how it felt to work on an assembly line and the benefits and disadvantages of the process.

Through this lesson, the students considered NCSS themes Time, Continuity, and Change and Science, Technology, and Society. As students analyzed primary sources, they began to “read, reconstruct, and interpret” the past (NCSS, 2010, para. 7). It is necessary for students to develop disciplinary skills in order to understand the context of primary sources. In this lesson, students reflected on how the technology of the assembly line affected life when it was invented, while also making connections to how robotic arms are used on assembly lines today. Although the assembly lines look different, there remain questions of productivity, safety, and human creativity.

In each of these classroom examples, elementary pre-service teachers were tasked with integrating social studies into a STEM theme. Although they have areas to improve, such as adapting primary source texts for students’ reading levels, they were successful at integrating social studies concepts and skills in a way that upheld the integrity of the social studies content while simultaneously creating a lesson where social studies was needed to more fully understand a STEM topic.
Suggestions for Social Studies Integration

The idea of integrating social studies with other disciplines, especially with STEM disciplines, can be overwhelming for elementary school teachers. There are many demands on teachers and taking time to thoughtfully and authentically plan integrated lessons may seem daunting. The pre-service teachers in the summer program were concerned at the outset of the summer semester, and as one pre-service teacher commented, “this seems like an insurmountable task.” Through our work this summer, we discovered a few tips which helped to guide the work of integration.

NCSS Themes. The use of state standards is important and often required of teachers, but state standards are frequently written with details of specific places, people, and events. When teachers step back and review the NCSS themes, it helps to remember the overarching purposes and disciplinary concepts of the social studies. The themes illustrate how social studies content connects across time and with other disciplines. This summer as the pre-service teachers explored the NCSS themes, they were quickly able to see how Science, Technology, and Society helped students to better understand STEM topics, and the social studies focus prompted students to consider the various perspectives citizens may have on the STEM topic. The NCSS themes help to broaden our conceptions of social studies and provide questions in order to facilitate the integration of the discipline with others.

Disciplinary Skills. The disciplinary skills embedded in the social studies are needed in order to learn about content in other disciplines as well. For instance, in the examples above, students analyzed primary sources and debated controversial issues. These skills are intricately connected to ELA standards of reading, speaking and listening. Primary sources may be analyzed in a data unit within math and used to learn more about natural disasters or new technologies during science. Controversy exists everywhere, and students must learn how to have dialogue where differing opinions are understood and considered in deliberation and decision-making. Elementary teachers can teach social studies disciplinary skills while studying topics from many other disciplines.

Criteria for Integration. As mentioned previously, social studies integration can be shallow and jeopardize the integrity of social studies or other disciplines being integrated. Many definitions of “integration” exist, ranging from theoretical descriptions (Beane, 1995; Parker, 2005) to practical application (Berlin & White, 1994; Hinde, 2005). Hinde (2005) created a list of effective strategies for social studies integration. In Sara’s social studies methods course, the pre-service teachers read articles about social studies integration and looked at examples of integration in practitioner articles. Together, the methods class developed the criteria below for thoughtful social studies integration:

- Authentic application of social studies disciplinary skills (e.g. analyzing primary sources, discussing controversial topics)
• Developmentally appropriate learning activities
• Address standards from all integrated disciplines
• Accurate and honest content knowledge (not watered-down, trivial content)
• Necessity of both disciplines to fully understand or investigate the lesson topic/concept

These criteria provided the pre-service teachers with a benchmark when developing their social studies integrated lessons and encouraged them to evaluate the thoughtfulness of the integration. A criteria list similar to this one can provide elementary teachers with a place to begin as they consider how to integrate social studies in meaningful ways within the curriculum.

**Conclusion**

Social studies may be considered “endangered” in the elementary school curriculum, as high-stakes testing has elevated literacy and mathematics as the main subjects of focus in elementary classrooms. Through social studies instruction, students learn how to be citizens who maintain a democratic society that pursues the common good. Social studies concepts and skills are essential to the development of K-12 students, and elementary teachers are now encouraged to integrate social studies with other disciplines. As elementary teachers and pre-service teachers begin to thoughtfully integrate social studies into the curriculum, we encourage them to consider how the NCSS themes, social studies disciplinary skills, and the use of an integration criteria list can aid in the development of meaningful integration lessons or units. Integrating social studies with other disciplines, including STEM, can and should be intentional and thoughtful. While the task may seem daunting, meaningful social studies integration is essential, and it is possible.

**Resources**

**Robotics Vignette Articles:**


“Students Send Robots to School When They’re Too Sick to Go Themselves” - https://newsela.com/read/elem-sick-students-robot-double/id/40950


**Force & Motion Vignette Racer Car:**

References


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Much has been written about the positive outcomes of service-learning, including students’ increased academic achievement, sense of civic commitment, social responsibility, and personal and social development (Furco & Root, 2010; Kahne & Middaugh, 2010; Wade, 2008). Research has also provided evidence of positive outcomes resulting from service-learning in teacher education contexts, including increased teaching self-efficacy, personal and professional teaching identity development, and commitment to civic education (Harrison, 2013; Iverson & James, 2010; Stewart, Allen & Bai, 2011; Wade, 2008, citing Wade, 1995; Wilson, Bradbury, & McGlasson, 2015).

One definition, used to frame the service-learning experience described here, comes from Bringle and Hatcher (1995):

We consider service-learning to be a course-based, credit-bearing educational experience in which students (a) participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs and (b) reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility. (p. 112)

Similarly, Wade (2008) defined service-learning as “the integration of community-based service experiences and academics combined with structured reflection” (p. 109). Wade highlighted the importance of curriculum integration and reflection as characteristics that differentiate service-learning from community service.

While considerable research supports definitions and criteria for service-learning and documents possible pedagogical outcomes, rarely is National History Day (NHD) identified as a potential partner. One study described collaboration between a teacher education program, local historic sites, and NHD (Woyshner, Reidell, & Brasof, 2013). For NHD competitions, students from grades 6-12 select a historical topic that connects with an annual theme identified by NHD, research the topic using primary and secondary sources, and create a project aligning with guidelines from one of five categories (NHD, 2018a). Volunteers from academic and cultural institutions then serve as judges of students’ submitted projects at regional, state, and national competitions.

This article describes a specific exercise in service-learning, which involved preservice teachers volunteering and judging at regional NHD competitions. It begins with a more detailed description and review of relevant literature concerning NHD, followed by reviews of literature about service-learning and historic site-based learning in teacher education contexts. This article continues with a description of a service-learning experience at regional NHD competitions, as well as potential implications for preservice teachers’ learning.
National History Day

As noted earlier, NHD is organized into regional, state, and national competitions. Students who place in the top two or three ranks in their category and division move on to the next level of competition. Each year, NHD selects a theme for the competitions. When developing their projects, students connect their topics to the theme. Themes in the past several years have included: rights and responsibilities in history (2014), leadership and legacy in history (2015), exploration, encounter, and exchange in history (2016), taking a stand in history (2017), and conflict and compromise in history (2018) (NHD, 2018b; NHD, 2018c; NHD, 2018d). Students compete in either the junior division (grades 6-8) or the senior division (grades 9-12). Either individually or in groups, students compete in one of five categories: paper, exhibit, performance, documentary, or website.

On the day of competition, students present their projects to a team of judges. Judges, usually organized in teams of two or three, generally conduct a brief interview with students regarding their projects. Judges receive training materials prior to and on the day of the competition, with suggestions about questions to be asked, as well as information on project criteria and rule infractions. Following the review of project entries and interviews with students, each judging team meets for deliberations, during which they assess projects per criteria on a rubric and provide constructive feedback. Criteria assessed include historical quality, relation to the theme, and clarity of presentation (NHD, 2014). Judges also rank the top two or three entries, determining who will move on to the next level of competition. Competition volunteers then organize the rubrics and results submitted by each judging team. The day typically concludes with a celebration of the students’ achievements and the announcement of those who have qualified for the next level of competition.

Why partner with NHD for a service-learning experience for preservice teachers? First, evidence demonstrates how NHD provides a positive learning experience for middle school and high school students, so preservice teachers are supporting a program with documented positive outcomes for participants. Several studies discussed the positive impact of NHD on middle school and high school students’ learning. In a national program evaluation conducted by an independent research organization (Gorn, 2012; NHD, 2011), results pointed to the following findings: NHD students perform better than non-NHD students on standardized exams in several subjects, tend to be stronger writers, think critically, and learn and demonstrate 21st century skills. In addition, NHD appears to have positive influence on students who are less interested in academic subject areas (Gorn, 2012; NHD, 2011). In a study examining documentaries and related evidence drawn from ten participants at the national NHD competition, Scheuerell (2007) found that the participants demonstrated understanding of the importance of sourcing, considered multiple perspectives as represented across a range of sources, and showed historical knowledge and argumentation skills.

Second, considering NHD’s reliance upon volunteers to serve as judges (NHD, 2018e; NHD in Colorado,
preservice teachers who judge at regional competitions meet a need for program operations. A program such as NHD, which draws upon teachers’ and students’ participation from local schools, as well as support from community organizations, is then a valuable venue for service-learning.

Service-Learning and Teacher Education

Many examples point to the varied opportunities for incorporating service-learning into teacher education programs. Service-learning experiences might engage teacher candidates in teaching projects at field experiences or local schools (Harrison, 2013; Wetig, 2006) or at museums (Todd & Brinkman, 2008), tutoring in diverse or alternative educational settings (Baldwin, Buchanan, & Rudisill, 2007; Gross & Maloney, 2012), engaging in action-based projects based on community or environmental issues (Iverson & James, 2010; Wilson, Bradbury, & McGlasson, 2015), or participating in political and electoral processes (Waterson & Haas, 2010).

Service-learning benefits teacher candidates in several ways, including increased personal development, teaching self-efficacy, commitment to civic education and development of teaching identities (Stewart, Allan & Bai, 2011). Wade (2008, citing Wade 1995) explained that preservice teachers who participated in a service-learning experience demonstrated increased self-knowledge, self-efficacy and other aspects of personal development. More specific to civic education, Iverson and James (2010) found that preservice teachers’ participation in change-oriented service-learning helped modify their understandings about citizenship along five dimensions and develop a commitment to civic education. In addition, multiple studies have demonstrated that participation in service-learning activities supported preservice teachers’ development of teaching identities and improved understanding of their roles as professional educators (Harrison, 2013; Wilson, Bradbury, & McGlasson, 2015). In Harrison’s (2013) study, for example, preservice teachers organized service-learning projects at their field experience sites. The preservice teachers indicated that they developed a better understanding of potential tasks they would need to complete as teachers. And, as Harrison noted, the preservice teachers seemed to develop a “broader sense of their professional roles as future teachers” (p. 32).

These studies demonstrated that service-learning has the potential to contribute meaningfully to preservice teachers’ personal, civic, and professional development, including professional teacher identity development (Harrison, 2013; Wilson, Bradbury, & McGlasson, 2015). The next section discusses outcomes related to historic site-based learning in social studies teacher education, particularly those outcomes with potential connections to volunteering at NHD.

Historic Site-Based Learning

Volunteering at NHD, particularly in the role of judge, can be a beneficial opportunity for service-learning. Like historic site-based learning, it may help teacher candidates develop important skills for teaching history. Indeed, the potential outcomes of the service-learning
activity described here may bear some resemblance to the results of studies based on preservice teachers’ experiences at historic sites, as both involve historical thinking skills practiced by preservice teachers in context. Research demonstrates that preservice teachers’ experiences analyzing primary sources and developing lesson plans based on visits to historic sites support their development of historical and historiographical thinking and inquiry skills (Baron, Woyschner, & Haberkern, 2014; Lovorn, 2012).

Baron, Woyschner, and Haberkern (2014), for example, studied two programs, the Cultural Fieldwork Initiative at Temple University and the History of Boston/History Lab program at Boston University. Both programs, identified by the authors as Historic Site-based Laboratory experiences, asked preservice teachers to visit historic sites multiple times, work with history practitioners, and apply historical reasoning skills. The authors found that participation in such site-based projects supported the development of preservice teachers’ historical reasoning skills, as well as how to use such reasoning as part of developing pedagogical content knowledge. In addition, many of the internships arranged through the Cultural Fieldwork Initiative (Woyschner, Reidell, & Brasof, 2013) supported work on NHD projects. The authors found that the experiences supported preservice teachers’ development of skills required for teaching and increased their content knowledge and professionalism.

**Service-Learning at National History Day**

This service-learning activity took place in secondary social studies methods courses in a preservice, undergraduate teacher education program. I, the author, taught the course and integrated this activity into four of the previous iterations of the course. The course enrolled approximately 3-6 preservice teachers in middle level and secondary social studies each year, with most participating in NHD as a means of completing the service-learning requirement for the course. Preservice teachers were required to complete ten hours of service-learning, preferably in middle level or secondary education contexts.

This experience meets the parameters of service learning as defined by Bringle and Hatcher (1995), as well as additional recommendations for quality service-learning experiences (Butin, 2003; Hatcher, Bringle, & Muthiah, 2004). A study examining undergraduate students’ perceptions of service-learning components, and how these components correlate with quality learning experiences, found that the most significant predictor of quality learning experiences was the integration of the service experience with course content (Hatcher, Bringle, and Muthiah, 2004). In addition, Butin (2003) outlined four criteria for service-learning experiences: respect, reciprocity, relevance, and reflection, to be elaborated below.

In this service-learning activity, preservice teachers typically served as judges for the local, regional competition. The reciprocal nature of this service-learning activity stemmed from NHD’s reliance upon volunteers, particularly volunteer judges (NHD, 2018e; NHD in Colorado, 2017; Utah Division of State History, 2018), shared with the potential
learning to be experienced by the preservice teachers. One goal of the activity was that teacher candidates fulfill their service-learning hours in a relevant context. Service at NHD represented an opportunity for the teacher candidates to engage in historical thinking and reasoning, as well as assessment practice, effectively linking the service-learning experience to social studies methods course content (Hatcher, Bringle, & Muthiah, 2004). This activity required preservice teachers to reflect upon the experience, clarifying what they learned by serving as judges, as well as how service-learning activities connect to overarching goals of social studies education. Following Hatcher, Bringle, and Muthiah’s (2004) recommendation for multiple types of reflection, preservice teachers engaged in reflective class discussion following NHD, as well as an assigned reflection paper.

As the instructor of the course, my goals were three-fold. First, as noted above, I wanted my students to fulfill their required service-learning hours in a community-based experience that would closely align with the academic content of the course, while supporting a community organization. Second, I hoped that my students would engage in the type of thinking that teachers employ when teaching history, such as evaluating historical content for accuracy. Finally, I wanted my students to enjoy the experience of volunteering at NHD, hoping that they might support and participate in the program when they graduated and began their teaching careers. While my goals for this service-learning activity were not linked explicitly with goals for civic education, preservice teachers had the opportunity to practice civic skills such as deliberation and consensus building (Parker, 2005) and to support the endeavors of a community organization (Todd & Brinkman, 2008).

I began the process of organizing this service-learning activity by contacting first the state coordinator, then regional coordinator, of NHD. I communicated primarily with coordinators from the regions that were closest in location to my university. Through communication with the regional coordinator, we arranged for my students to volunteer as judges at the NHD regional competition. We discussed the categories in which my students would judge (i.e., documentaries, websites, exhibits) and the coordinator assigned my students to judging teams with experienced judges. I also agreed to serve as a judge for the regional competition, so as to fulfill a need for the event and to provide a platform for discussion with my students.

As the instructor of the course, I introduced NHD during the first class session, showing videos from the NHD website and discussing prior experiences with NHD. I introduced the upcoming regional competition and described the possibilities for judging or volunteering at the event. Preservice teachers then had time to decide if they wished to participate.

Prior to the regional competition, I required preservice teachers to meet with me to go over judging rules and expectations for the competition. I shared the Contest Rule Book (NHD, 2014), as well as any other information mailed to me by the regional coordinator. We discussed rules for the categories in which they would judge, as well as general expectations for their participation.
Most preservice teachers who participated in NHD served as judges for a regional competition. They attended the morning training for judges, participated as a member of a judging team, interviewed students as part of that judging team, and discussed and deliberated on the project entries with other members of their judging teams. One expectation of NHD competitions requires judges to come to a consensus regarding the ranking and placement of project entries, hence discussions reflect a deliberative process. I also asked preservice teachers to volunteer at the event when they completed their judging responsibilities, in whatever capacity requested by the regional coordinator, and to attend at least part of the end-of-the-day celebration. Volunteering often involved preparing materials for the celebration.

Following the preservice teachers’ participation in NHD, they were required to write a reflection paper based on the experience. This requirement was designed to support the service-learning experience, as reflection is a key component of service-learning (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995; Butin, 2003; Wade, 2008). The reflection prompt, revised slightly over four years, asked preservice teachers to describe their service-learning experience, to identify and reflect upon what they learned, and to explain how service-learning experiences support goals of social studies education. We also discussed in class what preservice teachers learned from the experience.

Discussion

As I reflect on preservice teachers’ service-learning experience of volunteering and judging at regional NHD competitions, I envision multiple implications for preservice teachers’ learning, including their use of historical reasoning and assessment skills, as well as their burgeoning professional teaching identity development. As noted earlier, the outcomes of volunteering at the NHD regional competition may share commonalities with historic-site based learning experiences, namely because of the type of thinking in which NHD judges engage. Baron, Woysnner, & Haberkern (2014) and Lovorn (2012) identified opportunities to practice and develop historical reasoning skills as an aspect of preservice teachers’ visits to and internships at historic sites. While participating as a judge for NHD does not require preservice teachers to work directly with primary sources, judges are required to evaluate students’ entries in regards to historical quality, including historical accuracy, interpretation, context, and use of available primary sources (NHD, 2014). Such engaged practice may support preservice teachers’ historical thinking.

In addition, through the experience of judging, preservice teachers practice their skills in assessment. They must make decisions about the quality of a NHD project across multiple levels of performance for particular criteria and provide constructive written feedback. Such participation likely supports the development of assessment skills required for teaching, identified as an area of crucial significance in preservice teacher education (Mertler, 2005). In addition, research has pointed to the positive impact service-learning activities might have on teacher candidates’ teaching self-efficacy (Stewart, Allen, & Bai, 2011) and development of professional teaching
identities (Harrison, 2013; Wilson, Bradbury, & McGlasson, 2015). Similar to other service-learning activities conducted in authentic contexts (Harrison, 2013), engaging in assessment experiences in which their decision-making has real-world consequences may support preservice teachers’ developing professional identification as teacher rather than student.

One limitation of this article is that it is primarily descriptive and speculative, reflecting on possible outcomes of the service-learning experience based on relevant literature. In addition, while the service-learning activity described here reflects definitions of and criteria for service-learning (Butin, 2003; Wade, 2008), Boyle-Baise (2003) suggested that service-learning activities engage preservice teachers in considering democracy, social justice, citizenship and civic education. With further development of the reflection component, one can certainly encourage preservice teachers to make stronger connections between engaging in reciprocal endeavors with community organizations such as NHD and concepts and skills pertinent to civic education.

In conclusion, in this article I hoped to share a description of service-learning practice within social studies teacher education, reflecting on possible outcomes for preservice teachers. I encourage teachers and teacher educators to consider the possibilities of NHD, as it represents both an engaging experience for middle school and high school students and an opportunity for preservice social studies teachers to provide an important service as judges for the event, while potentially reaping important benefits as well. Adding to the already considerable scholarship in the area of service-learning and teacher education (Baldwin, Buchanan, & Rudisill, 2007; Gross & Maloney, 2012; Harrison, 2013; Iverson & James, 2010; Todd & Brinkman, 2008; Waterson & Haas, 2010; Wetig, 2006; Wilson, Bradbury, & McGlasson, 2015), this article points to the variety and potential value of service-learning experiences within teacher education.

References


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