

Alicia R. Crowe · Alexander Cuenca
Editors

Rethinking Social Studies Teacher Education in the Twenty-First Century

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Introduction: What Are We Teaching Social Studies (Teachers) *For*?

What are we teaching social studies *for*? Ostensibly, this question has a variety of answers linked to the persistent debate over the structure, purpose, and meaning of social studies education. While typologies advanced by Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1978) provide some guidance, the question of “what are we teaching social studies *for*” speaks to the notion that teaching social studies requires a moral and ethical stance. Arguably, what makes the question important is that social studies is inextricably linked with the society it presumes to study. As society has grappled with new and recurring social issues, changing norms, and shifting political priorities, these debates have also shaped the content and character of social studies education. Looking back at the history of social studies education over the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, Evans (2004) lists some of the factors that influenced the direction of social studies education:

...the economy; war; perceived threats from abroad or within; the beliefs and ideas of educators and the public regarding the role of schooling and purposes of social studies education; the monetary funding of commissions, committees, and school reform movements, which can strongly influence curriculum politics; the status anxiety of groups of educators as they seek a voice and influence over the curricular future; and the bureaucratic structure of schooling, which often deflects attempts at reform (p. 2).

Similar influences will undoubtedly determine what society demands from social studies education in the twenty-first century. It is this contingency that necessitates an answer to the “what *for*” question. Consequently, how social studies teachers negotiate these demands in the future will depend on social studies teacher education.

Charged with the responsibility to prepare social studies practitioners, teacher education programs must answer a variant of the “what *for*” question long before their candidates. However programs answer this question will help future teachers navigate the known and unknown directions social studies will take in the twenty-first century. Assuredly, social studies teachers will continue to confront enduring issues such as inequality, discrimination, injustice, and intolerance. However, these issues will manifest themselves within the context of a twenty-first century society that has an evolving connection with technology, expanding understandings of bor-

ders, and a transforming relationship with how it accesses knowledge. Moreover, as innovation in sectors such as computing, biotechnology, and engineering exponentially expand present-day limitations, new questions will arise that social studies (teacher) education curriculum will have an opportunity to consider. How social studies teachers determine what is most worthwhile to pursue or what societal influences are allowed into the curriculum will be determined by how teachers answer the question of “what *for*.”

Answering the “what *for*” question is also important to the professionalism of the field of social studies education. As Shulman (1988) notes, professions are characterized by their moral and ethical ideals. Because professionals rely on a base of scholarly and practical knowledge, they require a moral understanding to aim and guide their practice. Therefore, “the starting point for professional preparation is the premise that the aims of professionalism involve social purposes that are both technically and morally grounded” (p. 516). Presently, social studies education resides in a climate of increasing school accountability. The twin efforts of standardization and high-stakes testing have eroded the professional autonomy of many social studies teachers (Levstik, 2008). This climate, however, was predicated on the public’s growing distrust of educators’ expertise. While public perceptions that teaching requires little expertise are emboldened by the inordinate amount of time the public has spent observing the work of teaching and/or by politicians and policymakers blaming teachers for failing schools, space exists in the public discourse to reclaim aspects of teachers’ professionalism. Part of this project, however, requires teacher education to work to develop what all professions share—a moral and ethical ideal.

Perhaps the most practical reason for social studies teacher education programs to ask “what *for*” is because it generates the most influential teacher learning experiences. Typically, social studies teacher education occurs across several spaces: courses in one or more of the social studies disciplines, courses in general pedagogical principles delivered by teacher education faculty, specialized instruction in social studies curriculum and methods, and field experiences in social studies classrooms. Each of these spaces provides different encounters with the representations of the knowledge needed for teaching, and different interactions with the individuals that create the actual experiences of social studies teacher education. As research has evidenced, programs with consistent visions across courses and field placements have the greatest influence on pre-service teachers’ beliefs and practices (Grossman, Hammerness, & McDonald, 2008; Hammerness, 2005). Without the “what *for*” question answered, the totality of social studies teacher education can easily become a series of compartmentalized experiences. Our field, in particular, runs the risk of compartmentalization since subject matter preparation is often distributed across the different disciplines that constitute social studies. When this is taken together with the reality that the teacher education curriculum is often delivered in discrete parts (Zeichner & Conklin, 2008), it is easy to see how an experience in social studies teacher education can become disconnected for teacher candidates.

Moreover, returning to the professionalism argument earlier, the “what *for*” question also applies to social studies teacher educators. The same accountability

logic that was applied to P-12 social studies classrooms is now working its way into the social studies teacher education classroom. Without moral or ethical stances toward the accountability demands of society, the professionalism of social studies teacher educators may continue to erode. Perhaps most troubling is that a lack of stance does not forestall the filling of that void with another stance. The discourse of accountability has the underlying purpose of framing schools as vehicles for economic mobility. As Nichols and Cuenca (2014) contend:

By holding teacher preparation programs quantitatively accountable for teacher quality, the same neoliberal forces that have consumed questions of purpose in public education will begin to occupy teacher education. Although the value and purpose of teacher preparation has always been an open question, this question has typically been supported by a multiplicity of purposes that work to advance social interests such as a productive life, academic learning, human development, or social justice. When “scores” determined by agencies outside of teacher education become the sole indicators of progress and success, it is possible that many of the purposes teacher education values will be substituted by the broader paradigm of economic progress that drives accountability. Compliance will inevitably shift pedagogy and purpose in teacher education (p. 456).

By answering the “*what for*” question, social studies teacher education programs are better positioned to judge the encroachment of accountability into the professionalism of social studies teacher educators by having a moral and ethical matrix to make decisions with and for candidates. Moreover, with an articulated purpose also comes a definition of quality, and this ability to self-regulate is the hallmark of professionalism. While program approval or candidate certification may hold programs hostage to forthcoming accountability measures, the ability to define quality should be the standard by which we hold our profession accountable.

With the ability to self-regulate, the question of “*what for*” also provides an opportunity to rethink or reimagine the structures and practices of social studies teacher education. There are clearly numerous ways to answer the “*what for*” question in social studies education. This multiplicity is not a detriment, but productive for the field because it should encourage dialogue. According to Hansen (2008), purposes in teacher education should exist in dialogic tension with each other. To engage in dialogue about purpose sustains “a sense of value (contrasted with becoming passive), a sense of community (which often translates to critical energy), a sense of individuality (as each person articulates her or his outlook), and a sense of hope (that values matter)” (p. 23).

In this book, teacher educators explicitly or implicitly share their visions for the purposes of social studies teacher education. In particular, these purposes are framed as efforts to “re” teacher education. Rethink. Reimagine. Repurpose. Reconfigure. Our gamble as editors was that no effort to “re” social studies teacher education could be conducted without intentional thought about purpose. This is what binds the book together, the multiplicity of answers to the “*what for*” question. Our hope is that the reader will engage in a constructive dialogue with purposes of the programs in the book and be challenged to question her or his own purposes. This is the creative tension of dialogue that we believe can edify the field of social studies teacher education.

In the first section, the reader is presented with three explicit ways to consider the purposes of social studies teacher education: anti-racism, humanism, and place. The second section features a conversation of different ways to approach the social studies teacher education curriculum: critical race theory, big ideas, and the literacies of citizenship. Collaboration with on-campus stakeholders in social studies teacher education is the central theme in the third section. Readers are given models for collaboration with arts and science faculty, teacher education faculty, and other partners such as content area professional organizations. The fourth section takes a closer look at field experiences and intentional school partnerships that extend the purposes of social studies programs into situated teacher learning sites. The fifth section looks at the relationship between social studies teacher learning and communities. Three community-based experiences are discussed: photomethodologies, place-based social studies teacher education, and ecological citizenship. The final section offers insights into areas of social studies that are not directly part of what our pre-service teachers experience. The authors in this last section ask us to consider how programs respond to external mandates, how to begin to embrace the political nature of social studies education and our role in preparing teachers for the emerging twenty-first century.

In the end, we hope that you feel encouraged and supported to begin to rethink aspects of your own program. Whether you begin to question what you are teaching for, who you partner with, or how you engage in research, we hope you leave wondering: How can I change my part of the social studies teacher education world for the better of all of social studies education?

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Part I

Rethinking Social Studies Teacher Education Purpose

In the first portion of our journey, the authors offer three perspectives on how we, social studies teacher educators, can rethink our teacher education curriculum. It might be easy to dismiss the three arguments as distinct and separate but in many ways, when read together, we can see three intertwined ways to challenge the status quo. The visions of social studies teacher education advanced in this section provide us three avenues to interrogate our current program purposes.

King and Chandler help us consider the difference between teaching for non-racism and teaching for anti-racism. We can use their writing to assist our examination of our own social studies teacher education curricula. With it we can decide if we are teaching a non-racist curriculum or not and then plan how to move towards an anti-racist curriculum. Their thinking enables us to re-envision a social studies teacher education curriculum that promotes a society that is able to talk about race, that contemplates the complexity of the role of race in our visible and invisible actions, and that continues to work towards a more just and equitable existence for all.

Blevins and Talbert add to our journey of rethinking purpose. Blevins and Talbert present an argument for a humanizing curriculum for social studies teacher education that challenges and disrupts the neoliberal hegemony that most U.S. schools and society exist within and reinforce. Their chapter shows an alternative path and supports us in questioning what we want within our own programs. They can help us begin to articulate another vision of how we might teach for democratic living in robust, healthy local and global spaces.

Blankenship, Reidel, and Sullivan bring a third perspective to our conversation. In their chapter they argue for the value of place as a focusing element in the curriculum. Place is not merely a term to be learned in as one of the five themes of geography; places represents far more. We live in rich relationships with all that is around us. These relationships carry meaning and value for individuals and can help us understand the complexity of individuals and their actions. Blankenship, Rediel and Sullivan enter to explain the role of place and how we might leverage place in social studies teacher education programs.

We hope these chapters leave you thinking about your own program aims. As you begin to engage in rich curriculum conversations and deliberation about the future of your program, we hope you also wonder: What if social studies teacher educators built pedagogy and curriculum around the idea of anti-racism? What if we created a teacher education curriculum that challenged neoliberalism? What if we worked to developed experiences that developed contextualized knowledge of place? What would these visions mean for social studies teaching and learning and for the citizenry of the future?

Chapter 1

From Non-racism to Anti-racism in Social Studies Teacher Education: Social Studies and Racial Pedagogical Content Knowledge

LaGarrett J. King and Prentice T. Chandler

*George Bush doesn't care about Black people. –Kanye West
It was one of the most disgusting moments in my presidency. He called me a racist.” “And I didn't appreciate it then. I don't appreciate it now. It's one thing to say, 'I don't appreciate the way he's handled his business.' It's another thing to say, 'This man's a racist.' I resent it, it's not true. –George Bush*

On September 2, 2005 during a live broadcast of NBC Universal Television Group's *A Concert for Hurricane Relief*, hip-hop artist, Kanye West deviated from a prepared script to proclaim, “George Bush doesn't care about Black people” (NBC News, 2005). The television show, which was watched by 8.5 million people, was part of a benefit concert for the American Red Cross to help the Gulf coast victims of Hurricane Katrina. The Category 5 hurricane killed thousands of people, destroyed property, and displaced many American citizens throughout the United States—Katrina is considered one of the deadliest and destructive hurricanes in US history. Excluding West, the president was widely criticized for the government's response to Katrina. Five years later in promoting his memoir, *Decision Points* (Bush, 2010), the former president remarked that West's comments served as the worst moment in his presidency.

During Bush's two terms as President of the United States, other major controversies and tragedies took place. Events such as September 11th and the War on Terror, Iraq and (the lack of) weapons of mass destruction, Abu Ghraib and torture, and the Great Recession of 2008 were watershed moments during his tenure. Yet,

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none of the aforementioned occurrences or the federal government's response to Katrina, New Orleans, and other Gulf coast cities was mentioned but comments made by an entertainer implying that he was racist was his "personal nadir" (Logan, 1954). He explained that he could not be racist because of his record of appointing non-Whites to his presidential cabinet in Colin Powell, Condoleezza Rice, Rod Paige and Alphonzo Jackson; his No Child Left Behind Act, which was meant to curtail the "soft bigotry of low expectations" (Bush, 2010, p. 325) for African American students; and his 15 billion dollar HIV/AIDS program in Africa. While the scope of this chapter is not to extrapolate whether George Bush is or is not a racist, his comments about being called a racist and his response are appropriate in explaining the discourse on non-racist/anti-racist curriculum and pedagogical policy.

Stances: Non-racist and Anti-racist

We define non-racist curriculum and pedagogy as a racially liberal approach to race that favors passive behaviors, discourses, and ideologies and that rejects extreme forms of racism. These aspects reduce the definition of racism to a microanalysis of the individual and to immoral and prejudiced behaviors. An anti-racist stance, on the other hand, is an active rejection of the *institutional* and *structural* aspects of race and racism and explains how racism is manifested in various spaces, making the social construct of race visible. Bush interpreted West's comments as an individual attack on his morality. West's comments, however, were not simply a critique of Bush but an appraisal of the racial state in which Bush was the figurehead. The statement accentuated the legacy of structural racism and racist discourse against African Americans,¹ which helped cause some of the aftermath in New Orleans and other gulf coast locations. Therefore, Bush's accomplishment with African American representation in his administration, passing a reworded education law that heavily promoted testing as an evaluation tool, and sending money for HIV/AIDS to Africa may be commended in some circles but his comments were a superficial response to larger issues of race and racism. In his public comments and in his memoirs, the former president failed to consider the systemic actions (and

¹ West's preceding speech juxtaposed societal discourse between White and Black victims during Hurricane Katrina and the systemic way Blacks have been discriminated in the US He stated, "I hate the way they portray us in the media. You see a black family, it says, 'They're looting.' You see a white family, it says, 'They're looking for food.' And, you know, it's been 5 days [waiting for federal help] because most of the people are black. And even for me to complain about it, I would be a hypocrite because I've tried to turn away from the TV because it's too hard to watch. I've even been shopping before even giving a donation, so now I'm calling my business manager right now to see what is the biggest amount I can give, and just to imagine if I was down there, and those are my people down there. So anybody out there that wants to do anything that we can help—with the way America is set up to help the poor, the black people, the less well-off, as slow as possible. I mean, the Red Cross is doing everything they can. We already realize a lot of people that could help are at war right now, fighting another way—and they've given them permission to go down and shoot us!" see NBC News. (2005, September 2). *Kanye West off the script*. Retrieved from: <http://www.nbcnews.com/video/nbc-news/9172802#9172802>

their impacts) of his Presidency. In other words, he did not question how his policy actions influenced and/or changed structural racism in the United States and globally. President Bush's comments in his memoir vis-à-vis race are a classic case of non-racist rhetoric. In speaking about his actions as the President of the United States, his vision of "being a racist" is cast in individual actions that he, as president, performed. In this way, notions of the personal and the individual engulfed the collective and the structural. West's comments that night at the Katrina relief concert should be interpreted as a critique of the President's stance on race that favored piecemeal moves in his inner circle (i.e., naming a minority to a cabinet position) over attempting to dismantle structural racism in the US. In this way, Bush was offended for the wrong reason. Bush was offended because someone had called him a racist; in reality, it was an indictment of a system of racial thinking, in which the leader of the "free world" was upholding and maintaining.

Another example of non-racist thought has played out in the United States due to the recent spate of high profile cases of police killings of unarmed Black males. With the shooting death of Michael Brown in Ferguson, MO and the chokehold death of Eric Garner in New York City, we, again, see a stark contrast between non-racist and anti-racist thought. On the non-racist side, we see a framing of these two cases as occurring in isolation from the historical record and separate from the current surveillance (Alexander, 2011) regime against Black males in the United States. It is argued that these cases, although tragic and unfortunate are the result of a police officer "just doing his job" maintaining "law and order." Social media, which has played a factor in both of these episodes, is replete with defenders of Whiteness who point to examples of where unarmed white people are "also" killed by the police, without the protests and "rioting." In this non-racist move, there is an equivocation of Black bodies and White bodies (i.e. "It happens to us too"), and a refusal to allow White police terror against communities of color to be considered as a possibility. The non-racist stance allows, in fact requires, that you see these events through an social mindset that ignores historical and social science data that confirms the uneven experiences of people of color and white folks when it comes to encounters with law enforcement. In fact, non-racist thought requires that you be blinded by the power of Whiteness to interpret events as "not about race."

With the anti-racist's, arguments against the actions of Darren Wilson and the NYPD are cast against history, psychology, and politics. The anti-racist lens for analyzing what occurred in these events is not simply the actions of one person against another, but that of a hegemonic structure, powered by race, against the collective interests of people of color. Rather than take the news of a grand jury non-indictment as normal operating procedure, they took to the streets in protest, to point out the *structural nature* of race in America. Where non-racist are blinded by the white(ness) of their existence, anti-racist see these events through a historical prism that includes a legacy of dehumanization, slavery, genocide, lynching, and brutal treatment from institutions (i.e., schools) that have told these communities that, in fact, their lives don't matter.

We argue that the field of social studies has accepted and promoted a societal discourse of non-racism, which favors the conceptualism of racism that equals prejudice, serving to mask the power of institutional racism. This approach to

educational policy leads to a lack of “racial pedagogical content knowledge” (RPCK) (Chandler, 2015), social studies teachers’ racial knowledge and how it influences content and pedagogical choices, which hinders appropriate forms of racial teaching and learning in social studies spaces. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to clarify non-racist stances and promote more anti-racist frameworks for social studies teacher education.

This chapter lays out the foundation of social studies and non-racism as a de facto policy. To do this, we first provide our definition of race and racism. Next, we examine social studies policy statements/documents and their relationship to race, specifically detailing the ambiguousness of NCSS and the new C3 framework. We then describe racial pedagogical content knowledge (Chandler, 2015) and notions of non-racism and anti-racism. Next, we provide examples of how social studies teacher education can promote anti-racism in social studies methods classes by utilizing the construct of racial pedagogical content knowledge. Lastly, we conclude with some insights into moving past non-racism and further anti-racism in social studies teacher education.

Definition of Race and Racism

In order to reorient the focus in social studies teacher education regarding race and racism, a definition of the two terms are required to place our thoughts in proper context. Our conception of race is aligned with conventional scholarship that has identified the concept of race as biologically inaccurate. Race is an ideology that is historically and socially constructed to categorize humanity. Haney Lopez (2000) described race as “neither an essence nor an illusion, but rather an ongoing, contradictory, self-reinforcing, plastic process subject to the macro forces of social and political struggle and the micro effects of daily decisions” (p. 165). Omi and Winant (1994) noted “race is a concept which signifies and symbolizes social conflicts and interests by referring to different types of human bodies” (p. 55). Race, because of its social dynamics is not a fixed entity but is fluid within time and space abided by complex rules that are in constant transformation. The construct of race not only speaks to the ways in which people are defined by their perceived skin color, but rather the systems of thought, control, and oppressions/privilege that are associated with that skin color. Our notion of race is one that is highly flexible and malleable to the needs and desires of a White oriented world. In fact, the flexibility and malleability are enduring characteristics of race in modern times.

Historically, race has been used as a classification system to describe citizenship. The United States has and continues to allocate economic, political, social, and psychological advantages to those that are currently labeled as White. The Naturalization Act of 1790, the Indian removal Act (1830), the Mexican Repatriation program (1929), and Jim Crow legislation serve as examples of this orientation as a racialized society. While socially constructed notions of race were the catalyst for these *legalises*, it is the belief that White skin holds certain rights and privileges

(Harris, 1995) over other racialized groups that forms the crux of modern racism. Racism, therefore, is not a simple act of individual prejudice; it is a systematic belief in maintaining White supremacy through various social contexts (Essed & Goldberg, 2002). Tatum (1997) surmised that a good way to understand racism is to think of racism as “prejudice plus power” (p. 7). Prejudice plus power helps us to understand how Whites control the access to “social, cultural, and economic resources and decision-making, which leads to the institutionalization of racist policies and practices” (pp. 7–8). Viewed in this way, race is not a biologically occurring aspect of human existence and racism is not an individual act of one person towards another. Race is a socially constructed, hegemonic way of arranging a society to the benefit of some and the detriment of others (Leonardo, 2009); racism is a macro, overarching field of oppression that (over)determines people’s social lives.

Race and Social Studies Education

As the most inclusive (Ross, 2006) subject taught in schools, and the one explicitly charged with citizenship education, it seems logical that racial literacy would find its natural home within social studies curriculum, practice, and theory (Ladson-Billings, 2003). Yet, research on race and social studies practice and teacher education is marginalized and not heavily theorized (Brown, 2011; Chandler & McKnight, 2011; King, Busey, Smith, & Crowley, 2014). The treatment of race, racism, and oppression within the social studies curriculum is also limited, silenced and wrought with issues (Bigler, Shiller, & Willcox, 2013; Chandler, 2009; Ladson-Billings, 2003; Vasquez-Heilig, Brown, & Brown, 2012). Problems implementing racial knowledge in social studies come from many places— the official curriculum (Apple, 1999), lack of knowledge (Brown, 2011; King, 2014), teacher fear, adoption of a colorblind approach, liberal incrementalism, and conflation with multicultural education (Chandler & McKnight, 2011). Within the social studies curriculum, race teaching sends what Ladson-Billings (2003) termed a *discourse of invisibility* where powerful messages are displayed that center Whites as the apex of civilization and Non-Whites as “relatively insignificant to the growth and development of [humanity] and a drain on resources and values” (p. 4). Leonardo (2009) posits:

... there is no paucity of representation of whites as its creator. From civil society, to science, to art, whites represent the...best that a culture has produced. In other words, white imprint is everywhere. However, when it concerns domination, whites suddenly disappear, as if history were purely a positive sense of contribution. Their previous omnipresence becomes a position of nowhere, a certain politics of undetectability (p. 88)

Therefore, the *discourse of invisibility* and *politicsof undetectability* forces race and racism within social studies to be treated in a piecemeal, superficial fashion (Chandler & Branscombe, 2015). This approach fails to provide students with a *structural* understanding of race in the United States (Brown & Brown, 2010; Wills, 2001).

In addition, Whiteness is simultaneously visible and invisible, which helps race in general, and Whiteness in particular, from being interrogated in social studies spaces. This allows for a false consciousness vis-à-vis race, in which individual acts of racial transgression are perceived as constituting racism (proper) while allowing the more subtle forms of institutional racism to remain largely undetected. Thus, in social studies we can condemn “classic racism” in the “long ago past” (non-racist) while ignoring “new racism” that is hidden slightly below the surface of White people’s radars (anti-racist).

Non-racism

Due to the lack of RPCK, our current modes of thinking about race within teacher education programs do not serve our students’ racial awareness or their abilities to teach about race in meaningful, authentic ways. We believe that the major roadblock to this happening is the de facto “non-racist” stance related to teaching about race within the social studies. Again, non-racist or non-racism refers to a passive rejection, opposition and disassociation from behaviors, discourse, and ideology that are considered racist. Non-racist frameworks define racism as extreme, overt, highly visible behavior that consists of irrational and independent actions of individuals or as Brown and Brown (2010) has classified “bad men doing bad things” (p. 60).

Non-racism marginalizes the historical legacy and contemporary renderings of systemic racism in present society. Non-racism accepts colorblindness and racial neutrality, which centers on non-discriminatory *intentions* (Alexander, 2011) and assumes the possibility of racial innocence of people, policies, and ideas. Resisting racial permanence and personal prejudices may be admirable in many circles, but without recognizing or calling into question wider system of domination, non-racism is problematic (Brown, 1985). In other words, enacted non-racism unintentionally produces outcomes that can be profoundly and systemically racist.

We propose a social studies teacher education program that deals not with the development of a non-racist view (to which most people already adhere) but uses a more anti-racist approach that deals with understanding the historical/structural nature of race (West, 2002). Non-racism and anti-racism have fundamentally different goals and practices premised on radically different understandings of race and racism in social studies curriculum and practice. We define anti-racist as a critical awareness of race and racism that rejects *racial common sense*—the accepted racial liberal norms, values, and ideologies related to race and schooling in U.S. and global society (Brandt, 1986). Pollock (2008) proposes four basic principles for anti-racist education, “which involves rejecting false notions of human difference, acknowledging lived experiences shaped along racial lines, learning from diverse forms of knowledge and experiences, and challenging systems of racial inequality” (p. xx). In what follows, we briefly address “official” (Apple, 2004) NCSS statements on race, research in White Social Studies (Chandler & Branscombe, 2015), and racial pedagogical content knowledge.

NCSS and Non-racism

Impediments to teaching about race within social studies (Chandler & McKnight, 2011) are compounded by non-racist policy/position statements made (or not made) by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS). Throughout various iterations of NCSS standards, “No overt statement about race or racism is made in the standards that govern and organize the social studies...” (Chandler & McKnight, 2011). For example, the 1994 version of the NCSS *Curriculum Standards for Social Studies: Expectations of Excellence* considers race an important factor in helping students to construct a “pluralist perspective” and the achieving valuable civic ideas. However, the notion of race in this particular document is located among a constellation of other considerations—religion, gender, class, ethnicity—and as the document phrases it, “culture in general” (p. 7). Ironically, in this move, “inclusion” of race within this “list” serves to diminish its relevance (as well as other marginalized discourses) in social studies thought and pedagogy. In the next iteration of NCSS standards, the *National Curriculum Standards for Social Studies* (2010), we also find the obligatory nod to the notion of race, and we find it located, again, within an all encompassing discourse of “difference”—“race, ethnicity, language, religion, gender, sexual orientation, exceptional learning needs, and other educationally and personally significant characteristics of learners” (p. 9). In what is touted as an improvement over the 1994 version, the 2010 document provides nearly 100 pages of what the authors call “Snapshots of Practice.” Of the 60 “Snapshots of Practice” that are included in the most recent version of the standards, “only 6 deal with race, but only tangentially—even failing to use the word “race” in the lesson descriptions. Perhaps most importantly, the lessons fail to connect our racial past with the racial present” (Chandler & McKnight, 2011, p. 222).

The new NCSS C3 Framework (2013) is organized to build upon the improved NCSS Standards model by including “Dimensions of informed inquiry in social studies.” *This document reflects the same raceless perspective as previous NCSS sanctioned documents.* In the main document only one sentence gives attention to race: “Understand patterns of human physical variability and the evidence for arguing that humans cannot be sorted into distinct biological races” (p. 78). Not counting references, the entire 108-page document includes the word “race” a total of five times in appendices that detail sociological and anthropological knowledge. Four of these five uses are found in the appendix dealing with anthropology, a course offering that receives little attention in public schools and in social studies research (Levstik & Tyson, 2008). In short, this formal curricular-organization document contains *one full sentence* that could be construed as a nod towards the importance of race within social studies and citizenship education: “...categorization into socially defined races is a real phenomenon with real consequences in societies like the United States.” This one sentence, although important, is buried in the appendix of a subject that very few social studies teachers are qualified to teach or that many schools offer.

In this way, we have a braiding together of common sense conservative/neutral mindsets about race and a failure of leadership in NCSS on race that fills the void that could help teachers make sense of how to “do race” in their classrooms. Given the combination of these factors, it is not surprising that social studies fails (Chandler & McKnight, 2009) to prepare students for a racially based citizenship existence in the US.

White Social Studies

Research regarding race and social studies has been very diverse in terms of trying to explain the lack of racial discourse in social studies classrooms. Descriptors such as teacher fear, apathy and insufficient knowledge to explore racial topics are some of the reasons for this gap. Most of this research has been conducted with White teachers, who represent the largest demographics in the teaching profession, including social studies (Passe & Fitchett, 2013). So while non-White social studies teachers may hold these same dispositions towards the teaching of race, White social studies teachers are the most likely to be in classrooms around the United States. This section describes a non-racist approach to social studies teaching through research conducted by Chandler and Branscombe (2015). This research reinforces what Garrett and Segall (2013) have found—that it is not that teachers do not “know” about race, rather it is the active disengagement with a racial knowledge that dominates the teaching space. Chandler and Branscombe (2015) called this approach to non-racism, “White Social Studies” (WSS).

In this construct, social studies, whether in history, geography, government, economics, or any of the other social sciences, maintains the racial status quo protecting White dominant narratives. White Social Studies, as a pedagogical mindset:

1. Employs common sense, essentialized understandings of race to reify the historical status quo,
2. Has enacted (pedagogical) and personal (philosophical) traits that impact classroom pedagogy,
3. Assumes that dominant narratives and paradigms of thinking (Kincheloe, 2008) in the social sciences, particularly historical investigation, are unproblematic,
4. Has a deep, personal, and racial investment in the symbolic, fictive imaginary of the United States as a polity,
5. Is inherently contradictory and self-reinforcing,
6. Is “raceproof” (i.e., historical/social phenomena can be explained without race),
7. Ignores contemporary, current events that cast into question historical narratives’ legitimacy and, more importantly, their meaning,
8. Utilizes selective use of aspects of historical thinking to support prior claims (i.e., The selective use of chronology: Declaration of Independence is important, Slavery is not),

9. Rest squarely in the transmission camp of social studies theory,
10. Protects dominant, European/White narratives from criticism (pp. 63–64).

The three teachers highlighted in their study taught in a world of racial-pedagogical paradox—there existed a tension between realizing the power of race and Whiteness and its impact on U.S. history and a refusal to allow these realizations to enter the pedagogical space in their classrooms. By engaging in a pedagogy of silence and denial on race, they served to protect the White racial code prevalent in social studies education. In social studies teacher education, we see this same sort of reaction—social studies teacher candidates who “realize” or “know” about race, but who find reasons to not “do race” either in their student teaching or when they become full time teachers. A corollary of WSS is that this sort of pedagogy represents a form of curricular White supremacy.

...it can be argued that these teachers are unconsciously engaging in teaching about dominant narratives because this is the way they see their jobs as teachers and as White folk—to reinforce and uphold traditional narratives about US history and the role of race. Or, it can be argued that these teachers, fully aware of their Whiteness, have purposefully decided to leave out racial explanations of how and why events in early American history occurred. We believe that both of these are operating, simultaneously, in the thinking of our teachers, but not in their enacted teaching. In this way, they are upholding, through their negotiations of race and history, the idea of White superiority within their history classes. (Chandler & Branscombe, 2015, p. 80)

The White teachers’ pedagogy examined in Chandler and Branscombe’s work points to the ways in which White teachers navigate their personal notions about race and the ways in which this plays itself out in their enacted pedagogy. There seemed to be, within this study, a recognition on the part of these teachers that race “mattered,” but this sentiment rarely was disallowed from their enacted teaching. The personal/philosophical stances of these teachers notwithstanding, their students endured and experienced a social studies curriculum that was untroubled by the specter of race in US history. It was a narrative “given” to these students that served to uphold racial common sense and to seal up the cracks that may have emerged in the metanarrative of American exceptionalism. In fact, “we see the *dualistic recognition of a problematic inherent in the traditional stories we tell school children, and a refusal to allow this problematic to enter the White teaching space*. The result of this recognition is a sort of schizophrenic teaching existence that is internally contradictory for our teachers, but that serve to reinforce dominant racial thinking and protect White historical narratives” (Chandler & Branscombe, 2015, p. 71).

The pedagogical moves employed by these teachers represent an attempt to teach US history without a racial lens. That is, they seek to pass down a version of “our story” that, due to our *specialness* as a nation, cannot be tainted by the sin of institutional racism. Therefore, they explained the behavior(s) of historical actors and institutions as if they had nothing to do with race.

Racial Pedagogical Content Knowledge: towards a Anti-racist Approach to Social Studies Teacher Education Programs

We will focus on illustrating how social studies teacher education programs (particularly methods classes) can construct a curriculum that explores anti-racism through using *racial pedagogical content knowledge* (RPCK) (Chandler, 2015). According to several scholars (Cheng & Soudak, 1994; Husband, 2012; Kalin, 2002), anti-racist curriculum and pedagogy encompasses several principles: (1) interrogates power structures and inequalities through critical thinking, (2) makes the experiences of historically racialized people and communities central to the curriculum and instruction, (3) examines intersectionality, (4) helps identify the invisibility of race through teaching about stereotypes and microaggressions against Non-Whites, (5) affirms diversity throughout the entire curriculum, and (6) teaches empowerment and resistance of racial bias through both social and intellectual action. Anti-racism is an active process against racism that seeks to understand how race ideology is manufactured and how it impacts the lived, daily experiences of people. Race and racism are both micro and macro phenomena and the only way to relieve society of its racist past and continued transgressions are to confront race and racism in more pedagogically direct ways.

At its heart, the construct of RPCK attempts to synthesize the already established idea of pedagogical content knowledge with the tenets of critical race theory (CRT) (Chandler, 2015). This conceptual move can be done with any of the social sciences that comprise the social studies. This calls on teachers to have content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986), and a *working racial knowledge* of how race operates within the structures of social science (and education), from a CRT (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995) perspective. The term “working racial knowledge” denotes that ones thinking about teaching the social sciences and the resulting pedagogy, should take the structural nature of race/racism into account. We also recognize that teachers are at different levels of racial awareness, and that there is not “one way” to teach about race. The pedagogical construct of RPCK allows teachers, at different stages in their teaching careers and racial understanding, a starting point to teach about race. As our sample “essential questions” listed below reveal, RPCK starts with the notion that all of the social sciences that comprise social studies have a racial component and that this racial component is central to understanding life in the US and across the globe (Chandler, 2015). As the teachers studied in Chandler and Branscombe’s (2015) work reveal, to ignore or downplay the impact of race in social studies is to *partially* understand how these racially situated bodies of knowledge play out in the “real world.”

To do this, social studies teacher education needs to move past conceptualizing social studies as objective and pure disciplines and view each area as possessing its own racialized histories that influence the ways in which we understand them. In addition, this position allows the nature of each of the subject areas to be understood, not only in the traditional sense, but with a racial lens as well. For example, pedagogical content thinking (e.g., Neumann, 2012; Schmidt, 2011; VanSledright,

2004; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004) would be examined but so would pedagogical content thinking from a *racial standpoint*. In fact, each of the social science disciplines would be treated in this way to answer large, essential questions in social studies. We believe that with the new C3 Framework's call for disciplinary inquiry and its emphasis on "Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries," can serve as a springboard for asking important social studies questions to drive our instruction. In fact, combining the idea of RPCK and the disciplinary tools of the C3 Framework would allow for inquiries addressing not only essential questions in social studies, but it would allow for essential questions that address race and racism among and between groups in our nation and across the world.

US History:

- How did race/racism/racial theories impact the founding of the United States?
- How did ideas about race impact the different racial groups during the "Age of Contact"?
- How is racial conflict portrayed in the media? In textbooks?

Geography:

- How does location impact our ideas about race?
- Why do racial groups live where they do?
- What role does race play in our ongoing debates about immigration?

Government:

- Whose racial interests does the US government serve?
- How has the idea of "We the People" changed over time?
- How do you explain racial voting patterns?

Economics:

- Why are there disparities in hiring rates for people of different races?
- How do you explain disparity in income among and between racial groups?
- How is wealth distributed in the US by race?

Sociology:

- How were/are "races" created?
- What is White privilege?
- What does it mean to "act White"?

Psychology:

- How have "intelligence" tests been used to support racism?
- What is racial profiling?
- Can we profile unconsciously?

Current Events:

- What is the role of police in a democracy?
- What accounts for the racial makeup of Ferguson's police force?

Why does the killing of unarmed, Black males elicit such emotion in people of all races?

Anthropology:

What is ethnocentrism?

What are your cultural assumptions and how are they rooted in race?

The concept of RPCCK builds upon the solid theoretical base in CRT to help teachers and teacher educators *apply* the tenets of CRT in social studies classrooms, regardless of the content focus. At its heart, RPCCK is a recognition that race is inherently present in the disciplines that comprise the social studies and more importantly, questions can be asked within these disciplines that point to the power of race in our world—past, present, and future.

Anti-racist Teaching: High Schools, Race, and America’s Future

One of the complaints from educators interested in exploring the possibility of anti-racist practice in their classroom is the lack of empirical work (Levstik & Tyson, 2008) around these issues. In response to that call, we highlight Lawrence Blum’s (2012) book, *High Schools, Race, and America’s Future: What Students Can Teach Us About Morality, Diversity, and Community*. Blum is a professor at University of Massachusetts-Boston and wrote a book chronicling his 4-year journey into teaching a high school course titled, *Race and Racism*. Blum, who developed the class based on the uniqueness of the racial diversity in the city of Cambridge and its public schools, created a “college level,” race-centric course that included topics related to “science, history, current events, and student’s reflections on their own lives” (p. 8). Classifying the course as a building block for racial literacy, the class explored notions around stereotypes, historical genealogy and contemporary manifestation of race, racial identity, morality, Black inferiority, economics, and civic responsibility. What makes *High Schools, Race, and America’s Future* an appropriate exemplar of anti-racist teaching are the classroom dialogues that reveal honest and humanizing “race” talk. In other words, the book describes not only how successful the curriculum was in helping explore racial topics, it also helps teachers understand the complexities and sometimes uncomfortable moments related to race discourse. This is important considering teachers’ fear of the uncontrollable classroom that may occur based on students’ (read Black students) anger based on these sensitive topics (Epstein, 2009). To illustrate Blum’s anti-racist pedagogy and curriculum, we briefly discuss 3 of the 12 major assignments required for the course. The focus activities are the *racial empathy essay*, *racial incident description*, and the *final group project*.

The racial empathy essay was a 500–800 word, 6-week writing assignment that required students to interview a person of a different race. Through whole class and

self-generated questions, the objective was to interview this person in two stages. The first stage was the initial interview complete with transcription. The students had to organize and analyze the narrative and create follow-up questions for a second interview. After the second interview, the students had to devise an essay in the interviewee's voice, adding their own reflections on what they learned about the interviewee's racial group, race and racism, and themselves.

The *racial incident description* is an assignment that was issued during the second or third week of the class. In class, the students individually wrote about a single racial incident that they observed or happen to an acquaintance. The incident had to involve a peer or both an adult and peer. The assignment asked the students to focus on the messiness of the racial situation and how bystanders could have intervened in constructive ways. Blum noted that the assignment was part of moral and civic education and wanted students to see race not as an issue only for Non-Whites but to see race and racism as a personal responsibility and moral prerogative for society. In another Blum piece, *Racial Incidents as Teachable Moment*, (Blum, 2008) he described some of the questions accompanying the racial incidents activity:

1. You are a Black teenager vacationing in a beach town with very few Blacks. Drinking a Fresca, you and a friend, who is Black, enter a convenience store looking for something to eat, but you do not find anything to your liking there. As you and your friend look around the store you feel people looking at you in a hostile manner. The clerk asks if you have paid for the Fresca; you say you bought it from another store. You add that you have not taken anything from the store, but the clerk will not let you leave until he has ascertained that the store does not carry the item that you have on you.
2. You are a White teenager in a store. You consider your White manager racist. One day you make an "attitude" remark to the manger and she snaps back at you to "leave the nigger attitude with the niggers." (p. 237)

What the assignments accomplished was to center the experiences of historically marginalized groups as the analysis, interrogate power structures, and provide students with modes of critical racial thinking that moves them from being ethno-centric and towards being more racially aware. The *racial incident description* and *racial empathy essay* assignments had a strict focus to explain Non-White experiences towards race and racism. Too many times, dominant cultures serve as the gatekeepers of what can be classified as racial or racist. The marginalized, many times, do not have a strong voice to explicate the wrongs that are done to them. If they do, then sometimes they are characterized as someone who complains or wants special privileges. These assignments place Non-Whites as the purveyors of knowledge to help students understand race and racism from their point of view.

The final group project consisted of students participating in interracial groups created by Blum and the Teaching Assistant. The activity spanned two and half months. The student groups had to select a topic on race within their local context. The list was compiled both by the class and the instructors and included topics such as the use of stereotypes by classmates, racial achievement gap at the school, race,

ethnicity, and the social world of the school, mixed race identity and race and racism in two different countries (Blum, 2012, p. 216).

The final group project has elements that helped students understand racial power structures. For example, a few of the topics centered on racial issues from the school they attended. The topics of stereotypes, racial achievement gap, and race, ethnicity, and the social world of the school, provide a deeper analysis to their local contexts. While these topics are separate, they are still interconnected and have important implications for racial minorities' material realities. By understanding how racial stereotypes, achievement issues, and the school's sociology are results of microaggressions and hidden power structures, this can provide students with a sophisticated racial knowledge to begin to challenge systems of power through their privilege positioning.

All the assignments provided the students with a critical mode of racial thinking. It forced them to look beyond their racial selves and understand race issues through various lenses. Blum's objective was to explore anti-racism through morality and civic responsibility. By helping students critically think about racial issues, the students began to become more aware of microaggressions towards Non-Whites and how race manifests itself in different spaces. They began to question their responsibilities as citizens and their role in protecting rights of all people.

Discussion: Theorizing and Creating RPCK in Social Studies Teacher Programs

Questions may still remain on the ways social studies teacher educators can promote anti-racist curriculum and seamlessly engage with ideas of race throughout a program's sequence. This section provides some suggestions for social studies teacher educators to consider. We will describe both pedagogical and curricular considerations of anti-racist social studies teacher education. Through our descriptions, we will use Pollock's (2008) four principles of anti-racist education and racial pedagogical content knowledge (Chandler, 2015). Pollock's principles—(1) rejecting false notions of human difference, (2) acknowledging lived experiences shaped along racial lines, (3) learning from diverse forms of knowledge and experiences, and (4) challenging systems of racial inequality (Pollock, 2008, p. xx)—provide a foundation for social studies teacher educators to consider when developing method courses. In addition to providing a basic framework for methods courses, these principles also allow space for RPCK (i.e., pedagogical content knowledge combined with critical race theory) to be utilized for curricular and pedagogical reimagining.

First, teachers have a responsibility to reject false notions of "scientific" human difference. This is done through arranging activities and discussions that rejects biological (i.e., "natural") explanations of race. As anti-racist social studies educators we dispute essentialized constructs of racial-ethnic identities and group behaviors; instead, we focus on the sociology of race and how racial categories are complex

and ever changing. Critical race theory “holds that race and races are products of social thought and relations. Not objective, inherent, or fixed, they correspond to no biological or genetic reality; rather races are categories that society invents, manipulates, or retires when convenient” (Delgado & Stefancic, 2012, p. 7). Due to the hegemonic function (Apple, 2004) of race, candidates in social studies teacher education have difficulties thinking of race as a “construction.” This is largely due to the ways in which we use imprecise terms to describe our racial relatedness. These terms and labels (e.g., Chicano, Latino/a, Mexican, Black, African-American, White, Caucasian, Chinese-American) do suggest that race is, in fact, a “real” thing. Our social worlds tell us that race is not a construction, but a normal, natural part of everyday living. The constructedness of race can be highlighted in our methods classes with data/sources from the social sciences that make up social studies. The shifting and impermanent nature of race (and its meaning) is perhaps the defining feature of how race operates. The ability of race to change and mutate to serve political, military, and economic ends is one of its enduring qualities. History is full of examples that bear this out: in Hispanic-American colonies, royal certificates of “Whiteness” could be purchased to buy your way in to the dominant race. Throughout American history, some groups have been able to claim Whiteness (and therefore its benefits), and this oftentimes has defined the history of immigration in the U.S. Immigrants arriving from Portugal were considered White in the US, but not in other territories, late in the 1800s Chinese and Mexican “Indians” were classified as “White” in Cuba, but not in the United States. Even pseudo-scientific notions of “blood purity” and “hypodescent” cast into relief the fact that race, and the meaning associated with it, are human inventions (Allen, 1994).

The second and third principles noted above (acknowledgement of differential racial experience and learning from diverse forms of knowledge) are similar to the first principle in that they call on social studies educators to challenge racial categories that are based on “physical difference.” For example, racialized categories such as “Hispanic” “Asian,” “Native American,” and “Arab” are concepts that marginalize cultural difference. When these groups are aggregated as one, we do not see the diversity of people who bring divergent historical experiences, live in various regions, talk in various language dialects, and commemorate different socio-cultural traditions.

Storytelling, in the CRT tradition, serves to “demonstrate that racial and ethnic phenomena are interpreted differently based on the positionality of your particular group in the social hierarchy” and this reveals that “racism and racial discrimination are deep and enduring parts of the everyday existences of people of color” (Brown & Jackson, 2013, p. 18). In many contexts, storytelling and counter-storytelling are acts of pedagogical transgression in which voices (Takaki, 1998; Zinn, 2004) omitted from the official (Apple, 1999) version of the truth are allowed into the social studies space. In allowing these voices to penetrate the fortress of White knowledge, teachers and students of social studies are able to understand that we all see the world through racial lenses, and that not all lenses are the same. Pedagogically, allowing students access to stories and counter-stories in U.S. history is perhaps a familiar approach due to the popularity of primary document use in social studies.

Lastly, anti-racist education challenges systems of racial inequality. Students come to learn that racism is an institutional practice and come to reject the normalcy of racial disparities.

To take civics education as an example, RCPK would require social studies teachers to not only teach “procedural democracy” (i.e., three branches of government, rights of citizens, how a bill becomes a law), but also how our democracy plays out in terms of race. This would require social studies teachers to make connections between civics content, skills, and dispositions (NCSS, 2010), and the racial reality (Bell, 1995) of American democracy. Borrowing tenets of CRT to infuse into civics/government lessons allows students and teachers to see that civics is not a neutral, inherently good part of American life, but that it, too, is infused with racial thinking. Within a civics class, the CRT idea that “racism is normal” could be used to explain racial disparities in incarceration rates in the US (Alexander, 2011) and the Supreme Court’s litmus test for “proving” racial bias. Similarly, in an economics class, teachers could use the study from the University of Chicago (Betrand & Mullainathan, 2003) that points to dysconscious racism in the labor market or historical examples of loan and housing discrimination to help students understand “why” the world, from an economic and racial perspective, looks the way it does. Employing RCPK to add the layer of race to the teaching of concepts like “democracy” and “government” allows teachers and students to see beyond the neutral language of institutions to uncover the lived realities that these macrostructures inflict on people of color.

Conclusion

It is clear that the issue of race for many social studies educators is a struggle to enact with students. While scholarship typically focuses on pre- and in-service teachers, we know little about how race is performed in social studies methods classrooms in university and alternative settings. Do teacher educators hold the same fear active disengaging dispositions about race as our K-12 counterparts? In other words, do the pedagogical and curricular habits of social studies teachers in the country (as evidenced Chandler & Branscombe’s work) simply mirror the people who make-up the field? If the lack of research on this topic is any indication, we fear that not enough is being done to help new social studies teachers become anti-racist educators, thus leaving the default position of non-racism to remain unchallenged.

Being a social studies teacher and anti-racist is the correct step in promoting social studies’ civic goals. As Blum (2012) states, “If civic engagement aims [is] to create a more just society, understanding racial issues and being able to discuss them intelligently and productively with fellow citizens is an absolute necessity” (p. 186). While on the surface, being non-racist seems to be positive. For many social studies pre-service and inservice teachers as well as teacher educators, not actively seeing race and promoting racism is a good thing. Non-racist stances

effectively do little to transform our thinking about race. In fact, it reinforces racial structures and accepts terms of racism by being passive and silence about racial knowledge. If social studies teacher education is about helping our students teach humanity—Who is human and how to treat human beings—then anti-racism is needed to actualize the basic philosophical questions of ontology/being (Who am I?), epistemology/knowing (What do I know to be true?) and axiology/doing (What should I do?).

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Chapter 2

Challenging Neoliberal Perspectives: A Framework for Humanizing Social Studies Teacher Education

Brooke Blevins and Tony L. Talbert

Introduction

What type of curriculum do social studies educators believe best promotes popular democracy locally and globally? Will today's neoliberal market oriented social studies curriculum establish a legacy of empowered democratic agency among students and communities? When asking these questions, it is essential for the PK-12 social studies teacher and university-based social studies teacher educator to review the content and context that are present in today's social studies curriculum resources.

The philosophical and operational foundations of public schools and, in many respects, universities have made a gradual shift in focus from a *Transformational Based System* to an *Information Based System* of education. An *Informational Based System* is singularly focused on the acquisition and assessment of content and skills that can be quantified for market utility and value. In contrast, a *Transformational Based System* is rooted in the egalitarian belief that education is for the purpose of transforming the minds and lives of the students and community stakeholders. While some teacher education programs have adopted a transformational based system, many continue to be driven by organizations such as the National Council on Teacher Quality (NCTQ) and the Council for Assessment of Educator Preparation (CAEP) that focus on evaluating so-called scientifically-based evidence of "quality" teacher education singularly defined by a finite, market oriented set of content knowledge and pedagogical skills.

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To challenge this *Informational Based* approach to teacher education we argue for a humanizing approach to social studies teacher education that (1) fosters a dialogic relationship; (2) focuses on student experience; (3) facilitates a critique of official knowledge; and (4) frames critical questions and introduces subjugated knowledge. Below we describe the dichotomy between an *Information Based System* and *Transformation Based System* within the context of public schooling and teacher education. We then outline a framework for humanizing social studies teacher education grounded in critical pedagogy provide examples of how this framework might be enacted to help teachers develop political clarity. We end by highlighting the implications of adopting a humanizing framework for social studies teacher education.

The Context of an Information Based System

Because of the neoliberal *Information Based System* emphasis on accountability, “most public schools now focus on and often times fear annual school scores based on aggregated results of state-developed indicators” (Olsen & Sexton, 2008, p. 10). Harvey (2005) defines neoliberalism as “a theory of political economic practices that proposes that human well-being can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills within an institutional framework characterized by strong private property rights, free markets, and free trade” (p. 2). Martinez and Garcia (2000) described the main points of neoliberalism as: (1) The rule of the market; (2) Cutting public expenditures for social services; (3) Deregulation; (4) Privatization; and, (5) Elimination of the “public good” or “community.” As such, education is a key target of neoliberal reforms. Government imposed curricular initiatives such as the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), “commodify public education by reducing learning to bits of information and skills to be taught and tested and marketize education through programs that promote privatization and user fees in place of free public education” (Ross & Gibson, 2007, p. 4).

The neoliberal focus on preparing students as commodities in a free market economy has narrowed the curriculum and placed limitations on teachers and students, including providing teachers with scripted lessons, leading many new teachers to find “their personal and professional identity development thwarted, creativity and autonomy undermined, and ability to forge relationships with students diminished” (Crocco & Constigan, 2007, p. 513). Frequently, new teachers work in low performing schools with restrictive policies and practices and unsupportive leadership that diminish personal teaching satisfaction. Those examining the relationship between the call for accountability and its effects on teachers suggest, that “a balance must be struck between autonomy and accountability in devising scope for professional discretion over curriculum” (Crocco & Constigan, p. 514). The stress on neoliberal accountability mandates, raising standards, and limited choices in curriculum and instruction have had great effects on teacher education and teacher retention, especially on neophyte teachers (Carroll, 2005;

Ingersoll, 2001; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). As Maxine Greene (1982) asserted many years ago, “there is little talk today about the connection between public education and freedom” (p. 4). More than in any other period of American history, teachers have been stripped of their most precious role: the duty to educate a generation of fully informed democratic citizens. Neoliberalism has taken away the joy of learning, the creativity of teaching, and the formation of strong public intellectuals. Public education is gradually fading and is being replaced by new privatized forms of schooling which has resulted in the lack of an articulate public dialogue reducing the public spheres to contest the dominant neoliberal vision of society. The humanities and the arts are being eliminated from the curriculum of public schools (Baltodano, 2012). As a result, the newer generation of students is losing “the ability to think critically; the ability to transcend local loyalties and to approach world problems as a ‘citizen of the world;’ and, finally, the ability to imagine sympathetically the predicament of another person” (Nussbam, 2010, p. 7).

The neoliberal inspired standardized social studies curriculum that dominates PK-12 and higher education institutions has essentially altered the vision and purpose of education (Ross & Gibson, 2007). The evolution of social studies education has taken multiple twists and turns since its origins in the early twentieth century. The push and pull effect of defining the purpose and perspective of social studies curriculum has too often resulted in the isolated focus on social science subject matter and preparation for a market driven economy with little connection to meaningful application in students’ lives. For almost a century social studies curriculum has vacillated between a focus on enculturation and socialization into societies norms, transmission of factual and conceptual knowledge from the academic disciplines, and the promotion of critical or reflective thinking (Ross, 2006).

In 1992 the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) Task Force on Standards for Teaching and Learning in the Social Studies authored it’s inspiring *A Vision of Powerful Teaching and Learning in the Social Studies: Building Social Understanding and Civic Efficacy* (NCSS, 1992). In this treatise the NCSS Task Force appeared to be taking a bold and principled stand on behalf of social studies educators nationwide against the direct assault on progressive education being led by neoliberals seeking to take further control of the U.S. public school curriculum. In so doing this represented a move by the NCSS Task force toward a more transformation based approach to social studies education. Despite the efforts of NCSS to offer a robust vision of social studies education, in 2003 Diane Ravitch, one of the primary architects of NCLB, was still asking, “What is social studies? Or, what are social studies? ...leaders of the field have frequently wrestled with their goals and purposes and self-definition.” (2003, p. 1).

Although Ravitch (2003) suggested that social studies educators could not coalesce around a common understanding about the purpose of the social studies, the NCSS “Vision for Powerful Teaching and Learning in the Social Studies” (NCSS, 1992) provided a clear and focused roadmap for social studies education. The progressive NCSS vision, did not attend to the desired neoliberal focus that continued to dominate education reform. As a result, this clearly articulated stance

by the NCSS was quickly countered by neoliberal reform efforts such as No Child Left Behind (NCLB) that promoted a skills-based curriculum focusing on reading and mathematics. Even though a group of experts in the field of social studies education had articulated a clear approach to social studies curriculum, neoliberal policy makers ignored this expressed vision in an effort to promote an agenda that was centered on an *information based system*. Ten years prior to Ravitch's critique, Stanley and Nelson (1994) offered perhaps the most clear and concise summary of this ongoing dispute over social studies curriculum, suggesting that primary conflict centered on whether the purpose of the social studies is to promote cultural transmission or critical or reflective thinking.

The Conflict Between an Information Based System and a Transformation Based System

Because of what appears to be a constant conflict in the purpose of the social studies, the preparation of social studies educators has found itself equally contentious (Sleeter, 2008; Stanley & Longwell, 2004). The desire of preparing teachers for a *transformation based system* of education continually is in conflict with the demand of preparing teachers for an *information based system*. As such, it is essential that social studies teacher educators help students develop and acquire the conceptual and operational knowledge, skills, and values necessary to critique the social, economic, and political practices that threaten the tenants of popular democracy. First, however, there must be a clear distinction made between a *Transformation Based System* and an *Information Based System* of education. In a *Transformation Based System*, all stakeholders are engaged in the identification of curriculum knowledge, skills, and values that are most meaningful, active, challenging, integrated, and value oriented for those engaged in the enterprise of education. Compared to the neoliberal conception of an *Information Based System*, where the core knowledge, skills, and values are fixed and controlled by defined parameters offered by an agent other than the learner (e.g., State /Local Board of Education, curriculum director, principal, teacher, et al), a *Transformation Based System* empowers all learners (the teacher and student) to identify the most relevant curriculum that addresses contemporary and future oriented problems and encourages these to be resolved collaboratively in a process of dialogical engagement and educational activism.

The professional literature reveals that young people become teachers because they believe education can create new opportunities for students (Crocco & Constigan, 2007). Teachers enter the profession because they want to make a difference and bring benefit to others. Unfortunately, many young teachers find themselves disheartened by the extreme standardization and lack of control they experience when they enter the teaching profession (Kopkowski, 2014). Given the power of neoliberal power blocs and their willingness to retaliate against those who challenge the legitimacy of their authority, it isn't surprising that few social studies

educators are willing to embrace the challenge of questioning the validity of these hegemonic power structures. Most often, market-based philosophies have been carefully enmeshed within the principles of popular democracy and at times even cleverly linked to the most sensitive and sacred principles of *Creator, Country, and Community*. Researchers have observed a strong connection between autonomy and teacher motivation (Crocco & Constigan, 2007). Unfortunately, many highly qualified teachers find themselves frustrated over the “diminished control they have over their classrooms, which erodes one of the only arenas in which they experience opportunities for decision making in a field in which teachers have little control” (Crocco & Constigan, p. 530).

Thus, it becomes imperative then that conversation about the purposes and values of a *Transformation Based System* of education becomes a cornerstone in social studies teacher education. The development of a democratic social and educational vision should be the primary task of social studies curricula. In turn, the primary task of a social studies teacher preparation program must be to provide pre-service and in-service teachers the opportunity to engage in a process of professional development that encourages the development of knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to become active agents in challenging the neoliberal *Information Based System* of public education that continues to undermine the fundamental democratic ethic of a *Transformation Based System* of public education. Without this focus, “democracies are doomed to the perpetuation of the structural inequalities and the political passivity of the status quo” (Kincheloe & Steinberg, 1997, p. 70).

Paulo Freire’s (1970) notion of humanizing education serves an important framework to explore how and why social studies teacher education must move from an *Information Based System* to a *Transformation Based System*. In humanizing education, teachers work as change agents as they seek to establish meaningful relationships with students from subordinated cultures and languages. According to Freire, the revolutionary teacher practices a humanizing pedagogy where the method of instruction “ceases to be an instrument by which the teachers can manipulate the students, because it expresses the consciousness of the student themselves” (Freire, p. 51). Lilia Bartolome (1994) describes humanizing pedagogy as “one that values the students background knowledge, culture, and life experiences, and creates learning contexts where power is shared by students and teachers” (p. 190). Humanizing pedagogy is an instrument of “becoming,” that critically examines power differentials in an effort to not only transform these relations of power but to transform teachers and students themselves as they work together in classrooms.

This lens of humanizing pedagogy helps us understand teaching as a process and a vision for life in schools and beyond – not only for our students, but also for ourselves. Hence to consider what it would mean to provide opportunities for prospective and practicing teachers to critically understand the world we also need to critically examine who we are and we are becoming as teacher educators in such contexts. (Price & Osborne, 2000, p. 3)

In examining themselves and their place within a larger educational context, teachers begin to develop *political clarity*. “Political clarity can never be achieved if one accommodates to a position of ambiguity that usually suppresses one’s ideo-

logical contradictions” (Freire, 1998, p. xxx). Ultimately the goal of social studies teacher education should be to help prospective teachers develop political clarity and enact a more humanizing pedagogy.

Teachers working on improving their political clarity recognize that teaching is not a politically neutral undertaking. Teachers working toward political clarity understand they can either maintain the status quo or they can work to transform the sociocultural reality at the classroom and school level so that the culture at this micro-level does not reflect macro-level inequalities, such as asymmetrical power relations that relegate certain cultural groups to a subordinate status. (Bartolome, 1994, p. 178)

Political clarity is essential if education is to be humanizing for both the teacher and the student.

Humanizing Social Studies Teacher Education

In order to help pre-service teachers develop political clarity we argue social studies teacher education should be grounded in critical pedagogy and focus on several key components of humanizing pedagogy including fostering a dialogic relationship between student and teacher, focusing on student experience, facilitating a critique of knowledge, and framing critical questions through the introduction of subjugated knowledge. In centering teacher education programs around this framework for humanizing social studies teacher education we prioritize *emancipatory knowledge* (transformation based system) over *technical knowledge* (information based system) of education. *Technical knowledge* refers to those areas of the curriculum where knowledge acquisition is quantifiable and measurable through assessment. Technical knowledge is most highly valued by neoliberal policies and policy makers. McLaren (2003) defined *emancipatory knowledge* as knowledge that “helps us understand how social relationships are distorted and manipulated by relations of power and privilege” (p. 197). This is not to say we don’t find technical and practical knowledge an important component of social studies teacher education but that social studies knowledge and skills must be rooted in the deeper question “for what purpose” which is the essence of emancipatory knowledge and the heart of humanizing pedagogy.

Below we describe four key components of a framework for humanizing social studies teacher education. After describing these components we provide examples of how this framework might be actualized in a social studies teacher education program. While these examples are embedded within specific components of the framework they are not exclusive to that single component. In other words, the examples encompass the entire framework for humanizing social studies teacher education. Additionally, while this framework is intended to describe a humanizing social studies teacher education program and its potential impact on pre-service teachers, in modeling this framework with pre-service teachers our hope is that they will enact it in their own practice as educators.

Fostering a Dialogic Relationship

The first component necessary to humanize social studies teacher education is to foster a dialogic relationship between pre-service social studies teachers and instructors. Through a dialogical approach to learning, the teacher moves from the position as “the-teacher-of the students” who transmits knowledge to a reciprocal relationship in which she and her students are co-investigators in the learning process. According to Paulo Freire (1970), in this method, all teach and all learn. The dialogical approach contrasts with the anti-dialogical method, which positions the teacher as the transmitter of knowledge and creates a hierarchical framework that leads to domination and oppression through the silencing of students’ knowledge and experiences.

To move beyond the oppressive pedagogical and curricular practices of schools and towards more emancipatory knowledge, Freire (1970) suggests an approach called *problem-posing education*. The Freirian notion of dialogical problem posing education is more closely aligned with the philosophical tenants and practices of a *Transformation Based System*. Problem-posing or liberating education focuses on developing cognition, a constant unveiling of reality, and a dialogical relationship between the student and the teacher. Through dialogue, students develop the ability to pose problems about occurrences in their daily lives. Freire described that “in problem-posing education, people develop their power to perceive critically *the way they exist* in the world *with which* and *in which* they find themselves; they come to see the world not as a static reality, but a reality in process, in transformation” (1970, p. 83). As such we suggest that teacher education should be centered around a problem-posing model where pre-service teacher voice and experience are highly valued and serve as the catalyst for curricular choices and essence of the course design and implementation.

For many of us as teacher educators, our syllabi are designed based upon a heuristic of prior experiences that have allowed us to predetermine what issues and ideas are most relevant to our students’ academic development. While our prior experiences allow us to draw upon both technical and practical knowledge as teacher educators, too often it leads to an isolating effect where the opportunity for inclusion of new student voices and experiences are unintentionally omitted and perhaps the silencing of emancipatory knowledge takes place. Instead we should work to communicate to our pre-service teachers the idea that we have mutual interdependence on deciding what is being taught and learned in the space. This means allowing our students to be equal partners in the construction of course syllabi as well as move between the role of student as teacher and teacher as student. In doing so, we foster a reciprocal student and teacher dialogue and model how we might equalize power by deciding together what issues and ideas will be taught and learned.

This means we must refrain from our tendency to have a predetermined course syllabus. While we can certainly suggest a general scope of issues and ideas to be explored, we want our pre-service teachers’ voices and experiences to be “the stuff” of our course. We want our pre-service teachers to recognize that their concerns,

their struggles and their triumphs are valued in our work together just as we would want them to value their own students' voices and lived experiences. This simple act of sharing decision-making provides space for pre-service teachers to engage in a problem-posing approach to education that regards dialogue as vital to critical thinking, stimulates true reflection and action, and affirms pre-service teachers in their process of becoming (Freire, 1970).

Focusing on Student Experience

Focusing on students lived experiences is an integral part of humanizing social studies education. Problem-posing education, as a form of humanizing pedagogy, constructs a bridge from students' lived experiences and global themes associated with both the critique of society and the exploration of new possibility for action (Giroux, 2003). As McLaren argues, emancipatory knowledge "encourages us to analyze the dominant forms of knowledge that shape student experiences; on the other hand, it attempts to provide students with the means to examine their own particular experiences and subordinate knowledge forms" (2003, p. 217). Students' social, cultural and linguistic experiences should be a vital source of knowledge within classrooms seeking to promote emancipatory knowledge. "Listening to students is important not because of any romantic notions of student knowledge but because doing so can help inform our curriculum and instructional strategies" (Nieto, 1995, p. 213). Thus humanizing pedagogy with its focus on student experience seeks to expose and shift our commonsense and often oppressive understandings and leads to emancipatory knowledge.

Teacher education research has clearly indicated that pre-service teachers come to their teacher education programs with deep rooted schooling and intellectual biographies that inform their notions of what it means to be a teacher and the practice of teaching (Adler, 2008; Britzman, 2003; Shulman, 1986). We recognize, as Lortie pointed out (1975), that pre-service teachers rely heavily on their apprenticeship of observation gained through numerous years of schooling as the basis for their understanding of teachers and teaching. As teacher educators we are quick to diminish our pre-service teachers' schooling experiences as irrelevant and even classify them as myths to be dispelled by the "knowledgeable and experienced" teacher educator. When we fail to acknowledge the experiences, we delegitimize our pre-service teachers' understandings and elevate our own experiences as exclusively relevant.

Instead, we must value pre-service teachers' prior experiences and their current experiences in the field, while helping them unpack and critically reflect upon these experiences as a springboard for moving forward in their practice of humanizing education. Just as the teacher educator has included the pre-service teacher in the scope and sequence of the syllabus, there must be equal attention and space given for pre-service teacher reflection and dialogue on past and current experiences. Critical reflection is essential in the development of pre-service teachers' political

clarity and enactment of humanizing pedagogy. Through critical reflection, pre-service teachers begin to unpack their own assumptions, the origins of those assumptions, and develop alternative ways of thinking and doing (Cranton, 1996). For instance, on the first day of class, we ask pre-service teachers to complete a graphic organizer in which they reflect about what they believe is the purpose of the social studies, what has influenced this belief, as well as provide examples of social studies learning experiences that have informed their views about teaching and learning in the social studies. Students then pair up to discuss their responses and share their social studies experiences. They then create a one to two sentence statement articulating what they believe to be the purpose of the social studies. Together as a whole class we create a Wordle that includes each pre-service teachers' purpose statement. This activity provides a visual aid that spurs further conversation about what values and purposes are central to their practice.

In addition, each week students are asked to compose a written reflection of their experiences in their field placement. These reflections are turned in at least 24 h prior to class time. This allows us the opportunity to read the reflections and prepare guiding questions and thoughts that are used to guide an in-class debriefing. Pre-service teacher reflections are guided by several questions such as: (1) What went well this week? (2) What challenges did you face? What did you not expect or anticipate? (3) What factors beyond your control impacted your teaching practice this week? (4) What did you do to help connect to students' prior knowledge, experiences, and understandings within this lesson (keeping race, class, gender, sexual orientation and nationality in mind)? (5) What purposes and values did you attempt to communicate through your teaching and interaction with students? (6) How did the students respond to you? (7) What problems or issues can we help you address? These questions are designed to help students think critically about their own teaching practice, their interactions with students, as well as larger issues of school culture. The problems of practice pre-service teachers articulate in their reflections become rich material we can use in designing meaningful and engaging course sessions.

Because today's neoliberal standards-based school culture does not foster reflection by teachers, it is all the more imperative that we model this practice with pre-service teachers. While reflection may be a commonplace in teacher education programs, we argue that this reflection should be critical in nature. Critical reflection offers the opportunity for pre-service teachers to acknowledge how deficit-based notions of diverse students permeate schools, recognize the explicit connection between culture and learning, explore diverse students' rich funds of knowledge, and recognize how traditional teaching practices reflect middle class, white, neoliberal values (Howard, 2003). Through critical and relational reflection, "pre-service teachers think intently about their own perspectives, beliefs, and life worlds in conjunction with, comparison with, and contrast to their students and their students' communities" (Valli, 1997, p. 357). As such, pre-service teachers not only interrogate their own beliefs and experiences, but they also move beyond an egocentric perspective and focus on how their beliefs and experiences compare and interact with those of their students. Just as pre-service teachers must be encouraged to ask

questions, inspect and consider their actions, and change unfounded beliefs as a result of critical reflection (Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Howard, 2003), the teacher educator must embrace and model these practices in order to participate in the dialogic relationship of teacher as student and student as teacher.

Facilitate a Critique of Official Knowledge

Humanizing social studies teacher education also provides an opportunity for teachers to critically examine knowledge and recognize the underlying political, social, and economic functions that extend the purpose of knowledge beyond the goal of simply mastering an academic subject (McLaren, 2003). Emancipatory knowledge via dialectical inquiry provides students and teachers the opportunity to critically examine knowledge and ask the question “to what ends” (Giroux, 1988, p. 49). In doing so educators attempt to take power back from those who have shaped schooling in oppressive ways. Teachers come to the realization that knowledge is not neutral and often leads to the creation of “official knowledge” that deletes and silences particular stories and ideas (Apple, 2000).

In order to engage in a critique of knowledge, teachers must not think of curriculum as simply a syllabus or course of study, but rather as a “symbolic, material, and human environment that is ongoingly reconstructed” (Apple, 2000, p. 138) and ask whose knowledge is being taught through this curriculum. In examining the accords and compromises that are reached in the creation of classroom curriculum, teachers are able to begin a critical analysis of hegemonic control and move towards emancipatory knowledge.

As pre-service teachers are actively engaged in dialogue of what content and experiences are most valuable in contributing to their social studies education courses (i.e., syllabus, scope, sequence, critical reflections) it is essential for these emerging teachers to establish a rationale for why these content and experiences are integral to the development of humanizing social studies education. In order for pre-service teachers to develop a reasoned rationale about the purpose and goals of the social studies, it is imperative that they understand a broader context of how others have defined what and how social studies is to be taught and even institutionalized these ideas so they appear commonsense and apolitical (Apple, 2000).

For instance, in our courses we utilize primary source documents from the highly politicized neoliberal revision of social studies curriculum standards by Texas State Board of Education. In presenting students with these authentic documents that inform what will actually happen in their classrooms and revealing how these documents were politically, socially, and economically derived, we help our pre-service teachers recognize that the curricula they teach is not neutral but is deeply shaped by political, social, and economic agendas. By using a problem-posing approach to unpack the ideological forces at work in public education we help pre-service teachers move from being objects acted upon to subjects who have the opportunity to engage in dialogue and decision-making about their own practice.

Rationale building is an essential element in developing pre-service teacher's political clarity and their ability to critique the knowledge and structures that define the contexts of teaching, learning, and schooling. An educational rationale is a statement "that directs the very real deliberation teachers engage in as they sort out questions of what is worth knowing and how best to teach it" and is more than a statement about education or teaching but reflects important ethical and moral considerations of what it means to teach (Dinkelman, 2009; Hawley, 2012). Adler and Confer (1998) found that beginning teachers' curriculum implementation was influenced when their methods coursework explicitly focused on helping them articulate a rationale for the social studies.

In helping pre-service teachers develop an informed rationale we free them:

From the blind adoption of so-called effective (and sometimes "teacher-proof") strategies, teachers can begin the reflective process, which allows them to recreate and reinvent teaching methods and materials by always taking into consideration the socio-cultural realities that can either limit or expand the possibilities to humanize education (Bartolome, 1994, p. 177)

Research suggests that teachers' understandings about the purpose and value of social studies education also serve as a root of teacher knowledge and often play out in the curricular and pedagogical choices they make in their classrooms (Adler, 2008; Grant, 2003; Levstik & Barton, 2001; Segall, 2002; Shulman, 1986).

These studies reveal the importance of rationale-building and the need for teacher education programs to provide the space necessary for pre-service teachers to develop a sense of purpose about what and how they will teach in a way that is humanizing and challenges an oppressive neo-liberal agenda. Levstik and Barton's (2001) research highlights the important place a teacher's stance plays in their curriculum and pedagogical enactment. They argue that it is not so much "what" a teacher does but rather the "why" that informs a teachers ability to engage in humanizing education. "When those purposes revolve around the goals of humanistic education—developing students' judgment, expanding their view of humanity, and committing them to discourse about the common good—then they deserve a place in the curriculum" (2001, p. 143). Therefore, we suggest that a humanizing social studies teacher education program should create a space for pre-service teachers to critique official knowledge and develop their own rationale about what knowledge is most valuable and to what ends.

As a way of helping students develop a rationale for teaching social studies, we ask students to develop a pedagogic creed. Students read portions of John Dewey's (1897) *Pedagogic Creed* to see an example of how to structure their creed and articulate their views. Modeled after William Guadelli's (2010) "Developing a Pedagogic Creed through Critical Social Reflection" activity, we ask students to critically examine their beliefs as well as "the social conditions of schooling and how that context shapes teachers' thinking about their work." (p. 16). To do so, students write a pedagogic creed with 3–5 statements that articulate what they believe about social studies curriculum, social studies pedagogy, and the social contexts of schools. Each statement is then followed by a paragraph that illustrates their thinking and experiences

about the statement. Students submit a first draft of their statement early in the semester. Students then share their pedagogic creeds in small groups. Throughout the semester, we consistently refer back to these creeds and examine how these ideas evolve as a result of their course and field work. At the end of the semester, students submit a final draft of pedagogic creed. In this final draft students have the opportunity to revisit the pedagogic creed and examine how their ideas have changed throughout the semester. In the final draft, students are asked to develop a way to distinguish what they wrote in their first draft and what is different in their final draft (i.e. marked-out text, highlighted text, bold). Additionally, students write a 1–2 page meta-reflection that explores how their thinking has changed and what experiences led to these changes. The pedagogic creed activity would be even more powerful if it could be conducted over multiple semesters or social studies methods courses, allowing students to critically examine their beliefs about the purposes and values of social studies and how those change over time as a result of content and context. In future years, we hope to follow Gaudelli's (2010) suggestion of mailing students pedagogic creeds to them 3–4 years after the class concludes, as a means of helping teachers think about how their thinking has progressed and, perhaps, think about the ways their teaching practice has fallen short of their proposed vision.

Frame Critical Questions and Introduce Subjugated Knowledge

Following this critique of traditional hegemonic knowledge, humanizing pedagogy then highlights *subjugated knowledge*, or the stories and histories that have been suppressed and disqualified by certain social and academic gatekeepers. Educators seek to generate emancipatory knowledge by creating a “new cultural story, indeed a new culture, by resuscitating the histories, stories and cultural narratives of the oppressed so that they can be used to reshape official knowledge” by challenging the invisible cultural assumptions embedded within schools (Kincheloe & Steinberg, 1997, p. 40). This focus on *subjugated knowledge* helps us rethink the curriculum and our purpose as educators, contributes to the analysis of how knowledge is produced and legitimized, constructs more inclusive and just socio-political and educational spheres, and produces new levels of insight by highlighting native knowledge.

The tenets of humanizing pedagogy challenge the power structures and institutionalized practices which inhibit the realization of democratic ideals and values by exposing the selection, organization, and control of knowledge that occurs in public schools serving as a powerful tool to maintain economic and cultural hegemony (McCarthy, 1993). Emancipatory knowledge embraces multiple perspectives, values student opinion, questions the validity and neutrality of official knowledge, and seeks to create social change that disrupts oppressive power structures.

Social studies teacher educators must expose pre-service teachers to how the official curriculum promotes a neoliberal agenda that marginalizes perspectives and viewpoint and help them develop skills to disrupt this curriculum. Too often social

studies teacher education programs focus on young teachers becoming “efficient” and “effective” teachers by immersing them exclusively in a technocratic methods and skills framework that essentially legitimizes the neoliberal schooling and knowledge agenda. In contrast, if we are to create a systemic change in what our schools teach and how they impact the larger social fabric of our communities, we must prepare our teachers to understand political clarity and emancipatory education/knowledge are the fundamental first steps in making curricular and methodological choices that exemplify a humanizing education system (Bartolome, 1994).

In highlighting subjugated knowledge as a means to promote emancipatory knowledge, it is imperative that we help pre-service teachers acquire knowledge of alternative perspectives. This means our social studies methods courses should purposefully seek to trouble official knowledge through the introduction of narratives that are traditionally omitted, silenced or misrepresented in neoliberal curriculum mandates. Our own teaching should be ripe with examples that highlight the stories and perspectives of marginalized groups. In addition, we should provide our pre-service teachers with skills and dispositions they will need to do the same in their own classrooms. For instance, we utilize James Loewen’s *Teaching What Really Happened: How to Avoid The Tyranny of Textbooks and Get Students Excited About Doing History* (2010) to help pre-service teachers think critically about how textbooks and curricular materials distort the retelling of the past. Students choose a chapter out of Loewen’s book and use it as a heuristic to analyze current textbooks and other pre-packaged curricular materials. In addition to this analysis, students also design a curriculum modification plan in which they create a series of lesson plans they can use in their classroom to address the issues raised in Loewen’s book. In yet another project, students design their own website to highlight various people, events, and institutions that have been excluded, misrepresented, and/or overgeneralized in the formal social studies curriculum. The purpose of the project is for pre-service teachers to examine the contested terrain of history and historical thinking as a way to attend to *other* narratives via the use of digital primary sources and correlating document based questions. *The Student as Historian* has served to increase the political clarity and critical consciousness of both pre-service and in-service teachers (Blevins & Salinas, 2012; Salinas & Blevins, 2013, 2014; Salinas, Blevins, & Sullivan, 2012).

We recognize that we cannot and should not introduce our pre-service teachers to all critical content knowledge that exists, but rather we should help them develop the political clarity that allows them to ask the right questions about the curriculum and textbooks they are required to teach, such as whose voice is highlighted, whose is silenced, how does this empower and/or disempower my students experiences. “While it is imperative that critical pedagogues recognize the problematic nature of the official curriculum, it is their knowledge of *other* perspectives that allows them to trouble the curriculum in meaningful ways. This means that critical pre-service teachers must not only engage in ‘knowing but not believing’ the official curriculum, but that they must also believe in and know the alternative accounts that are often silenced” (Salinas & Blevins, 2013, p. 19). One of the greatest ways we can help pre-service teachers develop the skills and dispositions necessary to infuse subjugated

knowledge is by modeling our own metacognitive strategies as we confront the critical questions that frame our curricular and pedagogical decision making.

Conclusion

It is essential that we provide pre-service teachers with the opportunity to practice the process of humanizing curriculum and pedagogy. Too often we fail to give our pre-service teachers the space required to wrestle with this tension of the official curriculum and how they might introduce alternative perspectives and voices. While we lament the perils of an education system that teacher proofs the process of professional decision making with scripted curriculum and mandated standardized assessments, we fail to provide pre-service teachers with the space, information, skills, and philosophical frameworks that inform and energize their wherewithal to do something about it. As Bartolome (1994) notes, "I am convinced that creating pedagogical spaces that enable students to move from object to subject position produces more far reaching, positive effects than the implementation of a particular teaching methodology, regardless of how technically advanced and promising it may be" (p. 177).

Although technical knowledge in the form of teaching methods certainly has its place, we must first provide pre-service social studies teachers with opportunities to develop professional agency through practical knowledge that emerges from engagement in professional and political activism. It's not about teaching methods alone it's about helping pre-service teachers develop political clarity so they can understand and critique the neoliberal factors that restrain humanizing pedagogy. In order to create political clarity and help teachers develop a sense of agency social studies teacher education should: (1) foster a dialogic relationship that promotes teacher as student and student as teacher; (2) focus on student experience and critical reflection; (3) facilitate a critique of official knowledge as a means of developing a rationale for their own practice; and, (4) frame critical questions that challenge the official curriculum and introduce subjugated knowledge. In doing so, we create opportunities for pre-service teachers to develop political clarity and a commitment to humanizing pedagogy. Bartolome asserts:

The critical issue is the degree to which we hold the moral conviction that we must humanize the education experience of students from subordinated populations by eliminating the hostility that often confronts these student. This process would require that we cease to be overly depended on methods as technical instruments and adopt a pedagogy that seeks to forge a cultural democracy where all students are treated with respect and dignity. (1994, p. 190)

It is not until we have provided pre-service social studies teachers the opportunity to establish a foundation of humanizing education that we introduce specific teaching methods (technical knowledge) which then serve as the conduits for humanizing social studies instruction. It is then that the pre-service teacher is more likely to ask "to what ends" have I chosen this method and in what ways does this method provide

opportunities to expose my students to alternative voices. When we do introduce our pre-service teacher to methods and strategies we should do so in a way that encourages them to think about how these methods might promote a more inclusive and just classroom. Pre-service and in-service teachers who make purposeful methodological decisions grounded in a humanizing social studies education framework are better able to create contradictions that allow subordinated students to move from their usual passive positions to one of active and critical engagement.

If social studies teachers are to develop the conviction that American public schools are nurturing and vibrant enclaves meant to inform and transform the whole person, then social studies teacher education programs must embrace the opportunity to enact humanizing pedagogy. Ultimately we are not seeking to provide pre-service teachers with a toolbox of methods, but we are seeking to develop pre-service teachers' political clarity and moral conviction to humanize the educational experience of all students. Ultimately in prioritizing emancipatory knowledge we hope that our pre-service teachers develop a deeper understanding of how the imposition of neoliberal agendas impact their lives and the lives of their students and are empowered to disrupt and make change.

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Chapter 3

Teaching *Social Studies* to *These* Students in *This* Place: Exploring Place in Social Studies Teacher Education

Whitney G. Blankenship, Michelle Reidel, and Caroline C. Sullivan

Introduction

As social studies teacher educators we engage the pre-service teachers we work with in critical dialogue about *who* their students are, both individually and demographically; *what* they teach, via professional and state curriculum standards; and *how* they can design social studies curricula to engage and empower K-12 students. However, little attention is accorded to *where* they teach. The ways in which *place* informs the who, what and how of teaching social studies has not consciously or explicitly been a part of our approach to preparing future social studies educators and is lacking in the design of our methods courses.

The absence of place in the conceptualization and enactment of our social studies methods courses is troubling. Place refers not merely to the physical but also the social and cultural attributes of particular settings. It can act as a “lens” through which we come to know ourselves and the world around us (McInerney, Smyth, & Down, 2011). Where we are from not only informs our identity but also how we make sense of the past, experience the present and plan for the future. To ignore this dynamic is to remain unaware of the ways in which students’ and teachers’ place-based identities inform their experience of social studies curriculum and pedagogy. It separates students and teachers from their place; they become disconnected from the communities where they live and learn and teach.

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According to the National Council for the Social Studies (2008), the purpose of the social studies is to provide *contextual curricula* to challenge students to think critically and apply their learning to authentic situations. Achieving this goal requires careful consideration of the place-based identities and experiences of students and their communities, extending them to teaching and learning so that we are maximizing contextualized local resources. The development of place-consciousness in teaching and learning provide the opportunities to challenge negative connotations associated with particular places and those who live and learn there, to counteract detrimental standardized curriculum and accountability measures, and most importantly, to enrich the social studies curriculum. In this chapter we explore why place matters for social studies education and develop a research-based rationale to suggest how social studies teacher educators can address both the development of pre-service teachers' place consciousness and infuse it to enrich social studies teaching and learning.

Why Place Matters

In the recounting of bell hooks' (2009) travels between Kentucky and New York, she wrestles with the ways in which the cultural, social, political and economic power dynamics of each place inform her sense of self and her view of the world. Throughout the journey, it becomes clear to hooks that she cannot divorce *who* she is from *where* she is; our perspective is inextricably linked to our place in the world.

The relationship between place, self and subjectivity is complex but present nevertheless. This relationship is evident not only in identity but also in the attachments and perceptions we form and hold about particular places. Below we explore each of these dynamics in greater detail as a way to highlight why place consciousness is important for all educators and in particular for social studies educators.

Place as Related to Individual Identity

The notion of place is integral to individual identity; who we are, our beliefs, and the way we live is intricately tied to the places where we dwell. However, place has been overlooked in the literature on identity development which has focused solely on our identification with in-group(s) and out-groups (Spencer, 2005). Spencer argues that environmental psychology has much to contribute to our understanding of identity formation and its relationship to the places where we live and work. He specifically references the work of Marcus (1992) who analyzed the ways in which adults' most powerful memories are intimately linked to place. These associations become a part of how we define ourselves as individuals. For social studies educators, awareness of the ways in which place is part of both individuals' and groups' identities inform their work as curriculum-gatekeepers (Thornton, 2005). The

inclusion of rural and urban voices or Northern and Southern perspectives in social studies curricula is equally important as the inclusion of different genders and ethnic or racial groups.

Place Attachment

Place attachment consists of associations we make between ourselves and particular places and is tied to our past experiences and familiarity with the place in question (Bailey, Kearns, & Livingston, 2011; Bell, 2006; Schuster, Sullivan, Kuehn, & Morais, 2011; Spencer, 2005). A subset of place attachment, place identity, solidifies our attachment (or lack thereof) to a particular place (Schuster et al., 2011, p. 89). Place identity refers to the emotional attachments one has to a particular place. Marcouyeux and Fleury-Bahi (2011) define place identity as the belief that an individual's personal identity is built around the physical environment similar to the way social identity is built around social categories. This includes both conscious and unconscious ideals, as well as values and goals that are specific to a particular environment. Individuals learn the values and standards of the community through interaction with both the group and the environment and eventually identify themselves with a particular location(s). Places are also subject to *social marking* wherein individuals form attachments with places that impact their self-esteem. The idea of social marking is demonstrated by Bailey et al.'s (2011) study that looked specifically at place attachment within impoverished communities in the United Kingdom. They argue that although place attachment may afford individuals with meaningful and significant lives, it may also serve as a limiting factor if the attachment is so strong that it prevents inhabitants from seeking new experiences or better economic situations. A sense of familiarity and established social connections play a role in place attachment, regardless of the locale (Bailey et al., 2011; Schuster et al., 2011).

As social studies educators one of our primary goals is to help students understand the complex and sometimes contradictory results of historical and current events. Understanding the ways in which place attachment informs the choices people make provides social studies educators with another lens to help their students understand others' actions, decisions, and sense of agency.

Place Perception

Place as a construct is problematic because it is a physically shared space that each of us perceives differently (van Eijck & Roth, 2010). Place is more than just the natural world as "each place has a history, often a contested history, of the people who inhabited it in past times" (Edelglass, 2009, p. 72). It includes not only the physical attributes of the environment but also the activities that take place there and

the perceptions of the people who do and do not inhabit it (Gumpert & Drucker, 2012; van Eijck & Roth, 2010). Place is a constructed reality and Edelglass (2009) reminds us that we are always “some place” and those places are embedded in history, class, language, and culture as well as our own “psychobiographies” which in turn influence the production of knowledge. “Thought, knowledge, and belief are not products of mind alone but expressions of its integration and participation with the physical and social world that lies around it” (Preston, 2003, p. 2). Marcouyeux and Fleury-Bahi’s (2011) social marking is a reflection of this knowledge construction process.

Students’ sense of belonging to a place is channeled through their interactions with the environment which impacts their self-esteem. Connecting social studies content to the lived experiences, place perceptions, and social marking experiences of our students creates meaningful links between place and content to further solidify students’ understanding of social studies concepts (Downey & Levstik, 1991). Once linked, students may be more likely to connect those concepts to their place attachments, encouraging them toward civic engagement in their communities as stakeholders and change agents.

Relationships between place, self, and subjectivity are difficult to untangle. These relationships are intimately tied to how power is distributed and experienced by different individuals and groups. The implications of these dynamics are twofold. First, social studies educators need to recognize the ways in which students’ place-based identities will inform how they experience social studies curriculum and pedagogy. For example, when teaching in communities with large immigrant populations, connecting social studies content to their place of origin or community traditions may foster connections to the new place. Second, social studies educators need to carefully consider how their personal perceptions and attachments to particular places inform their curricular decision-making. Educators who find themselves in places that are far removed from their own experiences (for example, their experience of school has always been within urban environments, but they find themselves teaching in suburban or rural schools) may have difficulty adapting the curriculum to the needs of their students until they have begun to form place attachments to their new setting. The development of place-consciousness is the first step in this process and one that we believe should be explicitly addressed in social studies teacher education. Building social studies teacher education around the development of place consciousness we can begin to focus pre-service teachers’ attention on the importance of place to their teaching.

Fostering Place Consciousness in Pre-service Teachers

Place has several defining characteristics including the physical attributes of the environment, the various activities that take place within this environment and the perceptions of the people who do and do not live there. An individual’s perception of place is constructed by their own experiences and influenced by the judgments of

others such as neighbors and media representations. We are often unaware of the ways in which media representations and others' perceptions become part of our conceptualizations and perceptions of particular places. This "abstracting process" makes it difficult to separate descriptions, reactions and judgments about a place" with the place itself (Gumpert & Drucker, 2012, p. 108).

Pre-service teachers are often asked to use demographic and testing data to describe the contextual factors prevalent in the schools where they will be teaching. While this type of data can be instructive it often results in a 'bird's eye view' of a school and community; this view rarely reflects the complex and dynamic realities of teaching and learning in this place. Add to this simplified portrait the abstracting process delineated by Gumpert and Drucker (2012) and pre-service teachers' perceptions of the schools and communities where they teach are more likely to be inaccurate. This is why it is essential to provide pre-service teachers with experiences that challenge abstracted views of schools and communities and foster the development of place consciousness.

Several teacher educators have examined ways to expand the perceptions of pre-service teachers through assignments that consider the role of place in their own identity development and more personal interaction with the communities in which they will be teaching. Ebersole and Worster (2007) explicitly examine the connection between place and identity with their pre-service teachers through the development of a place-based curriculum focusing on social studies, language arts, mathematics, science and nature journals. Within the social studies portion of the course the researchers required student teachers to create identity posters that illustrated the pre-service teachers' perceptions of themselves as social studies teachers; administered a sense of place survey and drawing; and emphasized the use of place-based books within the curriculum. These activities allowed the instructors to get a sense of pre-service teachers' values, beliefs and attitudes, as well as an idea of how these pre-service teachers understood their identity as social studies educators. Additionally, the science, language arts and mathematics methods curriculums emphasized using local contexts for instruction including the use of local literature, field trips, current events and the nature journals to aid pre-service teachers in their understanding of the particular place (in this case Hawaii) where they would be teaching. Their efforts lead to approximately half of the candidates effectively integrating local ecology and culture into their lessons. The instructors argue that the activities undertaken within the methods course provided a bridge between the traditional education and a specific place through the "local contextualization of standards-based planning" (p. 24).

Seeking to push students to move beyond dry demographic data, Todd (2007) developed a "windshield survey" for students. The purpose of the survey was to force students to pay attention to the environments surrounding their placement schools. To aid students' observations, guiding questions were provided as part of the assignment and included prompts such as,

Where are the boundaries of this school community? What kinds of services for families are in the neighborhood? Is the neighborhood safe for children to play and walk to school? What jobs are available in the neighborhood? Does the school serve as a community center

for the neighborhood? Is there any evidence that suggests whether people are moving in and out or staying here for a longer time? (p. 393)

Students were asked to take photos and create sketch maps of school neighborhoods and to reflect upon what their observations revealed. He found that the assignment lead to greater discussion of issues relevant to social studies teachers in the classrooms as well as an increased sense of place consciousness.

To foster a more critical engagement with place, Barton and Berchini (2013) utilize an insider/outsider framework to prepare pre-service teachers to work in urban schools. They suggest that many pre-service teachers begin their work in urban schools as outsiders and recommend specific structures to assist them in becoming insiders. As an insider, the authors claim that pre-service teachers will, “foster critical and comprehensive understandings of and relationships with place” (p. 23). Three pathways recommended by Barton and Berchini include: (1) *active positioning*, (2) *critical navigation*, and (3) *symbolic engagement with place*. Active positioning entails seeking out opportunities to participate in and become involved with one’s place to become knowledgeable about the place. Critical navigation includes knowing the place while at the same time learning to challenge existing oppressive structures in order to construct a local narrative of social justice. The third pathway, symbolic engagement with place, requires teachers to both understand students’ affection for place and the ways these relationships with place symbolize broader social values.

In each of these exemplars instructors explicitly focused pre-service teachers’ attention to their connections to particular places and/or the ways in which those connections influenced their understandings of themselves and the place in question. Identity manifests itself in multiple forms that are context dependent (Gee, 2001) and it would seem that a key to developing place consciousness in pre-service teachers is to begin by helping them to make connections between their own identities in different places and spaces. Through these practices pre-service teachers gain the ability to recognize the various identities that they carry with them into the classrooms and the ways in which the context, in this case, place, moderates their self-perceptions. Once pre-service teachers make these connections it is possible to begin the process of extrapolating the role of place to the identities of the students within their own classrooms and then to apply it as a pedagogical principle.

In the process of developing place-based identities and becoming an expert on a particular place, it is important to ensure that teacher educators, pre-service teachers, and students are not engaging in zooification (Mowforth & Munt, 2009) – or, looking at others’ lives as if they were cultural or museum artifacts. Overgeneralizations and reinforcement of existing stereotypes and myths is a hazard of these types of activities. Facilitating lessons should be undertaken with authenticity and respect and preferably with the involvement of the communities being served.

Locating Place Within Social Studies Teacher Preparation

Resor (2010) calls for the inclusion of place-based studies within the social studies. She argues that not only are students more engaged in place-based curricula but that students' identities are shaped by the history, culture and social construction of particular places and that these identities cannot be ignored. Students' – and teachers' – place-based identities *inform* their experience of social studies curriculum and as a result impact if, how, and what, students will learn.

The social construction of place is significant as we prepare future social studies educators. Living, teaching and learning in unique settings entails equally unique opportunities and demands a thorough understanding of the role of place. In order to be dedicated to social studies teaching that honors students' identities, engages students in creative and critical thinking, and addresses students' needs, pre-service teachers must have opportunities to recognize the importance of place.

Social studies teacher educators can create these opportunities in a myriad of ways; however to ensure a critical *and* celebratory engagement with place we have chosen to employ Barton's and Berchini's framework. The three pathways delineated by Barton & Berchini – (1) *active positioning*, (2) *critical navigation*, and (3) *symbolic engagement with place* – can help pre-service teachers develop a deeper understanding of the relationships between place, self and subjectivity. In the next section we demonstrate how to employ this framework as a way to foster a sense of place consciousness among pre-service social studies teachers and prepare them to integrate place into their curriculum. Our examples are based on our lived experiences as teacher educators working in an urban context (Atlanta, GA) and a rural context (Statesboro, GA).

The focus on urban and rural places is purposeful. Both urban and rural regions bear the burden of the negative connotations associated with their locale. Urban settings are frequently viewed as violent, chaotic, and harboring deviant culture. Rural settings are often considered backwards, culturally scant, and lacking in sophistication. Situated as contrary, urban and rural places appear on opposite ends of a spectrum of population density, cultural richness, and opportunity. However, while each place has unique characteristics, both urban and rural educators find themselves working with similar educational and social challenges such as poverty, limited health care, and under-employment (Edmonson & Butler, 2010; Kincheloe & Steinberg, 2004; Noguera, 2003). As curriculum and pedagogy rapidly become technical, rational, and decontextualized, school is increasingly devoid of local connections; it has become the "key institution of disembedding" (Corbett, 2009, p. 1). In contrast to Gruenwald's (2003) assertion of the importance of place, in our global, interconnected, and hyper-mobile world, social relations and practices are increasingly disembedded (Corbett) from the immediacies of context (Giddens, 1991). Given that teaching strategies, curriculum, and mandated educational policies are generally designed for upper middle class white students often enrolled in suburban schools (Darling-Hammond, 2000) considering place-based education in urban and

rural settings provides a unique opportunity to examine a source of success and equity for students and teachers living and going to school in non-suburban areas.

Urban Places

Urban education is frequently defined as providing for an equitable quality education in a densely populated area, typically found in a city, but also found in exurbs of major cities (Gallagher, Goodyear, Brewer, & Rueda, 2012). Milner (2012) acknowledges a lack of consistency in definitions of urban education in the literature and the broad nature of the term. He suggests categories by density as urban intensive (New York, Atlanta), emergent (Austin, TX, Charlotte, NC), and characteristic (locations that experience challenges similar to urban schools such as high numbers of English language learners (Milner). Kincheloe and Hayes (2006) provide a succinct description of urban settings: "...urban education involves identifying and resolving contradictions associated with size and diversity" (p. viii). Many urban education scholars, identify and define urban educational settings by characteristic (Crosby, 1999; Steinberg, 2010) or by prototype analysis (Goodyear, 2012). Others use geography or other demographic data to define the urban setting. Historically, urban schools and systems have been held in high regard, pioneering educational innovations such as specialized classes and summer school. However, the urban school is no longer esteemed. Many privileged city-dwellers either send their students to private schools or move to the outer areas of the city to take advantage of the suburban school system (Rury, 2012).

Urban settings also face a more pervasive challenge in that the term *urban* is often code for where marginalized populations (i.e. poor, Black, Latino/a, English language learners) of students live and go to school (Watson, 2011; Weiner, 1993). Kincheloe (2010) argues that students in urban schools are sometimes perceived as morally deficient and unmotivated; they are demonized in the media writ large. When elements of diversity such as race, ethnicity, and class are viewed as a detriment, it only further complicates the picture of urban education.

Social studies scholars frequently conduct research in urban settings but lack intentionality as the urban setting is not the focus of the study (Castro, Field, Bauml, & Morowski, 2012). One common and important emphasis is the use of local (urban) resources in social studies, and specifically in the pursuit of historical thinking (Kakas, 2010; Li, 2005; Marino, 2012, 2013; Marino & Crocco, 2012; Morrell & Rogers, 2006). Social studies educators may choose to examine a mid-century apartment, investigate a small historical sign affixed to a building, or map the historical or economic development of a city block. The structures of place-based education demand that we see beyond the concrete maze to understand the nuances of the community of people who live, work, and attend school in the urban landscape. This is a significant expansion of social studies objectives, particularly historical

thinking. The intense study of place allows students and teachers to become insiders in their places thus creating a richer social studies experience.

Using the pathways provided by Barton and Berchini (2013), pre-service teachers can establish relationships with the community and its members and become insiders. An excellent urban example is the Metropolitan Atlanta Rapid Transit Authority (MARTA) in Atlanta, Georgia. By learning the context of the situation in detail (active positioning), engaging in a considered critique of the context (critical navigation), and appreciating the value of the place and how it reflects society overall (symbolic engagement with place) pre-service teachers can enact place-based learning and teaching. The MARTA includes both a subway and bus system and is the primary or only transportation system for many city residents. The choice and direction of the rail lines transports passengers to decidedly different parts of the city (the local term is ITP – Inside the Perimeter or OTP – Outside the Perimeter, referring to location within or outside of the city's Interstate Loop 285), illustrating the extensive range of opportunity, or lack thereof, in central Atlanta. Beginning with active positioning, pre-service teachers might ride the train on an entire line, which traverses the core of the city in a north/south or east/west direction. The routes take riders through sections of different socioeconomic areas and provides transport for a large sector of the population ranging from wealthy to poor city dwellers. MARTA also provides a variety of views of the city. While the train lines reach the central arts district and the airport, many passengers never disembark on those stops. Other passengers are privileged to ride MARTA selectively, only going to the airport or arts and entertainment districts. Pre-service teachers should consider and critique this means of transportation in terms of their own experiences and identity and that of their students as well as in light of place attachment and perceptions that the use of MARTA affords. Questions they might ask include: For what purposes are people riding MARTA – work related or social? What kind of access do passengers have to the MARTA stations? What are riders doing on the trains during the ride? What does the scenery look like outside the windows? These reflections might be carried out in a variety of formats such as digital images or video, blog entries, photographic montage, or traditionally written narratives.

Once a pre-service teacher situates her or himself in a place and knows it, they can continue with the second pathway of critical navigation (Barton & Berchini, 2013) to understand the ways that narratives of power interact in the place. MARTA services have an unspoken racial history as the trains and buses intentionally do not reach some of the far northern parts of the city; these areas are home to those in higher socioeconomic rankings and are less racially and ethnically diverse. At least two of the northern counties run their own separate transit systems and county citizens have repeatedly rejected attempts at a comprehensive transit system regardless of the loss of their own transport flexibility and business development opportunities. The lack of public transport closes major arteries to central arts, entertainment, and historical districts as well as to economic opportunities and the international airport to citizens with and without means alike. The argument of protecting the environment and saving money has also repeatedly failed to promote development of public transportation (Torres, Salzer, & Bluestein, 2014; Yglesias, 2014). The critical

analysis of transportation means and opportunity may also be framed using the place-based structure of identity, attachment and perception individually for pre-service teachers, and in turn, for their own students.

The third and final pathway, symbolic engagement with place, demands an in-depth consideration of the affective attributes of place and how those attributes translate into broader social and cultural values. The use of ITP and OTP is a distinct social divide in Atlanta marked with humor, but more often consist of skewed social perceptions from all. MARTA provides access to only one area OTP and primarily serves locations and people within the city center. Depending upon an individual's circumstance, MARTA can be a limiting necessity or a luxury. MARTA takes inhabitants to important every day places where we spend the majority of our time: home, work, and school. It also takes passengers to special places, the Martin Luther King, Jr. National Historical Site, Woodruff Arts Center, elite shopping malls, professional sports, and concert venues. Despite the convenience, cost, and environmental value of the public transportation system, owning a private vehicle and obtaining a driver's license remains an important status symbol for many living in the Atlanta area. In this case, it provides opportunity for consideration of important civic ideas in terms of local taxes, individual and community priorities, and environmental considerations. Local students might consider focusing on public transportation as owning a car and a suburban home are no longer part of the American Dream for many young people today. However, Atlanta specifically has some barriers to overcome with a limited transportation system and related funding and racial issues. Knowing and understanding this context makes for a relevant and engaging civics lesson. Examining symbolic engagement with their students in mind provides pre-service teachers opportunity for a better understanding of their students' lives – their hopes and priorities and can give educators insight to provide the skills and content they need for success.

Rural Places

Scholars, politicians and policymakers frequently argue over the specific physical characteristics and demographics that designate a place as 'rural,' however the social/cultural construction of what it *means* to be rural is far more important. Perceptions and assumptions about rural places and people are overwhelmingly negative (Theobold & Wood, 2010, p. 17). Rural people and places are understood to be economically, culturally and socially *behind* urban communities and their residents. This is particularly salient in the United States where progress has historically been associated with urban growth and development and school reform aimed at urban settings. The equation of urbanity with all things modern and progressive has become further entrenched over the last few decades (Howley & Howley, 2010; Theobold & Wood, 2010) as twenty-first century enactments of globalization and cognitive capitalism exacerbate the notion that rural places are deficient in multiple ways (Corbett, 2013; Theobold & Wood, 2010).

People who live in rural communities cannot escape the dominant culture's overwhelmingly negative delineation of what it means to be rural. Alternatively described as backward, uncouth and unsophisticated, those who live in rural communities have long been positioned as the "deficient other" (Bell, 2006; Billings, 1999; Donehower, 2007; Eppley, 2011; Frank, 2003). Though rural America is not homogenous, it is routinely portrayed as lacking in diversity and acceptance (Corbett, 2013; Ulrich, 2011) and as a result "rural citizens are positioned as narrow, prejudiced, lacking in flexibility and inhabiting dysfunctional places" (Corbett, 2013, p. 2). Research on rural education suggests that these disparaging depictions of rural places and people have a profound impact on rural schools, teachers and students (Corbett, 2013; Howley & Howley, 2010; Kelly, 2009; Wake, 2012).

Traditionally, rural schools have been viewed as important institutions for maintaining local traditions and culture, forging personal and intergenerational identities and operating as a hub for social activity (Kelly, 2009; Nita, Holley, & Wrobel, 2010; Schafft, Alter, & Bridger, 2006; Wake, 2012). This idyllic construction of rural schools as the heart of a community is dangerous if unchallenged as it can reify unequal power dynamics to the detriment of particular students, teachers and community members (Kelly, 2009). More recently educational researchers have analyzed the ways in which rural schools pose a direct challenge to the sustainability of small towns and communities (Corbett, 2013; Howley & Howley, 2010; Kelly, 2009; Wake, 2012). Much of this research is grounded in Giddens (1991) critique of modernity and more specifically the process of 'disembedding' or lifting out of social relations and practices from immediacies of context. Corbett (2009) argues that education operates as a "key institution of disembedding" and that this process is exacerbated in rural schools where students learn that leaving is a 'natural' and inevitable progression equated with success while staying is constructed as failure (Corbett, 2006, 2007; DeYoung, 1995; Theobald, 1997).

The negative "social marking" (Marcouyeux & Fleury-Bahi, 2011) of rural places and people is not only constructed and re-constructed through popular culture but also through the ways in which these places are defined and depicted in the literature, art, history and geography included in our school curriculum. Mainstream curricula typically embody urban values and national economic agendas, dismiss connection to place and reinforce negative stereotypes of rural places and people (Greenwood, 2009; Howley & Howley, 2010; Theobald & Wood, 2010; Wake, 2012). Pre-service teachers who tend to rely more heavily on mainstream curricula in their first years of teaching may be unaware of the ways in which rural places, people and perspectives are absent and/or distorted. Pre-service social studies teachers need opportunities to recognize, critique and disrupt the simple and superficial representations of rural people and places in the official curriculum and the media; not only to challenge their own perceptions but to diminish the ways in which rural schools can operate to alienate students from their surroundings.

Barton and Berchini's (2013) three-pronged framework can support the development of a community 'insider' perspective among pre-service social studies creating an opportunity to identify and challenge their preconceptions of rural places and people. Through the processes of active positioning, critical navigation and symbolic

engagement with place, pre-service social studies can also become more attuned to the needs of students in rural settings and the unique opportunities/challenges of teaching social studies in rural schools.

Lampooning the rural South has become a national pastime. Nowhere is this mockery more prevalent than in the recent wave of reality television shows such as *Here Comes Honey Boo Boo* (Golnick, LaFleur, & Grimm, 2012), *Duck Dynasty* (Peterson et al., 2012) and *Redneck Riviera* (Erdheim 2014). In these and other television shows, rural places and people are reduced to a bad punch line and yet these are the images, narratives and voices that define the rural South for far too many Americans. To disrupt this simplistic representation, pre-service social studies teachers can engage in active positioning by first critically analyzing the ways in which popular culture and the media portrays Southern rural places and people and then compare this depiction to the communities where they teach.

For example, at first glance, Statesboro, Georgia (population 10,500) and dozens of other small Southern towns may appear to epitomize each and every common stereotype of the rural South. To move beyond this initial perception, pre-service social studies teachers can engage in a guided photo-documentation project. In a guided photo-documentation project pre-service teachers would visit local cultural, social and environmental *assets* such as Meinhardt's Winery, the Averit Center for the Arts and other local galleries, Splash in the Boro Water Park, the Ogeechee River Keepers' Kayaking Center along with cotton fields, pine forests and fishing ponds in and around Statesboro. At each location teams take 'candid' photos and then work together to sort and arrange images in order to 'tell the story' of Statesboro. The creation and production of the photo-documentary pushes pre-service social studies teachers to look beneath simplistic generalities that construe communities like Statesboro as 'foreign' and 'deficit.' Spending time in the Statesboro community, outside of their drive to and from the school where they will teach, fosters a more nuanced perception of Statesboro creating opportunities for pre-service teachers to see themselves as part of this community and raising questions about relationships within this town.

Drawing on their critique of popular culture's depiction of the rural South, social studies pre-service teachers can turn their attention to power dynamics *within* rural communities through the process of critical navigation (Barton & Berchini, 2013). Noting accessibility barriers to Statesboro's cultural and recreational resources documented above, pre-service social studies teachers gain awareness of the ways in which race and poverty intersect in this small Southern town. Reviewing maps of Statesboro's population distribution by race and class can contribute to this analysis and highlight the complexity of integration and segregation in rural communities. Working class and poor African Americans primarily live on the east side of the 'Boro; a significant distance from most of the community's cultural and recreational resources. With no public transportation other than a small taxi service, the uneven distribution of art, music, sports and other activities means that many of these families have little if any access to these resources. Mapping accessibility to resources reveals the ways in which power is distributed and the disparate consequences of this distribution for various community members.

Along with challenging one-dimensional depictions of rural communities and recognizing how power is distributed within these communities, pre-service social studies teachers also need opportunities to appreciate residents' emotional attachments to their community and to particular places within their community. The task of analyzing residents' symbolic engagement with place (Barton & Berchini, 2013), might begin with pre-service social studies teachers reflecting on their own emotional attachments to particular places in their lives. After self-reflection of their own emotional attachments from home, local 'community staples' then become the focus of inquiry for pre-service teachers. In the case of Statesboro, Georgia pre-service teachers can conduct a historical inquiry into the origins and history of Mrs. Lee's Kitchen or Banks Dairy Farm. Understanding the significance of these local businesses for residents, positions pre-service teachers to honor and respect their students' affective relationship to their home town rather than to quickly judge or dismiss it.

Utilizing Barton and Berchini's framework as the basis for place-based social studies methods courses gives pre-service teachers concrete experiences with the communities where they teach. Through these interactions they not only come to understand the importance of place to their teaching, but they also begin to create their own attachments to the community presenting them opportunities to connect the social studies to their students' lives in a meaningful way.

Discussion and Conclusion

The notion that place matters appears to be "common sense." Simply asking another person, "Where are you from?" often instigates rich conversation, stories, and emotions; people wear clothing and jewelry and treasure special artifacts as markers of place – all are symbols of its importance to us as human beings. However, place has often been overlooked in schools as standardized curricula gains prominence leading to students disconnected from an essential source of identity. In many ways, place has also been absent from teacher education making it difficult for educators to honor, consider and address the role of place consciousness in teaching and learning. This gap is particularly troubling in the social studies in which developing an informed and active citizenry is the ultimate goal; a goal that is almost impossible to achieve when one is disconnected from and ill-informed about their community.

In this chapter we provide a framework and rationale to engage with place as social studies teacher educators. Our focus on place is in part a response to the ways in which the pre-service teachers we work with devote little attention to *where* their students are from when planning for instruction. Many pre-service teachers struggle to translate demographic data into strategies that target the academic, cultural and emotional needs of their students. Extending the role of context and local resources to include a more in-depth consideration of place may be an opportunity to become an insider (Barton & Berchini, 2013) to a particular place and provide for student needs in developing a significant connection to place.

The social studies community has an opportunity to examine the role of place and ways in which it may be integrated into the curriculum with research-based strategies. The use of place in the curriculum has the potential to improve student learning, provide support for students' identity development and assist in developing a critical analysis of the world in which students live, work, and go to school. Equally important is gaining an understanding of how place identity, attachment, and perception inform students' understanding of social studies' concepts and practices. Finally, the complex relationship between place, self and subjectivity is inherent to the history, geography, economic and civic content that we teach as social studies educators. The examples included in this chapter suggests ways to begin the process within social studies methods classes by helping pre-service teachers to recognize place consciousness to their own identities and using those connections as a bridge to understanding the role of place in the lives of their own students and then connecting that to the curriculum and daily practice.

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Part II

Rethinking Course Curriculum

In the previous section, the authors introduced us to three larger purposes that could invigorate our rethinking of social studies teacher education: social studies for an anti-racist society, social studies to counter neo-liberal affronts to democracy, and social studies that acknowledges that place matters and leverages this to help pre-service teachers think about their place to consider issues of equity and access currently and historically. In this section authors focus on ways to frame a specific course.

During teacher education, the social studies methods course typically serves as the place where pre-service teachers consider the uniquely social studies parts of teaching and learning. In the methods course(s), they begin to explicitly grapple with what social studies is and why they are teaching social studies. They also explore how students learn within social studies and how they, as new teachers, can support this learning. But what should we be focusing on in this course and how might we frame it? In this section, our authors provide three ways to envision our social studies methods courses.

We live in a world where race matters yet not all see how it does, including our pre-service teachers. How might we work for a more just society that more openly discusses race? King and Chandler gave us a place to begin and Marshall, Manfra, and Simmons continue the conversation. In their chapter, Marshall, Manfra and Simmons explore nuances of critical race theory and offer us insight into how this theoretical framework might influence how we construct a social studies methods course.

Brooks and Jares explore another way to focus a methods course. They share their experience of redesigning a K-8 social studies methods course to emphasize the teaching of big ideas. They lay out an argument for why we should design a methods course focused on teaching with big ideas and give us an example of the rethinking process. They end by sharing what they learned about their students' understandings of and struggles with big ideas.

Social studies continues to be marginalized in early grades in the U.S. Rather than see social studies lost to math and literacy, Shulsky and Hendrix reconceptual-

ized their separate elementary social studies and language arts methods courses into a larger integrated course. In their chapter they present an argument for reframing both social studies and language arts methods in elementary programs around preparing globally minded citizens. They introduce and explain the framework that guided their revisions and provide examples of how they enacted this vision in the new course.

We hope these three chapters can act as foundations for your own explorations of how to frame and reframe the individual methods courses students experience in teacher education.

Chapter 4

No More Playing in the Dark: Twenty-First Century Citizenship, Critical Race Theory, and the Future of the Social Studies Methods Course

Patricia L. Marshall, Meghan McGlenn Manfra, and Crystal G. Simmons

As a subject within the U. S. secondary school curriculum, social studies is fraught when it comes to race. Reasons for this state of affairs are complex and can be traced to the larger, multidimensional tensions surrounding intersections and cleavages among the various elements of diversity in the larger society. For its part, however, race seems to be the most vexing element of all. This is owing to its persistent ability to stir emotions and to provoke the most troublesome reactions among individuals. Virtually every aspect of life in the United States is touched by the specter of race. Indeed, many contemporary adolescent students of color, in their daily interactions within and beyond schools, encounter untenable situations that are firmly rooted in contemporary issues that have historical antecedents linked to race in the larger society.

Critical exploration of race matters, then, has enormous potential to bolster the relevance of social studies as a subject of study for these and other students. Yet, in many classrooms, race is evaded, circumvented, or simply omitted outright by teachers. In our experience as teacher educators, we have found a general awkwardness and *dis-ease* among teacher candidates when it comes to race. This suggests that pre-service teacher education is an appropriate context in which to explore possible alternatives if not solutions to race aversion in social studies teaching. The purpose of this chapter, therefore, is to describe how structuring the secondary methods course around critical race theory concepts can help to promote teacher candidates' understanding of and appreciation for why race should be a central topic in the teaching of contemporary social studies.

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We begin by examining what is social studies and detailing the historic *raison d'être* for the subject by examining its link to education for democratic citizenship. Traditional versus emerging interpretations of citizenship as a warrant for social studies are contrasted, and we examine how inherent tensions between the two may represent a core challenge for many contemporary teacher candidates. Next, we identify and define elemental tenets of critical race theory (CRT) and describe how each can serve as an organizing principle for teaching secondary social studies content. Finally, we illustrate activities that can be used to facilitate teacher candidates' understanding of elemental CRT concepts in a secondary social studies methods course.

Citizenship as a Critical Focus of the Social Studies

According to Stanley (2005), “[i]n the United States, schooling is generally understood as an integral component of a democratic society” (p. 282). Within schooling in general, our field has historically and fundamentally linked the social studies curriculum to citizenship education. This link has been used to defend the field from increasing marginalization and to serve as a guide for future work. For example, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) position statement, “Revitalizing Civic Learning in our Schools” (2013) argued:

The goal of schooling ... is not merely preparation for citizenship, but citizenship itself; to equip citizenry with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed for active and engaged civic life. The National Council for the Social Studies firmly agrees with this premise and believes that no other subject area is better suited to achieve this essential goal in schools than the social studies. (n.p.)

This position aligns with earlier statements made by NCSS about the purposes of social studies education. In *Expectations of Excellence: Curriculum Standards for Social Studies* (1994), the Council noted the purpose of social studies is “to help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens in a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world” (p. 3).

Among social studies researchers and teacher educators the project of social studies education has been to determine the scope and thrust of the knowledge, skills, and dispositions requisite to citizenship education. Many identify qualitative differences between traditional, assimilationist approaches to citizenship education and more global, multicultural approaches. For example, Parker (2008) contends, “[e]nlightened political engagement is not easily achieved, and it is never achieved for all time; one works at it continually (path), in concert with others (participation), and intentionally with others who are of different ideology, perspective, or culture (pluralism)” (p. 68).

Citizenship Education and Social Justice

Proponents of citizenship education for social justice emphasize the socio-political contexts of cultural pluralism and diversity in the United States. These educators acknowledge “how complex and difficult this process of citizenship formation becomes in a multi-cultural nation state” (Banks & Nguyen, 2008, p. 143). A complex process of this magnitude demands pedagogies and curriculum that will eventually lead to a more just society. The aim here is to support democratization by facilitating “the development of citizenship that embodies and fosters movement toward democratic social justice” (Bickmore, 2008, p. 155).

Citizenship education for social justice takes into account the complexities of citizenship formation by supporting increased involvement and inclusion for all. According to Banks and Nguyen (2008), “in the context of sweeping demographic changes and increasing racial, ethnic, cultural, language, and religious diversity, it is critical that we rethink questions related to citizenship and citizenship education in democratic multicultural nation states” (p. 137). Important to rethinking citizenship education is focusing on the delicate balance of striving for unity, while also honoring diversity. According to Steinberg (2000), democracy based on the concept of difference and solidarity is “more inclusive and sustainable than democracy based on consensus” (p. 125). Gutmann (2001) expands on this notion:

Democracy must be understood not merely (or primarily) as a process of majority rule, but rather as an ideal of a society whose adult members are, and continue to be, *equipped by their education* [italic added] and authorized by political structures to share in ruling. A democratic society must educate all educable children to be capable of participating in collectively shaping their society. (p. 222)

Rather than just emphasize individual rights, citizenship education for social justice focuses on the common good. Here individual rights and responsibilities are understood as responding to the whole group need of creating opportunities for all people to have access to full citizenship. This approach differs from more traditional, assimilationist approaches to citizenship education.

Citizenship education for social justice acknowledges the historical influence of race and racialization on citizenship in the United States. According to Banks and Nguyen (2008) “[r]acialization has worked through U.S. institutions and policies – including citizenship formation – in powerful ways and has significantly influenced who can become a citizen and has defined the rights and protection designated to each racial group” (p. 139). To explain the interrelationship between assimilation and racialization, they provide the example of the melting pot metaphor in the United States, which served as a longstanding (traditional) orientation to citizenship education. Banks and Nguyen argue that assimilation requires minority groups to conform to the ways of being of the dominant group, even while racialization denies them the full attainment of citizenship. Citizenship education for social justice acknowledges that White privilege has served to limit the full exercise of citizenship for people of color (McIntosh, 1990) and seeks to remedy it through more inclusive pedagogies.

The Doing in Citizenship Education

Inclusive and sustainable citizenship education emphasizes the *doing* of citizenship education. The development of civic identity is a dynamic process (Avery, 2007) and it must be connected to action. Banks and Nguyen (2008) emphasize action in citizenship education when they note that it is “to help students acquire the knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed to make reflective decisions and to take actions to make their nation-states more democratic and just (Banks, 1997, 2006)” (p. 143, refs in original). Similarly Parker (2008) distinguishes between knowing and doing, arguing “that democratic citizens need both to know democratic things and to do democratic things” (p. 65) while Gutmann (2001) emphasizes the notion of “democratic deliberation” (p. 229). The prerequisite skills of democratic deliberation include critical thinking (e.g. Adler, 1991; Goodlad, 1984; Newmann, 1991), coupled with the attitude and ability to confront differences of opinion. Barton and Levstik (2004) explain that students must develop knowledge, skills, and attitudes – “such as selecting information relevant to the solution of problems, identifying the underlying values involved in decisions and the likely consequences of a chosen action, and understanding the perspective of those whose view differ from their own” (p. 30). In other words, democracy is more likely to succeed in a context of acceptance of difference rather than from pressure to assimilate. It appears that the social studies curriculum is particularly well suited to teach students these skills when it includes a focus on controversial issues (Hess, 2002) in a democratic and supportive environment (for example through seminar and deliberation, see Parker, 2008). It is essential that citizenship education in the social studies highlight knowledge of multiple perspectives from the past and present, the ability to critique these perspectives and, ultimately, the desire to defend the right of difference.

Citizenship Education and Social Studies Teacher Education

Citizenship education for social justice demands a great deal of schools and teachers. Bickmore (2008) identifies the challenges for us as educators:

We merely shape learning experiences, through which we hope to help the knowledge, skill, motivational, and experiential ‘ingredients’ of socially just democracy to take root in the student participants. Teachers’ and students’/citizens’ agency is shaped and constrained by the currents of power surrounding their social positions, identities, and contexts, as well as by their education. (p. 155)

Perhaps one of the biggest threats to the integration of citizenship education for social justice is a lack of teacher expertise. Often teachers are not exposed to this content as students, nor do they experience it in teacher education (Adler, 2008). In order for social studies education to support a form of citizenship education that

meets the needs of a diverse society, teachers must have the requisite pedagogical content knowledge.

The Entanglement of Race and Citizenship: A Challenge for Contemporary Teachers

In the previous sections we examined citizenship education as a longstanding central aim of the social studies. We detailed how the full exercise of citizenship encompasses multiple parts that must work in synchrony to reinforce the democratic ideals of the nation. To this end, secondary school teachers are charged to cultivate among youth an understanding of and appreciation for how the conferral and protection of rights (via federal and state governments), along with the assumption of responsibilities by the individual, ideally converge to promote reasoned commitment to active civic participation for self and the common good. Although this has been a broad charge of social studies education, we noted that since the founding of the nation, race has been an incessant, complicating variable in the very concept of U. S. citizenship (Guinier, 2004). For example, in the careful calculus that defined who, among the nation's denizens, would be counted as a citizen, the framers of the U.S. Constitution unabashedly linked the composition of the newly forming law-making body, the House of Representatives, to the issue of race. Ratified by the states in 1788, the genteel race codes of the era were embedded in Article I Section 2.

Representatives ... shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, and three fifths of all other Persons.

Then nearly 70 years later, in the landmark decision in *Dred Scott v. Sandford*, the Justices of the Supreme Court would draw upon race when they ruled that, “[the members of] ‘the negro race’ could not be citizens and that slaves were property of their masters.” (O’Connor, 2014, p. 28).¹ It was abundantly clear therefore, that citizenship was to represent a restricted covenant between the government of the newly formed nation and persons classified as racially “white.” Of course, over time the most basic requisites of citizenship (including “whole” person status and the franchise) would be expanded to include non-white groups; however, well into the twentieth century white racial classification would maintain its place and stature as the single-most important criterion for the *full exercise* of citizenship² (Guinier,

¹John Paul Stevens (2011) and Sandra Day O’Connor (2014), two former Associate Justices, concluded that the decision in *Dred Scott* represents one of the worst in the history of the U.S. Supreme Court.

²Political wrangling in 2006 surrounding re-authorization of the 1965 Voting Rights Act suggested that over 40 years after its passage, issues of race continued to have a considerable impact on who is extended the most fundamental component of citizenship, i.e., the uncontested right to vote.

2004; Harris, 1993; Katznelson, 2005). Race was an irrefutably central ingredient in the formulation of the nation's most fundamental governing principles, and this inauspicious foundation served as the backdrop for the manner in which citizenship education would be conceived and enacted in schools.

As noted, orientations to citizenship historically focused on assimilationist conceptions that made it necessary for individuals to "give up their first languages and cultures to become full participants in the civic community of the nation-state" (Banks, 2008, p. 129–130). In an effort to acculturate European immigrant youth throughout the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, school curriculum focused on an orientation to citizenship education that was firmly aligned with the 'mainstream' Anglo-Saxon worldview. School curriculum of the era, and social studies education in particular, was silent on inequality and entrenched systems of oppression within the larger society. Instead, teachers reinforced a curriculum focused on citizenship to 'Americanize' all students (Patton & Mondale, S. (Producers) & Mondale, S. (Director), 2001), with a middle-class white worldview intended to represent the default referent (Helms, 1993 as cited in Marshall, 2002a) for all groups. Curiously, in some respects, this orientation to citizenship education has maintained its appeal to this day.

The liberal emphasis on colorblindness coupled with what Irvine (1991) describes as widespread cultural aversion among educators (as demonstrated by personal discomfort with things racial) are the likely primary culprits that entice some teachers to hold on to now anachronistic notions of citizenship education. Yet contemporary culturally diverse student populations and economic and political connections between the lives of the world's peoples demand that teachers jettison these orientations. Banks (2008) offers that contemporary educators must focus on education for "global citizenship". Detailing the challenges in doing so, he describes that

[b]efore the ethnic revitalization movements of the 1960s and 1970s, the aim of schools ... was to develop citizens who internalized their national values, venerated their national heroes, and accepted glorified versions of their national histories. These goals of citizenship education are inconsistent with the citizen's role in a global world today because many people have multiple national commitments Nationalism and globalization coexist in tension worldwide. (p. 132)

Teachers who fail to recognize and/or who neglect to enact a pedagogy that is in accordance with the evolving and expanding conceptions of the very notion of *citizen* will encounter pushback, if not outright resistance, from many of today's students. And to no small degree the resistance will emerge from the vast differences between the worldviews and life experiences of these teachers and those of their students (Gordon, 2010; Zumwalt & Craig, 2004).

Thus, the inglorious legacy of the entanglement of race and citizenship in the foundational principles of the nation now represents a knotty challenge for teachers. Ironically, it is a challenge that demands they attend to race. But different from the framers of the Constitution, contemporary teachers are challenged to attend to race in a manner that allows them to critique inequities that have historically compromised, and in very real ways have diminished, the U. S. experiment in democracy. Likewise, it is a challenge for teachers when teaching students whose lived experiences

of race and citizenship are diametric to their own. Undoubtedly, a feature of the challenge will manifest itself as students from minoritized³ populations trouble traditional orientations to citizenship education. Bondy (2014), for example, found that the conceptions of citizenship held by adolescent Latinas diverted substantially from traditional assimilationist and liberal notions. The students in her study demonstrated considerable insight about race-based societal inequities that confound longstanding meta-narratives surrounding citizenship. They grappled with such heady issues as presumptive citizen or human rights, racial profiling, and the treatment of those perceived to be non-citizens in a democratic nation. Yet these students' intricate understandings about how citizenship gets played out in the real world were not met with similarly complex learning opportunities in schools vis-à-vis the social studies classroom. Based on this study and other research, we believe the most significant component of the challenge of citizenship education for contemporary teachers will be that the students they teach will enter social studies classrooms with a sophisticated storehouse of critical, nuanced, and multi-layered experientially-based knowledge of what it means to be a citizen. In short, teachers whose own notions of citizenship align with anachronistic ideas will be challenged by the funds of knowledge (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992) exhibited by the students they teach. The description of the dynamic nature of citizenship offered by Abowitz and Harnish (2006) is instructive: "Citizenship is not a 'natural' idea but an invented concept that shifts with economic, political, and social changes" (p. 654). This dynamism suggests that the ideas about citizenship contemporary students draw upon will be firmly rooted in the raced realities of their lives. They will need and deserve teachers who are prepared to meet the challenge.

Critical Race Theory as an Organizing Framework in Social Studies Teacher Education

In 2002, the edited book *Critical Race Perspectives on Social Studies* was published with a primary goal of offering a multi-level analysis of the profession, policies, and the curriculum as enacted in schools and classrooms. Different from analyses of the field prior to that time, however, contributors to that book examined the social studies specifically through the prism of race. One chapter presented findings from a critical analysis of position statements issued by the NCSS that, up to that point, had shaped and informed the discourse surrounding citizenship in the field. Detailing a

³Use of the term *minoritized* refers to groups that may or may not represent numerically smaller segments of the overall population. Such groups hold lower social, political, and economic power and influence within the society. Whereas the term 'minority' is often used to denote an immutable almost static designation or characteristic of a group, *minoritized* speaks to the active and often hegemonic processes that contribute to and perpetuate the lower status position of a given (ethnoracial, gender, sexual orientation, religious, etc.) group relative to the dominating group in the larger society.

pattern of obfuscation through ‘diversity phrasing’ and race aversion, the chapter concluded with the following admonition:

The agenda for citizenship education can never be deracialized and at the same time, be democratic, dynamic, and in step with the actuality of life in the United States.The sooner NCSS leaders accept this reality, the sooner they can begin doing their part to dismantle the dehumanizing unrealities racism imposes on us all. (Marshall, 2002b; p. 93)

In the 12 years since publication of that book, it is clear that irrespective of whether the NCSS has accepted a race-aware agenda for citizenship education in the twenty-first century, citizenship itself continues to be effected by race-based realities that have long defined the contours of life in the United States. Furthermore, while NCSS positions may, to some degree, inform the practice of social studies, the teaching methods course is equally (if not more) implicated in shaping the earliest orientations beginning teachers bring to their role as social studies professionals.

We offer that CRT provides a well-grounded framework around which to critique and structure the secondary social studies teaching methods course. Such a framework has potential to offer teacher candidates the requisite knowledge and skills, if not dispositions, to gain critical understanding of the role race plays in their students’ lives as well as their own (Cochran-Smith, 2000, 2003; Gordon, 2010). Additionally, teacher candidates may acquire critical understanding of the connections between race and citizenship in the United States, and thereby be better equipped in the context of the secondary social studies classroom, to help students explore the issue of race in a thoughtful and nuanced manner.

What Is CRT?

The name itself, ‘critical race theory’, can be deceptive as although CRT is intimately concerned with the issue of race, it is not limited to race. Rather, CRT is an analytic framework through which scholars have studied how race is deliberately exploited and/or subversively implicated in the perpetuation and entrenchment of systems of oppression including racism (white supremacy), classism, neo-colonialism, and sexism across various social realms including law, health, and education. Issues that figure in the perpetuation and entrenchment of systems of oppression have been identified and isolated in CRT through analysis of hegemonic discourse features including common myths, customs, and various normalized practices (Crenshaw, Gotanda, Peller, & Thomas, 1995; Delgado & Stefancic, 2000; Guinier, 2004; Ladson-Billings, 1998, 2004; Tate, 1997). Through CRT analysis it is possible to disentangle intersections between and among various forms of structural oppression. Scholars who use CRT analysis draw upon an array of methodological techniques including storytelling. Moreover, concepts that are central to CRT analysis include positionality and ‘voice’ both of which speak to the socially-constructed nature of ‘reality’ and knowledge itself (Ladson-Billings, 1998). A complete analysis

of CRT precepts is beyond the scope of this short chapter, therefore readers are urged to consult sources listed in the references for more in depth discussions.

Basic CRT Concepts In Pre-service Teacher Education

There are a variety of concepts associated with CRT analysis. Among the more well-known are *whiteness as property*; *process defect*; *conscious intent*; *colorblindness*; and *interest convergence*. Although all contribute to the robustness of CRT analysis, we have selected just two, *colorblindness* and *interest convergence*, which could serve as organizing themes for or be embedded into the content of the pre-service social studies methods course. In addition to defining these two concepts, however, we will examine the concept of *interest divergence*, a Janus-like counterpart to *interest convergence*. Both the convergence and the divergence of interests speak to the intersections and cleavages between and among groups as they jockey for position and power to protect (or lay claim to) privileges, entitlements, and/or rights for the members of respective groups. As such both convergence and divergence of interests are implicated in the creation, perpetuation and entrenchment of systems of oppression. The latter, interest divergence, will be examined in regard to its potential to begin the process of developing *racial literacy* (Guinier, 2004) among social studies teacher candidates.

Color Blindness

Arguably the most fundamental concept in CRT analysis is that of color-blindness. This concept has been central in underscoring the triteness and superficiality of some explanations for how contemporary race oppression might be lessened or eliminated outright. Marshall (2002b) noted that, “the concept of *color-blindness* is a very powerful [way in which racism has] been ignored, dismissed, and even recast into non-racial matters. ... [From a color-blind perspective] racism is no more burdensome, urgent, or damaging than any other “ism” resulting from the ignorance, *prejudice* [italics added], and discrimination directed at one individual by another individual” (p. 84). A key element of this description of color-blindness is the focus on negative traits of *individual* actors.

It is not uncommon for teacher candidates to express with pride their embrace and full endorsement of colorblindness. In part this may be owing to the fact that support for color-blindness is meant to convey personal fairness and an objective (or at least non-prejudicial) orientation toward ‘difference’. Commonly, teacher candidates claim ‘color-blindness’ in reference to the vast diversity in contemporary schools in general, and in particular to those students (often from minoritized populations) who do not share the teacher candidates’ own ethnoracial classification. Barring ocular impairments, however, such claims may also reflect a need to

suppress personal inclinations to react negatively to the racial differences that clearly can be and are seen.

In CRT analysis, color-blind explanations (and remedies) for inequality are subjected to critique because they offer an exceedingly shallow analysis of the intricate workings of oppressive systems. The issue of racism from a colorblind perspective, for example, is reduced to the bad behaviors (prejudices) of one individual against another individual even though racism itself is a multi-faceted phenomenon. Explaining the complexity of racism, Guinier (2004) notes

[r]acism ... the maintenance of, and acquiescence in, racialized hierarchies governing resource distribution – has not functioned simply thorough evil or irrational prejudice; it has been an artifact of geographic, political, and economic interests. (p. 98)

She explains further that,

[Racism in] the United States is a by-product of economic conflict that has been converted into a tool of division and distraction. It is not just an outgrowth of hatred or ill will. Racism has had psychological, sociological, and economic consequences.... (p. 99)

We believe *color-blindness* is a critical concept to introduce, analyze, and critique in the social studies methods course. If for no other reason, teacher candidates should be challenged to consider the factual contradictions and the possible sub-conscious meanings that may accompany claims of ‘color-blindness’. In the latter case they should be challenged to acknowledge other social identity markers (e.g., sex; sexual orientation; religion) and consider the implications of being ‘blind’ to them. Undoubtedly claims of gender or religious blindness would be met with comments or questions that highlight the absurdity of such a claim, or that at the least invite analysis of the implicit meanings behind such claims.

Interest Convergence

The principle of *interest convergence* is another elemental CRT concept to which teacher candidates should be introduced in order to help them start to grapple with inconsistencies nestled in the nation’s meta-narrative surrounding citizenship. To begin to understand the complexities and challenges of educating for twenty-first century citizenship necessitates critique of such ideals as meritocracy, equality, and justice-for-all. Moreover, these ideals need to be contrasted with the realities of historical and contemporary inequality, discrimination, and oppression in the society that is often firmly grounded in race. Drawing on the CRT concept of *interest convergence* offers a sophisticated analytic lens through which teacher candidates can develop understanding of say, legislative efforts that on the one hand have mollified tensions between groups while on the other have largely stymied broader social justice goals. Introduced by celebrated CRT theorists, the late Derrick Bell (1980),

[The] principle of “interest convergence” provides: The interest of [B]lacks in achieving racial equality will be accommodated only when it converges with the interests of [W]hites. [R]emedies [for the effects of racism] ... for [B]lacks [will not be forthcoming] where [it] ... threatens the superior societal status of middle and upper-class [W]hites. . . . Racial remedies . . . , if granted, will secure, advance, or at least not harm societal interests deemed important by middle and upper-class [W]hites. (as cited in Guinier, 2004, p. 94)

Interest Divergence

Legal scholar Lani Guinier (2004) introduced the concept of *interest divergence* and explained that its critical understanding is central to the acquisition of racial literacy. She defines interest divergence as the fabrication of “interdependent yet paradoxical relationships between race, class, and geography” (p. 100). Put differently, the phenomenon of interest divergence explains that often, multiple variables are intersecting (and operating in seemingly contradictory ways) to aggravate and/or promote group conflicts and systemic/structural oppression.

For example, some teacher candidates readily offer that economic class differences (rather than race) now serve as the most significant element of ‘diversity’ that complicates the teaching-learning process in contemporary schools. Many believe that family income disparities introduce a uniquely negative impact on academic outcomes because, unlike race, the vicissitudes of economic class are mediated by personal choices and habits of individuals.

It is not uncommon for some to highlight the so-called ‘culture of poverty’ as a primary explanation for widespread albeit longstanding academic disparities between poor and middle-class students in schools. Because such explanations are largely ahistorical, they effectively obscure race as a critical factor. Gross academic disparities between student populations of different economic class backgrounds therefore come to be perceived as void of racial antecedents. In short, many teacher candidates discount the reality that race *still* matters. Further, due to the de-coupling of economic class and race they may perceive disparities tagged as economically based to be somehow less repugnant.

Such reasoning exposes racial illiteracy in full relief and underscores the lack of awareness of longstanding intersections *and* contradictions between the role of race and poverty in systems of oppression dating to the founding of the nation. Analysis of historical responses of poor and working-class Whites to such issues as school desegregation (Roy, 1999) or housing desegregation plans (Hirsch, 1995), for example, can help teachers develop more sophisticated understanding of how race and class *interest diversions* have been exploited to sustain oppression of people of color and poor Whites, while maintaining the superior socio-economic status of middle- and upper-class Whites. In short, in many cases “[w]hile it appears that race trump[s] class it [is] equally true that class [is] defined by race and urban-suburban geography” (Guinier, 2004, p. 106).

A New Vision for the Social Studies Methods Course

Our vision for the social studies methods course for *twenty-first century citizenship* includes a belief that it should be structured in a manner that introduces teacher candidates to both discipline and pedagogical content knowledge that highlights the most salient albeit troublesome issues related to diversity in contemporary societies. By necessity we believe this includes historical content knowledge that facilitates understanding of the inextricable links (direct as well as those moderated by economic class, sex, religion, and other identity markers) between race and citizenship. At the outset we recognize that teaching in contemporary schools will present many challenges for which it would be embarrassingly presumptuous for *any* single teaching methods course (or collection of courses for that matter) to claim to encompass comprehensively. This means the perennial refrain about methods courses not offering teacher candidates *everything* they need to know about teaching will extend into the twenty-first century – and well it should! The fact is, we would be among the first to denounce such a reductionist orientation to the multi-faceted intellectual task that is (and will be) social studies teaching for the twenty-first century. The corpus of knowledge, skills, and dispositions is immense. Recognizing this, we offer a hope for the methods course that entices teacher candidates to develop dispositions that will allow them to anchor their content knowledge, pedagogical skills, and overall continuing quest to know firmly in the complex and contradictory *reality of the unreality of race* (Marshall, 2002b, p. 13) that frames life in these United States. To this end, we offer a vision of the secondary social studies methods course that incorporates key concepts from CRT.

Initially, courses should be structured in such a way that teacher candidates can develop the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to think more critically about the role of race in teaching, learning, and schooling. Core to this vision should be study of the historical link between race and citizenship in the United States, as well as *critical conversations* about race and its systemic manifestations in schools and the larger society. Ideally, we believe such conversations should occur within the community of practice that includes other methods instructors, educators, and practitioners. Specifically, we propose that redesign of the social studies methods course to more explicitly address race and racism can begin by integrating core concepts from CRT into the NCSS (2004) *Program Standards for the Initial Preparation for Social Studies Teachers* hereafter referred to as the *Program Standards*.

The *Program Standards* include five indicators for instruction in social studies methods courses: (1) the selection, teaching, and assessment of content appropriate to the purpose and goals of the social studies; (2) the integration of history and social sciences in social studies instruction; (3) competent instructors whose professional experience and education matches the content, goals, and licensure level of the social studies; (4) encouragement of teacher candidates in the selection, integration, and translation of content and methods of history and the social sciences, and (5) the preparation of teacher candidates in using a variety of instructional methods applicable to diverse settings and populations, interests, and abilities. These

indicators were identified to facilitate development of pedagogical understandings (Slekar, 2006), introduce various teaching strategies and materials, and highlight current trends, issues, and research of the social sciences (Nelson, 2001). Embedding concepts of CRT (i.e., *colorblindness*, *interest convergence*, and *interest divergence*) with these standards can provide opportunities for social studies teacher educators to prompt teacher candidates to interrogate and examine racial inequities from both historical and contemporary socio-political contexts (Tyson, 2003). Doing so may promote more complex thinking about the underlying systems that benefit from and are supported by the longstanding tensions surrounding race. Through the introduction of critical conversations, social studies methods courses can become mechanisms to support and promote civic-minded individuals who are, at the least, conscious of and not dismissive about the continuing presence of race and racism in many dimensions of life including the diverse manners in which members of contemporary collective populations understand and enact the role of citizen.

The first indicator of the *Program Standards* directs methods instructors and educators to select, teach, and assess content that aligns with the goals and purpose of the social studies. According to the 2008 NCSS position statement *A Vision of Powerful Teaching and Learning in the Social Studies: Building Social Understanding and Civic Efficacy*, social studies should be taught in an authentic and powerful way that encourages students to “identify, understand, and work to solve the challenges facing our diverse nation in an increasingly interdependent world” (n.p.). To accomplish this from a CRT perspective, content must connect current and contemporary events with historical antecedents to confront and critically interrogate issues related to race and racism. We therefore propose that some content be drawn directly from local and/or national current events thereby bolstering the relevance of the social studies methods course and demonstrating its direct connections to the real world realities of contemporary life.

For example, at the time of the writing of this chapter events in Ferguson, Missouri and Staten Island, New York surrounding the controversial deaths of unarmed Black men (i.e., Michael Brown and Eric Garner, respectively) at the hands of White police officers flooded the media. Events of this type can be used to explore the historical legacy of tensions between Black communities and law enforcement officers. Perceptions of police brutality, racial profiling, and the failure of the justice system to protect all citizens equally and fairly have differed between racial groups (particularly between Black citizens and White citizens) historically (and continue presently) calling into question the very notion of ‘color-blindness’. Dyson (2014) described how the case of Michael Brown demonstrated

clashing perceptions [that] underscore the physics of race, in which an observer effect operates: The instrument through which one perceives race – one’s culture, one’s experiences, one’s fears and fantasies – alters in crucial ways what it measures. (p. 4)

The inclusion of these contemporary events as content in the social studies methods course can be utilized to promote critical analysis of race-laden issues in contemporary society. Likewise other current events, such as investigations of the

broad issues surrounding racial profiling claims may offer opportunities for teacher candidates to critique the notion of color blindness in the justice system.

To guide critical conversations, methods instructors could ask teacher candidates to analyze public reaction to the events as captured in popular press reports through the lens of CRT. For example, a Washington Post article titled, “*Police union: ‘We don’t believe it’s an issue of race. We believe it’s an issue of poverty’*” (2014), was written by the National President of the Fraternal Order of Police, Chuck Canterbury, in response to the deaths of Brown and Garner. Using the CRT tenet of “interest divergence” to guide discussion, the methods instructor could facilitate critical discussion about the refusal (or inability) of the police union president to acknowledge the intersectionality of class and race. These conversations might center on exploring manners in which poverty may be used to obfuscate race-based citizen rights violations.

Methods instructors could model strategies about how to connect critical discussions of contemporary events to a deeper study of history and the social sciences including political science, sociology, economics and geography (indicator 2 of the *Program Standards*). An interdisciplinary approach could be used to facilitate critical conversations about contemporary social issues (e.g., racial profiling, police brutality, citizen rights violations, discrimination) from various disciplines and perspectives and promote various understandings including human behavior, cause and effect relationships, recurrent themes and patterns throughout time periods in history. In a methods course where the precepts of CRT have been introduced (including the notion of racism as normal and ordinary rather than aberrant in the United States), drawing on concepts from political science teacher candidates may compare and contrast perspectives on power differentials including how people of color versus poor Whites interact with police in their respective communities. From a geographic perspective, teacher candidates may explore how the location of certain neighborhoods within cities (and the ethnoracial and economic demographics of particular areas) impacts the very presence of police patrols. Explorations through a sociological lens on the other hand, may reveal how the public outcry and anger over the failure to indict law enforcement officers in the wake of controversial citizen deaths represents the sense of disempowerment citizens perceive in response to their experiences (direct and vicarious) with the legal system.

The principle of interest convergence in the secondary social studies methods course might be examined through the integration of history and the social sciences. According to Bell (1980) a prime example of interest convergence in United States history was the unanimous Supreme Court ruling in the landmark case of *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*. In brief, Bell argued that the de-segregation of public schools occurred primarily as a means to improve the international image of the United States to the outside world during the Cold War. Consequently, the interest of the Black population (i.e., to gain access to better schooling facilities for their children and youth) converged with that of the dominant White population (i.e., to project the image of an ostensibly democratic society to the outside world). In the methods course, teacher candidates could engage in critical analysis of Bell’s hypothesis through utilizing the various disciplines of the social sciences in

conjunction with historical content knowledge. This might include chronicling major historical events that have occurred between the *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision (the 1896 case that legalized the separate but equal doctrine) and the *Brown vs. Board of Education of Topeka* decision (the 1954 case that over turned Plessy thus legally ending state-sponsored segregation). The goal would be to identify evidence that supports (or refutes) the notion of interest convergence as a central theme of desegregation.

In integrating the activities and discussions described above, the social studies methods instructor must personally be comfortable addressing issues of race and racism with teacher candidates. Perhaps more importantly, methods instructors must be acutely aware of racial disparities and inequities that exist on multiple levels (e.g., personal, cultural, institutional) and spheres (e.g. political, social, and economic) of society. Accordingly, and in conjunction with the third indicator of the *Program Standards*, the methods instructor must possess “professional experience and education [that] matches the content, goals, and licensure level of the social studies.” This means instructors themselves must embody the skills and dispositions to facilitate the critical conversations called for in the methods course where CRT concepts serve as the anchor for both the content and the learning activities. The primary role of methods instructors is to prepare future social studies educators with the pedagogy, content knowledge, and materials and resources to be effective and impactful teachers. Therefore, they should model the skills and dispositions needed to facilitate critical conversations in social studies classrooms and with other social studies educators.

Methods instructors must also model best practices for the selection of content and instructional strategies (indicators four and five of the *Program Standards*). A good launching point for these indicators from a CRT perspective would be to ask teacher candidates to critique social studies textbooks. In the critique, teacher candidates should be encouraged to analyze and reflect upon the stories and events and interpretations included in the texts and the significance of the narratives in the very construction of knowledge. Aside from this activity, a social studies methods instructor whose course is anchored by CRT concepts will also bring a critical perspective to the primary texts used for the course. To guide teacher candidates’ analysis the instructor may assign portions of texts from various social science disciplines that explicitly confront race and racism in American history, including James Loewens’ (2009) *Teaching What Really Happened: How to Avoid the Tyranny of Textbooks and Get Students Excited About Doing History*; Cornell West’s (1994) *Race Matters*; John Hope Franklin’s (1994) *The Color Line and Racial Equality in America*; and Michelle Alexander’s (2012) *The New Jim Crow: Mass Incarceration in the Age of Colorblindness*.

In addition to integrating CRT across the five indicators of the *Program Standards*, we recommend incorporating service learning opportunities and experiences for teacher candidates within or connected to the social studies methods course. According to Boyle-Baise (2003) aligning service learning with a social justice orientation allows teacher candidates the opportunity to learn about the environments and communities in which their students live. Teacher candidates can

work with local non-profits or community based organizations that provide services to youth in neighboring communities. Through these experiences, teacher candidates may be encouraged to choose more appropriate content and methods of instruction (i.e., culturally relevant and responsive) that will meet the needs and interests of students. Due to the recurring nature of the racial divide (Dyson, 2014), teacher candidates may well be able to identify local events (not so dissimilar to the Ferguson and Staten Island cases), which can be used to challenge notions of color-blindness or even illustrate the realities of interest divergence. Likewise, such events may be used as the core of service learning projects that provide opportunities for racial dialogue and deliberation of social, economic, and political concerns.

The suggestions and activities we have described are not an exhaustive list. Instead, they are intended to illustrate, using broad strokes, how critical conversations about race, racism, and inequity can be implemented and examined through incorporation of CRT concepts and use of contemporary social issues in the secondary social studies methods course. To live up to the purposes and aims of the social studies within a diverse society, it is essential that we engage teacher candidates in such discussions. Likewise, it is our hope that current and future social studies methods instructors take on the task of facilitating conversations about race and racism in our field. If we are dedicated to our profession and our mission for promoting citizenship education then it behooves us to be diligent. As Howard (2003) states, “not only are our students in need of such a critical dialogue, but our future as a nation is dependent upon it as well” (p. 39).

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to describe how structuring the secondary methods course around critical race theory concepts can promote teacher candidates’ understanding of and appreciation for why race should be a central topic in the teaching of contemporary social studies. We examined the citizenship education charge for social studies and explored why cultural diversity among contemporary student populations, contrasted with the “overwhelming presence of whiteness” (Sleeter, 2001) among the stock of today’s teacher candidates, will likely present challenges to the very notion of citizenship education. We defined three CRT concepts (i.e., color-blindness, interest convergence, interest divergence) and described implications for each in the broad structure of the teaching methods courses. Finally, we put forth a new vision for the social studies secondary methods course by illustrating how critical race concepts can be embedded into authentic content and learning activities.

The issue of promoting racial literacy, as exemplified in our call for using CRT as a foundation in the structure of the secondary social studies methods course, is not a simple task. In addition to presenting a challenge for teacher candidates, we recognize that CRT invites and demands a level of critical engagement and analysis

of systems of oppression that may well present a tremendous challenge for teacher educators themselves (Gordon, 2010). Even so, we call for social studies teacher educators to dare to imagine social studies methods courses where teacher candidates look beyond the superficial to understand the complexities of oppression. Imagine social studies methods where teacher candidates themselves are moved to engage in action and to bring to life the promise that is citizenship education. Finally, as they imagine these possibilities, we challenge teacher educators to be “mindful of the places where imagination sabotages itself, locks its own gates, pollutes its vision” (Morrison, 1993) as that will mark the line that differentiates between coming into the light, and conceding to continue playing in the dark.

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Chapter 5

Preparing Elementary Pre-service Teachers to Promote Big Ideas Within Social Studies

Sarah Brooks and Daniel J. Jares

In 2010 the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) published a bulletin aimed at revitalizing elementary social studies (NCSS, 2010). This document placed major emphasis on (re)organizing elementary social studies around “powerful ideas,” alternately referred to by other authors as big ideas or essential understandings (Grant & Gradwell, 2010; McTighe & Wiggins, 2013). More recently, NCSS released *The College, Career and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies Standards*, which is intended to guide states in improving their K-12 social studies standards. The C3 Framework (2013) also advocates that social studies be organized around big ideas by encouraging the use of “compelling questions” as the starting place for all social studies curriculum (p. 17).

A focus on teaching big ideas in elementary social studies can be seen in the field’s leading practitioner journals. *Social Education*, *The Social Studies* and *Social Studies for the Young Learner* include numerous articles with suggestions for engaging learners in the exploration of big ideas in the classroom (Balantic & Fregosi, 2012; O’Mahoney, 2012; Scheurman, 2012; Viator, 2012; Zaleski & Zinnel, 2013). These articles espouse the merits of structuring social studies around big ideas, especially the possibility of making curriculum relevant to students’ lives. Included in these practitioner articles are anecdotal reports of the positive impact that this approach can have on K-12 students’ learning. Only a few researchers have systematically examined what this type of teaching and learning looks like in elementary classrooms (e.g., Brophy & Alleman, 2009; Libresco, 2005, 2007). These studies focus on the strategies used by experienced teachers to make big ideas comprehensible to young learners. Just two studies have investigated the manner in which

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pre-service teachers might be appropriately prepared to teach social studies for big ideas in their future classrooms (Martin, 2012; McCall, 2010). Both projects detail how big ideas are explored in social studies methods courses but do not provide evidence of the pre-service teachers' ability to teach big ideas to young learners.

To address this gap in the literature, this chapter examines the influence of an elementary social studies methods course that was redesigned to prepare pre-service teachers "to plan and deliver social studies instruction organized around big ideas" (Course Syllabus, 2013). The course was reconceived with this purpose after we observed that our elementary pre-service teachers had significant difficulty planning social studies instruction that made meaningful connections to their students' cares and concerns. As these pre-service teachers sought to respond to the curricular demands of their field experiences and the expectations of their mentor teachers, they struggled to identify and focus on the relevance of content to their students. Given these challenges, the social studies methods course was reorganized to place primary emphasis on developing pre-service teachers' ability to teach big ideas through social studies.

This was certainly not the first social studies methods course to focus on teaching to big ideas. Grant and Gradwell (2010), for example, have written about how big ideas are a prominent feature in their social studies methods courses. However, our review of the literature revealed no empirical research studies examining the manner in which pre-service teachers might be prepared to teach social studies for big ideas in their future classrooms. Therefore we set out to explore the question: What influence can an elementary social studies methods course, with deliberate and consistent attention to teaching big ideas, have on pre-service teachers' development of the requisite knowledge?

In this chapter we begin by providing a conceptualization of big ideas and situating our study in the literature on social studies pre-service teacher education. We then detail key elements of the redesigned, methods course and the theoretical framework and research methods employed to examine the effect of the course. The findings section reports on the ways in which the course influenced pre-service teachers' understanding and skills related to teaching big ideas. Finally, we conclude by considering what the results of this study suggest about effective ways of preparing pre-service teachers to encourage relevant social studies.

Social Studies for Big Ideas

Big ideas for a social studies curriculum are principles about the ways in which humans interact with each other and with their world. Big ideas are often expressed in curricular documents as statements. For example, a third grade social studies unit might focus on the following big idea: Humans need natural resources to meet their basic needs and therefore must use them responsibly. The *National Curriculum Standards for Social Studies* (2010) have a number of big ideas embedded within them. For example, one standard stipulates that learners understand that "historical

knowledge and the concept of time are socially influenced constructions that lead historians to be selective in the questions they seek to answer and the evidence they use” (NCSS, 2010).

Big ideas can also be presented as essential questions to promote inquiry. Grant and Gradwell (2010) wrote that a big idea is a “question or generalization that is intellectually honest and is cast in a manner that should appeal to students” (p. vii). Alleman and Brophy (2010) claimed that big ideas are generative in that they help students “develop a basic set of connected understandings of how the social system works; how and why it got to be that way over time; how and why they vary across locations and cultures; and what all of this might mean for personal, social, and civic decision making” (p. 11). In other words, big ideas allow students to understand some aspect of the world, or their experience in it, in a new way. McTighe and Wiggins (2013) explained that a big idea is timeless and perpetually arguable, deserving of consideration throughout an individual’s lifetime and beyond.

Alleman and Brophy (2010) suggested that a curricular focus on big ideas will assist teachers in moving beyond the transmission of trite, redundant factual content—an approach all too common in elementary social studies classrooms. Students benefit from a curriculum centered around big ideas because these ideas “provide a beacon or touchstone for learners as they continually try to orient themselves in the new world of information they are entering” (McTighe & Wiggins, 2013, p. 22). Students are also likely to find curriculum focused on big ideas to be more intellectually engaging, meaningful and applicable to life within and outside of school (Alleman & Brophy, 2010; McTighe & Wiggins, 2013).

Through their professional development work with in-service teachers, Obenchain, Orr, and Davis (2011) have identified four persistent dilemmas of history instruction, in particular, which can be ameliorated by a curricular focus on big ideas: (1) teaching a linear and disconnected history, (2) failing to engage students in historical inquiry, (3) missing opportunities to connect enduring historical themes with current issues, and (4) using historical sources devoid of context. Virgin (2014) made an even larger assertion about teaching to big ideas, when he claimed that this approach can directly further what NCSS states is the primary purpose of a social studies education: “to help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world” (NCSS, 2010, p. 3).

The work of several scholars has provided valuable insight into how elementary educators can teach social studies with big ideas (Alleman, Knighton, & Brophy, 2010; Libresco, 2005, 2007). Libresco (2007) examined how three teachers organized their fourth grade, social studies curricula around big ideas, focusing primarily on the essential question “Has the history of New York been a history of progress for all?” Within and across units, the teachers used essential questions that built on each other and allowed students to explore big ideas through different content. For instance, in a geography unit, students considered the relationship between physical environments and human settlement. A subsequent unit on Native Americans, focused on how climate and physical environment influenced Native American life. Later students were invited to think about how physical environment and climate,

along with other factors, might explain current settlement patterns in New York State. These teachers encouraged their students to ask questions, which in many cases allowed students themselves to uncover big ideas worthy of discussion. Additionally the teachers regularly asked their students, “So what? Why should fourth grade kids and adults care?” as they learned new information and skills (p. 15). This type of prompting pushed students to connect learning back to big ideas and to their own lives.

Alleman et al. (2010) analyzed the strategies that a first and second grade teacher employed to assist young learners in exploring big ideas. When planning social studies for primary grade students, this teacher worked to focus lessons on one or two big ideas and often developed these over a sequence of lessons. She frequently began her lessons by stating a big idea clearly and deliberately. She also restated and rephrased the idea throughout a lesson and in subsequent lessons, often in her responses to and elaborations on students’ answers to questions. At times this teacher posed questions designed to stimulate students to articulate the big idea themselves. If a student expressed the big idea nicely, she would ask other students if they agreed in order to draw further attention to it. One of her primary aims was to help students realize the generalizability of a big idea to other settings.

While focused on the middle level rather than the elementary classroom, Virgin’s (2014) research is an important addition to the case studies as it provides data on student outcomes as a result of social studies instruction for big ideas. Virgin examined the impact of revisiting essential questions (e.g., What causes change? What causes things to stay the same?) in several units throughout his seventh grade U.S. History curriculum. This approach led to growth in his students’ abilities to connect learning between units but did not significantly increase their propensity to connect historical content to their own lived experiences. He concluded that personal connections to content must be promoted through consistent, deliberate opportunities for students to engage in such thinking related to the big ideas being explored.

Preparing Pre-service Elementary Teachers to Teach Social Studies

The social studies methods course is a standard in most elementary teacher preparation programs and therefore seems the most likely place for pre-service teachers to learn the understandings and skills they need to teach to big ideas; however, it is regularly acknowledged that the demands on this course are great. At some institutions, pre-service teachers receive their only required exposure to social science content in their social studies methods course(s) (Bolick, Adams, & Willox, 2010). Perhaps as a result of their own experiences as learners in school settings, pre-service teachers often come to their social studies methods class with negative views of the subject area (Slekar, 1998). Additionally, they report having little exposure to social studies instruction in their field placements, so the methods course is sometimes poorly augmented by examples of related classroom applications (Lanahan &

Yeager, 2008). If the manner of social studies instruction promoted within a methods class is not reflected in field placements, pre-service teachers often question the feasibility of the practices taught in their methods course (Burstein, 2009).

Even in the face of these challenges, there is evidence that an elementary social studies methods course can positively influence pre-service teachers' attitudes and understandings about matters such as the capabilities of young learners (Camicia & Read, 2011), student-centered learning (Burstein, 2009), integration of social studies with other content areas (Henning, Peterson, & King, 2011; Rule et al., 2012), technology use in the classroom (Torrez, 2010), and primary source work to promote historical understanding (Waring & Torrez, 2010). Most of these studies measure shifts in pre-service teacher thinking, without providing evidence of the impact of these attitudes and ideas on their practice. In her review of research on the preparation of social studies teachers, Adler (2008) asserted, "It is not enough for teachers to understand something...; they, themselves, need the skills to implement a different approach within real-life contexts" (p. 336). Only a few studies have examined the relationship between what is taught in an elementary social studies methods course and pre-service teachers' actual practice in school settings (Franklin & Molebash, 2007; McCormick & Hubbard, 2011), therefore, more of this type of research is needed.

Despite the theoretical and empirical support for organizing elementary social studies around big ideas, little is known about the process by which pre-service teachers learn to provide this type of curriculum. Two studies have provided some attention to the role that a social studies methods course might play in readying pre-service teachers to teach elementary social studies for big ideas. McCall (2010) investigated the use of literature circles in an elementary social studies methods course as a strategy for teaching big ideas. The author concluded that the exercise allowed participants to raise and discuss big ideas for themselves, but he did not explore how this experience influenced the pre-service teachers' ability to provide social studies instruction for big ideas. Martin (2012) described how she organized her elementary history methods course around four ideas central to history: multiple stories, historical context, fact versus fiction, and the claim-evidence connection. These big ideas were repeatedly emphasized and discussed through the modeling and debriefing of a range of history lessons for elementary learners. Martin suggested that at least some of the pre-service teachers in the course were able to demonstrate understanding of these big ideas through their creation of social studies lesson plans for young learners. These two studies provide some related insight, yet the process for preparing pre-service teachers to organize their curriculum around big ideas is significantly under examined.

The Redesigned Elementary Social Studies Methods Course

The course we examine here was taught at a liberal arts college located in a suburban, Midwestern city. The college had a total enrollment of approximately 3000 students. The social studies methods course, taught by Sarah, was a required part of

an elementary education licensure program at the college. The course met for 3 h weekly for 15 weeks, and the pre-service teachers spent an additional hour a week in a K-8 classroom to observe and participate in social studies instruction.

At the beginning of the course, the term “big idea” was defined and explained to the pre-service teachers as it has been discussed in this chapter. Pre-service teachers read articles by Alleman, Brophy, and Knighton (2008) and Alleman, Knighton and Brophy (2010) to provide a rationale for organizing social studies in this way and to help them better understand and envision what social studies instruction focused on big ideas looks like. They were given a “big idea graphic organizer” (see Fig. 5.1), adapted from Erickson (2007), and taught how to use this tool to plan instruction around big ideas. The organizer was introduced as a way to identify how discrete facts might relate to a big idea (see Fig. 5.2). It was intended to push the pre-service teachers to plan to explore a big idea through at least two concrete topics. In this way, pre-service teachers could avoid focusing their lessons/units simply on one topic and their students could draw generalizations across topics. Sarah explained to the pre-service teachers that, given complete curricular freedom, one might begin with the NCSS themes, use these to generate a big idea, and then determine topics through which to explore the big idea. However in many cases, social studies curricula dictate topics and specific facts to be addressed. When these curricular constraints exist, it becomes necessary to determine a big idea that can be explored through designated topics.

The pre-service teachers were given in-class opportunities to work with their classmates to practice crafting big ideas and mapping these out onto the graphic organizer. Sarah led whole class discussion and critique of these initial efforts in order to provide formative feedback. Much of the remainder of the course was devoted to modeling instructional strategies for teaching social studies focused on big ideas. The pre-service teachers were shown how to initiate activities by posing

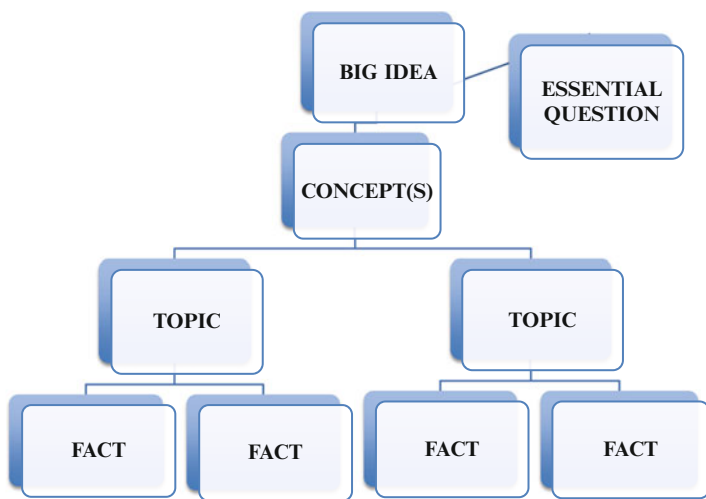


Fig. 5.1 Blank big idea graphic organizer

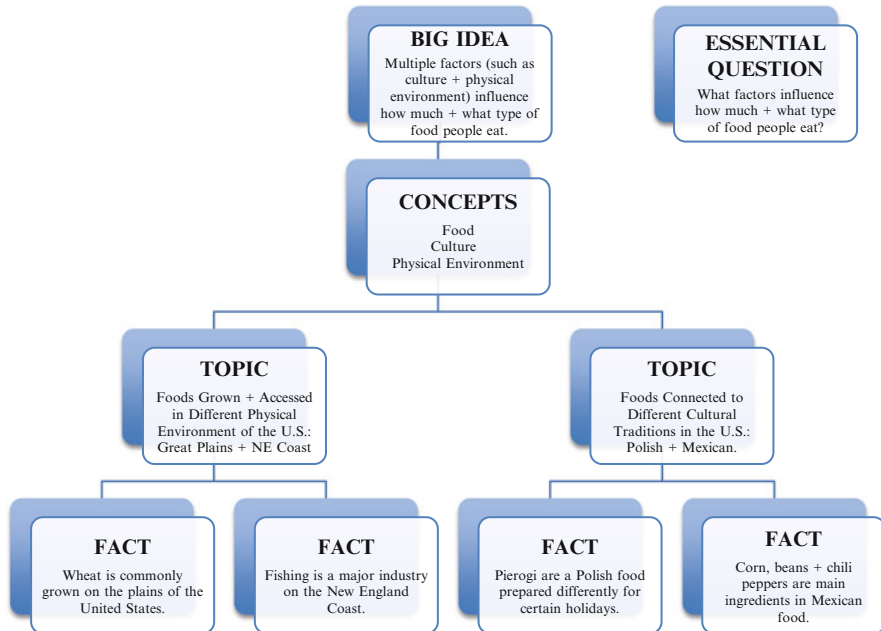


Fig. 5.2 Sample big idea graphic organizer

essential questions, engage students in different types of investigation and inquiry, and involve students in reflection and discussion to draw conclusions in response to essential questions. At times Sarah handed out big idea graphic organizers that had been filled out to show the relationships between facts, topics, concepts, and big ideas for a given activity she was modeling. Pre-service teachers were given a completed organizer and a lesson plan for an activity that was modeled for them so that they could see what planning for big ideas instruction might look like in a fully fleshed-out plan.

As part of the course requirements, pre-service teachers had to design and teach an original social studies lesson plan in collaboration with the mentor teacher in their field placement. Prior to teaching this lesson, each received feedback from Sarah on an ungraded draft of their lesson plan and completed big idea graphic organizer. They then video recorded the lesson and wrote a reflective commentary analyzing their efforts and student learning. Another major assignment required the pre-service teachers to work with one or two classmates to create an original five-lesson unit plan organized around a big idea. For this assignment, each group of students met with Sarah to discuss and receive feedback on an ungraded draft several weeks before turning in a final draft. The final assessment for the course required the pre-service teachers to review a poorly conceived social studies unit, with an accompanying elementary textbook chapter. They were asked to reorganize the unit around a big idea, revise the objectives and essential questions, and modify the learning activities and assessments to support the objectives.

Study Design

All 19 pre-service teachers who took the social studies methods course in fall of 2013 participated in the study. The participants included one male and 18 females; 16 of the participants were White, two were Latina, and one was Multi Ethnic. All were in their junior or senior year of the elementary education program when the study occurred.

The design of this qualitative study involved the triangulation of data sources to reduce the systemic biases or limitations of a specific source (Maxwell, 2012). We collected numerous artifacts created by the pre-service teachers enrolled in the social studies methods course as evidence of their developing thoughts and skills related to organizing social studies around big ideas. These artifacts included big idea graphic organizers created by the pre-service teachers in class at various points throughout the course, drafted and revised lesson plans, video recordings of lessons taught by the pre-service teachers, reflective commentaries written about their teaching, drafted and revised unit plans, and the final exam.

Upon completion of the course, nine of the pre-service teachers were selected to participate in a one-on-one, semi-structured interview about their experience learning to plan and teach social studies around big ideas. These participants were chosen to represent the range of proficiencies demonstrated by the pre-service teachers in the course. Dan, who was not involved in the instruction of the social studies methods course, conducted all interviews. He utilized an interview protocol but asked a variety of follow-up questions to further explore participants' reconstruction and evaluation of their experiences related to the methods course (Seidman, 2013). The interviews were no longer than 1 h in length and took place within a month of the conclusion of the course. All interviews were audio recorded and later transcribed.

We began the process of data analysis by reading through the entire body of collected data several times. Our goal was to investigate the knowledge, understandings, and skills for teaching big ideas that the participants had at the conclusion of the elementary social studies methods course. Our analysis of pre-service teachers' development draws on the theories of Shulman (1986) and Grant (2003) concerning the types of knowledge that teachers need in order to engage their students in meaningful learning. Shulman identifies three important domains of teacher content knowledge, which he argues deserve attention in teacher preparation: (a) subject matter content knowledge, (b) pedagogical content knowledge, and (c) curricular knowledge.

According to Shulman, *subject matter content knowledge* involves knowing the various ways in which concepts and principles of a discipline might be organized to incorporate facts. Additionally, it entails familiarity with the manner in which knowledge is constructed and evaluated within a discipline. Grant (2003) adds that subject matter knowledge includes an understanding of the value that a subject area might hold for students' lives. Shulman uses the term *pedagogic content knowledge* to refer to an understanding of how to best represent and convey content in order to make it comprehensible to the learner. This includes a solid awareness of the preconceptions, misconceptions, and naïve conceptions that students of varying

ages and backgrounds might bring to their study and the most fruitful approaches to teaching for conceptual change. Additionally, Grant claims that teachers need to understand that their students are capable of more than they and most others believe them to be. Finally, Shulman states that *curricular knowledge* denotes knowledge of the range of programs designed to teach the subject area, related materials available, and the criteria by which these might be evaluated for selection and use. Grant asserts that teachers must also know how to make space for meaningful instruction even in environments that do not support or reward such efforts.

While the types of teacher knowledge that Shulman (1986) and Grant (2003) identify are certainly not all inclusive, they provide a useful analytic lens for making sense of the growth pre-service teachers do or do not experience as a result of their professional preparation. We employed these conceptions of teacher knowledge in our evaluation of the influence of one elementary social studies methods course on participants' ability to teach social studies for big ideas. We organized all relevant data into three main categories: subject area knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and curricular/contextual knowledge. Within each of these broad categories we created "substantive codes" (e.g. "perceived barriers to big ideas social studies" and "awareness of failure to address big idea") to help us highlight themes that emerged from the pre-service teachers' work and words (Maxwell, 2012). In addition to determining predominant areas of proficiency, we gave careful attention to what participants did not—or struggled to—say, explain, and demonstrate.

Findings

The findings of this study are organized into three parts. First, we examine the participants' subject area knowledge by providing evidence of what they understand about big ideas as a way of organizing social studies content. We also give accounts of the participants' conceptions of the purpose that big ideas within a social studies curriculum might serve. The second section focuses on pedagogical content knowledge, in particular the skills that the pre-service teachers demonstrated to make big ideas comprehensible to young learners. The final section reports on the participants' curricular/contextual knowledge concerning barriers that might inhibit elementary educators from teaching to big ideas in social studies.

Subject Area Knowledge

When asked in interviews to explain what a social studies big idea is, the pre-service teachers each provided an explanation that was consistent with the conceptualization offered in the methods course. Emma claimed that a big idea is "an overarching theme or question that you want your students to explore over the course of several weeks of lessons." Adam understood a big idea to be a question "that you strive to

answer your whole life” and that defies a “simple answer.” Kim used the term “core understanding” and asserted that a big idea “could be summed up in a couple words.” Often the pre-service teachers defined a big idea by explaining its relationship to social studies concepts, topics or facts. Kim explained, “there might be like four things that you are talking about—four events or four topics—and you would find your big idea from those topics. So you would pull something from each of those that would create the overarching theme.” Similarly, Sophia claimed that when planning social studies instruction, “you have to understand how you are going to lay out the concepts, how you are going to bring those down into topics and how you are going to lay out those topics for the students to understand the concepts and the big idea.” Claims of this sort suggest that the pre-service teachers had at least a theoretical understanding of big ideas and their relationship to more specific social studies content.

Understanding the Purpose of Big Ideas

The pre-service teachers frequently emphasized that big ideas helped social studies teachers avoid teaching disparate facts devoid of meaning. Sharon explained, “I picture it [a big idea] as an umbrella... There are lots of facts in lessons, but we are trying to get away from focusing on those sole facts and pull really meaningful information from those facts.” Kim remarked, “I feel like without the big idea you are just spewing facts.” According to Emma, “big ideas are a way to teach required facts and connect them to students’ lives.” Adam expressed, “Rather than, ok, I’ve got to do this, this, and this, at least if I pick my topic and have my idea, I can say, ‘Ok I need to cover this. Here is my idea. What under here should I talk about? What do I think is important?’” These remarks indicate that pre-service teachers understand big ideas as a way to bring order and focus to the many facts that could be part of a social studies curriculum. They also seem to believe that big ideas give teachers increased curricular control. In other words, big ideas are a way to bridge the gap between what a teacher might believe is an important understanding and the content a curriculum might stipulate. These pre-service teachers recognize that they will likely be required to teach about certain facts and topics, but they can choose for themselves which big ideas to focus on and how to teach specific content in support of these ideas.

While the participants understood in theory how a big idea might serve to incorporate social studies facts and thereby organize a curriculum, they did not find it easy to apply this understanding. As they worked to plan lessons and units for course assignments, the pre-service teachers were required to complete a big idea graphic organizer to demonstrate their understanding of the structure of knowledge involved in their lessons. Without exception, each of them needed assistance not only in identifying and differentiating between big ideas, concepts, topics, and facts but also in crafting related objectives. Even on the summative assessment, all but three of the participants demonstrated some confusion as they sought to plot out the structure of knowledge for their social studies unit redesign. Some misidentified

specific topics as abstract concepts and others struggled to identify which concepts were most salient to their big idea. Even with a general understanding of the structure of knowledge, the pre-service teachers found it difficult to apply this understanding to new content.

When discussing the purpose of teaching big ideas in social studies, the participants explained—with varying degrees of clarity—that a focus on big ideas has value beyond simply organizing a curriculum. Sharon asserted that, “a big idea is really meaningful for students,” while Lauren remarked that big ideas make content “relevant to students’ lives.” These claims were left somewhat vague and begged the question: meaningful and relevant how? All but one interviewee expressed that big ideas could assist teachers in connecting social studies content to students’ lives, but again it was not always clear what this meant. Several participants asserted that big ideas should address cultural universals to ensure that all students would have some experience with the concepts being examined. Emma argued that a big idea could “connect content to today’s society.” Her comment implies that a big idea should assist students in understanding their present world in new way. Emma modeled this well in her lesson focused on the big idea “social class affects daily life in all societies,” which invited students to consider the impact of social class on ancient Egyptians and modern-day Americans.

Two of the pre-service teachers made more substantive claims about the ultimate purpose of social studies for big ideas. Sophia asserted that big ideas and essential questions “have students formulate opinions about what they are learning to better themselves and to be better to people around them.” Lanie claimed, “If they are learning it in this way, they will be better people because of it. They will be questioning these things throughout their lives. The ultimate goal is to make them better citizens through it.” Both of these participants recognize the role that a curriculum focused on big ideas might play in preparing students for reasoned personal and social decision making.

Understanding the Purpose of Big Ideas for Specific Lessons

Analysis of the lesson plans, which each pre-service teacher planned and taught, revealed differences in their clarity of purpose. While, 95 % of the participants successfully identified a big idea as the focus of their lesson, only 68 % of the participants crafted big ideas that made clear connections between content and students’ lives. Even fewer, 47 % of the pre-service teachers, made a strong case in their rationale for how the identified big idea would benefit their students. One of these participants, Amy, planned her lesson around the idea that “humans rely on natural resources to meet their basic needs, and therefore, must use them responsibly.” In her rationale she argued that students need a basic understanding of natural resources in order “to protect our environment and the resources we need to live.” She also wrote that through the lesson she wanted her students to consider conservation “methods that they will probably actually utilize in the future.” By contrast to Amy, 53 % of the pre-service teachers struggled to clearly articulate how the related

understanding would be of value to their students. Adam, for example, taught his lesson around the big idea, “people have symbols for things they think are important.” In his rationale, he argued that symbols are a cultural universal and therefore could be “meaningful” to all students, but he did not specify *how* an understanding of symbols might actually be useful or meaningful for his students. Under developed rationales, such as Adam’s suggest that even when a pre-service teacher has beliefs about the purpose of teaching to big ideas, it can be difficult to clarify and articulate this purpose with relation to specific social studies content.

Pedagogical Content Knowledge

In addition to forming beliefs about the purpose of teaching big ideas, pre-service teachers need to learn how to enact social studies curriculum aimed at such ideas. In other words, they must be able to facilitate the examination of a big idea in a manner that is comprehensible to young learners. The lesson plan assignment in the methods course served as an opportunity for pre-service teachers to practice engaging students in the investigation of a big idea. Analysis of all the materials related to this assignment—including the big idea graphic organizer, lesson plan, video recording of the enacted lesson, and reflective commentary—revealed patterns in the pre-service teachers’ skill development. Although all but one of the pre-service teachers were able to identify a big idea to serve as the basis of their lessons, the participants varied considerably in the extent to which they treated their big idea as a focal point in their enacted lesson.

Making Big Ideas the Focus of Instruction

At one end of the spectrum were those pre-service teachers whose big idea statements were essentially ornamental. While a big idea was identified on the lesson plan, it was not stated in the enacted lesson. These participants did not pose the essential question to their students at any point during the lesson, nor did they sufficiently assess students’ understanding of the big idea. For example, Lauren was asked to teach a fourth grade lesson on the experience of young women who worked in the nineteenth century Lowell Mills. She chose the big idea “Individual choices come with positive and negative outcomes.” Conceivably, Lauren selected this big idea, because it could focus students on the complexity of decision making and allow them to consider how this reality is reflected in their own lives. Within her enacted lesson, Lauren had students gather information from a textbook to fill out a chart with positive and negative outcomes for women who chose to work in the Mills. These lists were then collected as an assessment. Neither Lauren nor her students made any statements within the lesson that resembled the big idea. There was no discussion of the applicability of the big idea to the students’ lives. The facts, which were supposed to be in support of the big idea, ultimately became the focus

of the lesson. This can be seen most clearly in the lesson assessment, which only produced data on students' knowledge of facts.

Kim's first grade lesson—focused on the big idea “Fulfilling roles and respecting others will help groups succeed”—exemplifies the other end of the spectrum. This lesson had three activities: (1) a reading and whole class discussion of a picture book, (2) a discussion of the roles that are played in their classroom, and (3) a small group project and a whole class debrief. At the beginning of the lesson, Kim announced, “Today we are going to learn what it takes for people to work well in a group.” Throughout each stage of her lesson, she repeatedly posed some variation of her essential question to students. She asked, “What did you do to help your group work better together? What would happen if one person in the group didn't do their part? What's one thing you should remember when you work in a group?” As students discussed the picture book or debriefed their group work, Kim kept the focus on the big idea at all times, tying each student's contribution back to it. Finally, her assessment asked students to explain how roles and respect help people work in groups and, not surprisingly, demonstrated that most students had a firm grasp of the big idea.

While not all of the pre-service teachers were as successful as Kim at emphasizing a big idea through their lessons, many of them were aware that this was an area for growth in their teaching. For example, in her reflection Katie wrote, “I wish I had addressed and embedded the big idea into my lesson more because students were weakest across the board in the ‘students will understand’ portion of my exit slip.” She further reflected, “I should have spent a little more time pointing back to the big idea throughout the lesson rather than just touching on it briefly at the beginning.” Lanie wrote, “I could have been more explicit with my instruction of the big idea. If I were to teach this lesson again, I would explicitly tell the students the big idea of the lesson so that they see the purpose more clearly.” Such remarks suggest that many of the pre-service teachers underestimated how deliberate and sustained their attention to big ideas needed to be. Some participants were also aware that they had not adequately assessed their students' understanding within their lesson. Katerina said of her lesson assessment, “Reflecting back on it, I don't really think that just the graphic organizer would let me know if they grasped the big idea. I got that from my conversations with the students. If I was going to teach it again, I would do a different kind of assessment.” Such reflections indicate that some of the participants better understood the complexity of teaching to a big idea and gained an increased awareness of the specific strategies that can advance this effort.

Using Big Ideas to Connect Content to Students' Lives

In keeping with the claims made in interviews, most of the pre-service teachers evidenced through their practice an awareness that social studies content must be connected to students' experiences in order for it to hold any meaning for them. All but two participants made some type of connection within their enacted lessons to different aspects of their students' lives. Some of these connections were inspired

by the identified big idea and so had potential to assist students in understanding their world in a new, more sophisticated way. For instance, Katerina chose the big idea, “Communities need leaders and laws that all citizens will follow in order to live successfully and safely together” as the focus of her lesson. She discussed local regulations for traffic lights and stop signs with her students as an example of laws that help ensure the safety of the community. In her commentary she reflected, “My students were able to further grasp the concepts of laws and leaders largely in part of the connection to their background knowledge and previous experiences of passing through their town with their parents and seeing stop signs and stop lights.” Katerina purposefully chose aspects of students’ lived experiences to reference and analyze in order to advance their understanding of a big idea.

Some of the connections made by the pre-service teachers between content and their students’ experiences were not as clearly linked to advancing the stated big idea. Alice, for instance, showed a music video of a modern interpretation of the Declaration of Independence set to the tune of a song that was popular among her students. Katie made comparisons between latitude and longitude lines and the game Battleship, which students often played in her host classroom. While these connections might have temporarily enhanced student interest or made content more comprehensible, they did not serve the function of enhancing students’ understanding of a big idea.

In their interviews, the pre-service teachers cite the lesson plan assignment as particularly important in their process of learning to teach social studies for big ideas. For instance, Sharon claimed, “I probably personally benefitted more from the assignment where we went into the field and I was able to teach it myself. . . . When I was actually able to do it in the field, I just took away so much more from that.” Several participants mentioned that the formative feedback they received on their lesson plan draft was critical to their related growth. They also articulated that the opportunity to enact the lesson plan had a significant impact on their self efficacy related to teaching big ideas. By contrast, the unit plan assignment that did not require the pre-service teachers to enact what they planned was apparently not as useful to them. Kim explained, “This unit was not put into practice. Because it was not put into practice, you can’t really feel what it feels like to teach it. Lesson plans are lesson plans, but without the outcome, I have no idea if it was effective.” Such comments point to the importance of opportunities to practice teaching big ideas in real school contexts if pre-service teachers are to develop the requisite knowledge and skills.

Curricular/Contextual Knowledge

An important component of the teacher knowledge needed to enact social studies for big ideas is an understanding of the various barriers that make this type of teaching rare in elementary classrooms and of the strategies that might be used to circumvent these barriers. Without this knowledge even a pre-service teacher with strong beliefs about the purpose of teaching big ideas and the skills to teach such

curriculum will not likely organize social studies in this way if their school environment presents related obstacles. Eighty-nine percent of the interviewees reported that they did not observe instruction aimed at big ideas in their field experience. Sharon explained, “I thought that I saw some big ideas but nothing was really done with them. The ideas would be on the surface but then it would just be like, ‘Get your textbook out and do this worksheet,’ and nothing else was done with it.” Reports of this nature led us to question participants about the factors they believed discouraged teachers from teaching to big ideas.

Understanding Barriers to Social Studies for Big Ideas

The pre-service teachers ranged in their ability to provide a robust explanation for the absence of attention to big ideas that they witnessed in their field experiences. First and foremost, they blamed the marginalization of social studies generally in elementary classrooms. Katerina put it simply when she asserted, “most schools are not teaching social studies much. It’s hard to teach social studies to big ideas if you are not teaching social studies.” While this was indeed a problematic reality in most of their field placements, it does not sufficiently explain why the small amount of social studies they were able to observe was not organized around big ideas. An only slightly more useful explanation was the claim that teachers might choose not to plan curriculum around big ideas simply because it is less complex and less time consuming to teach more traditional lessons. Sophia hypothesized that her mentor teacher did not teach to big ideas because this approach was “more like a recent idea.” This, of course, is simply untrue.

Some of the pre-service teachers seemed to have a better understanding of the contextual factors that might inhibit social studies for big ideas. Over half of the interviewees discussed the difficulties inherent in teaching to big ideas when utilizing textbooks and meeting curricular requirements that do not support this type of instruction. Katerina explained,

When your school wants your students to know these specific things, then it is hard to relate it to a big idea.... In the perfect world if you could just come up with your own curriculum, it would be great. You could just come up with the big ideas and give the information to support it. But trying to align your own way of teaching it and what the school wants them to know is difficult.

Similarly, Harriet claimed, “I think sometimes textbooks aren’t organized around big ideas, so it is hard to incorporate that if your school requires use of the textbook.” Several of the pre-service teachers admitted that they still had significant questions about how to navigate these constraints. Emma said she was struggling with the question, “How do you format your curriculum around a big idea if you already have a set curriculum that you are working with?” Harriet asserted, “I think that my major question would be how can I teach big ideas but still use the textbook and the curriculum scripted out by either your school curriculum or the textbook company?” Such questions suggest that the pre-service teachers view textbooks and

curriculum requirements as significant obstructions to teaching big ideas—perhaps more significant than a practicing teacher might perceive them to be—and feel that they lack sufficient knowledge and skills to navigate these barriers. These questions might also indicate how little agency the pre-service teachers feel they have to structure social studies curriculum in meaningful ways.

One third of the participants cited co-planning among grade-level elementary teachers as a barrier to teaching for big ideas. These pre-service teachers observed quite a bit of co-planning in their field experiences and wondered how this might impact their ability to plan and teach around big ideas. Kim reported, “My cooperating teacher never makes a unit on her own.” Emma made the similar claim, “In the 6th grade placement I was in...they had a social studies curriculum, and they had to follow the textbook. I don’t know that the teacher would have been able to get enough of the other teachers on her team on her bandwagon to revamp the curriculum.” Harriet explained, “I think that if you had a team of teachers it might be difficult to say, ‘OK we need to plan around big ideas,’ because some teachers might not have been trained that way and might be hesitant to plan like that.” These comments reveal that pre-service teachers do not expect other teachers they might co-plan with to be knowledgeable or even positive about teaching social studies to big ideas. They express doubts about the degree of autonomy or agency they will have as teachers to pursue this kind of curriculum.

Navigating Barriers to Social Studies for Big Ideas

Whether or not the interviewees were able to identify and explain barriers to social studies for big ideas, they had little to say about the concrete strategies they might employ to circumvent these barriers. Nevertheless, most of them claimed that they intended to organize social studies around big ideas in their future classrooms. Only two interviewees expressed any doubt about enacting this curricular approach in the future. Additionally, most expressed the belief that teaching social studies for big ideas *is* a realistic practice for elementary classrooms. Three interviewees tempered this claim a bit by citing again some of the contextual constraints that they believed make teaching to big ideas an only somewhat realistic endeavor.

Conclusions

The purpose of redesigning the methods course described in this chapter was to strengthen the participants’ ability to plan and enact meaningful social studies curriculum for their students. A modest but significant body of theoretical and empirical scholarship has made the case that teaching social studies to big ideas can assist teachers in selecting and organizing content so as to maximize its applicability to students’ lives (Alleman et al., 2010; Alleman & Brophy, 2010; Libresco, 2005, 2007; McTighe & Wiggins, 2013; Obenchain et al., 2011; Virgin, 2014). However,

teaching to big ideas is a complex endeavor that requires a range of knowledge, understandings, and skills. The data produced by this study indicate which aspects of teaching to big ideas the redesigned methods course addressed adequately and which aspects need to be attended to in different ways.

The findings suggest that participants in this study generally understood what a big idea is and how such an idea could be used to organize social studies concepts, topics and facts. The big idea graphic organizer was a useful tool in promoting this development. However, when faced with new social studies content, many of the pre-service teachers struggled to organize it under a big idea appropriate for young learners. These difficulties appear linked to unfamiliarity with the content itself. While the pre-service teachers were encouraged to independently develop their content knowledge when planning lessons and units, this exhortation was insufficient. Interestingly, many of the pre-service teachers did not acknowledge their own limitations in content knowledge, either because they were unaware of or did not feel comfortable revealing them.

The social studies methods class should create a safe space for pre-service teachers to identify gaps in their content knowledge and learn how to address them. Pre-service teachers would likely benefit from explicit modeling of the process for developing content knowledge relevant to teaching big ideas. For instance, a course instructor might demonstrate through a think-aloud how a teacher, who is required to teach specific facts about the American Revolution, might choose to teach to a big idea about causes common to all revolutions. The instructor could model how to research causes of revolutions and how to learn about a recent or ongoing revolution to explore with students as a compliment to a study of the American Revolution. This type of modeling would be a valuable addition to the demonstration of learning activities, which is more typical in methods courses.

The results of this study support the intuitive assumption that opportunities to enact social studies for big ideas in real school settings are critical to pre-service teachers' development of related understandings and skills. The lesson plan assignment was especially beneficial to the pre-service teachers because it involved an ungraded revision process prior to the teaching event and a thorough reflection exercise afterward. At the same time, their work revealed several ways that this assignment might be strengthened. Generally the pre-service teachers had a useful understanding of the purpose of teaching social studies to big ideas, yet some of their claims were vague and underdeveloped. Through the revision of drafted lesson and unit plans, pre-service teachers should be challenged to think further about and articulate the value that the content of their lessons has for students' lives. It is often through discussion with the course instructor and with each other that their thinking becomes clearer.

Since the participants in this study varied in the degree to which the big idea served as the focus of their instruction, it might be useful to ask pre-service teachers to self assess the attention they gave to the big idea as they review their video recorded instruction and their students' work. Additionally, pre-service teachers should be encouraged to evaluate how well their enacted curriculum helped students' understand their lived experience in a new or fuller way. In other words, pre-service

teachers should be encouraged to use assessment results to determine how well this learning demonstrates increased understanding related to the stated big idea. They should consider the question: According to my assessment results, how well do my students understand the relevance of the big idea to their lives?

In order to teach big ideas, educators must be aware of the barriers to this kind of curriculum and possess the skills to navigate these. Too many of the participants in this study were unable to identify obstructions to teaching for big ideas, suggesting that more explicit attention to these barriers is necessary. Pre-service teachers might be asked to investigate these barriers more fully in their field experiences through observation and mentor teacher interviews. Their findings could be brought back to class meetings for group discussion.

Those pre-service teachers who were able to identify common institutional and contextual barriers to teaching for big ideas often struggled to provide clear ideas for how to overcome these barriers. In their discussion of curricular and co-planning constraints the participants shared the perception that teachers have little control over what is taught or how it is taught. The previously mentioned strategy, of a course instructor modeling how to teach content dictated by a school curriculum or by co-planned units in ways that organize the required content around big ideas of their choosing, could help address this perception. Pre-service teachers should be given opportunities to adapt and reorganize curriculum in use in their field experiences around big ideas, perhaps ideally as a collaborative effort with classmates to simulate the co-planning process. Our hope is that more deliberate attention to this oft ignored but essential element of teacher knowledge will strengthen pre-service teachers' abilities and sense of agency to promote meaningful social studies instruction in their future classrooms.

Overall, we are encouraged by the results of this inquiry into the influence of one social studies methods course on pre-service elementary teachers' ability to plan and enact social studies curriculum around big ideas. The outcomes reveal gains on the part of the participants along with key areas for improvement. In this way the findings have important implications for social studies teacher educators who desire to rethink their social studies methods courses to better prepare their pre-service teachers to provide meaningful relevant social studies for their students.

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Chapter 6

Rooting the Literacies of Citizenship: Ideas That Integrate Social Studies and Language Arts in the Cultivation of a New Global Mindset

Debby Shulsky and Elaine Y. Hendrix

The world today is constantly transforming. International borders are fading as cross-cultural communication and economic interdependence is expanding. Accordingly, a shift in the concept of community is required. Nations as individual entities remain at the forefront of economic, political, and social constructs; however, an understanding of the grander global landscape is mandated within the transformational experience of the twenty-first century world. With this colossal charge comes a need to explore the idea of globalization and how this concept impacts the education of future citizens of a more global society.

The idea of *globalization* is complex and layered with wide-ranging definitions and emphases. Positions of varied scholars present the concept as a catalyst for the development of global capitalism or universal consumerism (Agbaria, 2009; Friedman, 1999). Others critically illuminate the impact of an expanding global community on culture and the environment (Agbaria, 2009; Sklair, 2001); however, the most dominant narrative regarding globalization is driven from an economic perspective in which profit, competition, and efficiency steer decision making (Noddings, 2005; Pike, 2008).

Throughout history, education has mirrored the needs of society. In the current context of global community building, one might concur that the American education system reflects this economically driven doctrine. The “Space Race” of the past has seemingly been replaced by educational policies that support a “Race to the Global Marketplace.” As such, organizations including the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, the Carnegie Corporation of New York, and the ExxonMobil Foundation (The Foundation Center, 2012) generously fund curricula focused on science, technology, engineering, and mathematics much to the detriment of the more liberal arts curricula. The quieting of social studies, fine arts, and some aspects of language arts has jeopardized the development of a fully holistic learner (Fitchett & Heafner,

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2010; National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS], 2013b; Sabol, 2010). The loss of these curricular areas significantly limit the development of key components of citizenship education including, but not limited to critical thinking, interpersonal skills, and adaptability to changing environments. It is important to note that the absence of these imperative dispositions does not bode well for preparing a world population readied to face the global challenges of this age. To undertake such challenges, a deepened level of citizenship is required. Most recently, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) has generated the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards, a paradigm that encompasses disciplined inquiry, critical investigation, and the practice of informed action within communities (NCSS, 2013b).

The challenge of the time is the expansion of the role of national citizen to citizen of the world. The most logical forum in which this transformation occurs is within the social studies classroom. According to the National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS] (2010), the foundational purpose of the social studies curricula is, “to help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world” (p. 3). The newly adopted C3 Framework for Social Studies State Standards (2013b) extends this curricular goal by affirming that,

Advocates of citizenship education cross the political spectrum, but they are bound by a common belief that our democratic republic will not sustain unless students are aware of their changing cultural and physical environments: know the past: read, write, and think deeply; and act in ways that promote the common good. (p. 5)

To date, citizenship education has been focused, appropriately, at the national level; however, the content-segregated approach to the social studies has, in most cases, presented a fragmented view of the world (McJimsey, Ross, & Young, 2001). This approach is incomplete and serves little in the preparation of members of a global society armed with the intellectual and affective qualities required in the current complex world.

To combat this challenge, the authors of this chapter advocate the urgent need to rethink current elementary teacher education programs so that they more purposefully empower the next generation. To ground the ideas presented in this chapter the authors define, *globalization* as the interdependence and connectedness of the human condition. This definition is expansive in nature and includes *all* and *everything* that impacts humanity, including the economic health of societies, access to human rights, and treatment of the planet. This echoes Banks (2008) assertion that, “Globalization effects every aspect of communities, including beliefs, norms, values, and behaviors, as well as business and trade” (p. 132). In the end, globalization should move beyond the mere expansion of the economic marketplace and place the conditions of humanity at the forefront.

Such an enormous undertaking requires a new mindset. McIntosh (2005) reminds us that global citizenship includes qualities that “have to do with working for and preserving a network of relationships and connections across lines of difference and distinctness, while keeping and deepening a sense of one’s own identity and

integrity” (p. 23). The skills required for this balancing act between self and other are shared; however, a deep and rich “perspective consciousness” must be nurtured (Anderson, 2001; Hanvey, 1982). This is say that *global citizenship* necessitates interwoven, layered narratives. From this foundation, the habits of mind required of a global citizen are birthed, inspired by Hanvey’s Five Dimensions of global perspective, the authors articulate the habits of mind to be:

- Awakedness: Heightened sense of consciousness that illuminates the existence and complexities of the interconnections across cultural boundaries and actions that impact the common good.
- Broad-mindedness: Willingness to see and hear ideas removed from one’s personal paradigm.
- Innate contemplation: Deep reflection as a natural, initial instinct.
- Critical conviction: Deep-seated belief that is open to analytical exploration and possible evolution.

The construct of the ideas presented in this chapter are rooted in these dimensions; however, the belief of the authors is that this task is too complex and grandiose to accomplish within the confines of a single social studies classroom. The reality, as has been previously mentioned, is that social studies instruction continues to be marginalized within the elementary school setting. Within this reality, innovation is required. The message of this chapter asserts teacher education programs rethink current curricular frameworks and philosophies to reflect the integration of elementary content that cultivates the elements of a critically engaged global citizen of the twenty-first century. The authors advocate that an avenue toward this goal lies within in the design and implementation of a social studies/language arts integrated, elementary pedagogy founded in the essential literacies aligned with a globally conscious citizen.

Literacies Required of a Globally Conscious Citizen

Literacy is commonly defined as the basic ability to read and write (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). While current trends indicate a proliferation of the tag word “literacy” across academic fields (e.g. Digital Literacy), the authors surmise a need to articulate a new definition—one that encompasses a more critically synergistic treatment of the term. As such we define *literacy* as the ability to critically recognize, think, investigate, communicate, and advocate each of which are integral parts of the elements of global citizenship (Fig. 6.1).

The course design explored within this chapter is grounded in the concepts of critical literacy and pedagogies that awaken teacher candidates to inequalities and injustices in curricula and schools – a task that is inseparably from the four habits of mind required of a global citizen (Cochran-Smith, 2009; Wade, 2007). Course content is built upon the following identified literacies that are explained through examples of practice within the chapter.

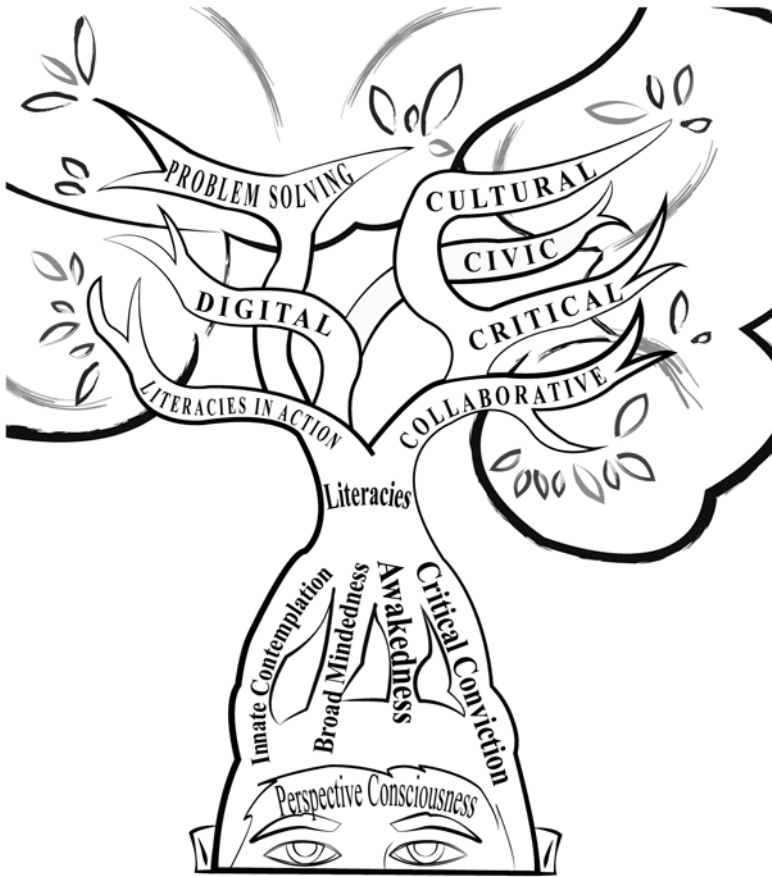


Fig. 6.1 Global Citizen art rendering by David Moya

Literacies include:

Critical Literacy – The ability to read with a critical eye is the power that fuels a citizenry readied to pose hard questions, analyze problems and solutions, and unearth the need for action.

Civic Literacy – Democracy is based on the voice of the people. It is imperative that “we the people” are informed, participatory advocates empowered to question and right inequities.

Cultural Literacy – Cultural literacy is the ability to honor the voices of cultures and their interconnectedness.

Digital Literacy – Requires the aptitude to access, apply, evaluate, integrate and synthesize varied digital tools and resources.

Collaborative Literacy – Fosters participation in interactive, collaborative contexts.

Problem-Solving Literacy – Moves beyond seeking the right answer and seeks innovative and divergent solutions to problems.

Literacies in Action – Promote an inspiration to action in order to facilitate change at the local or global level.

The authors contend that collectively, these literacies provide a channel through which the ideas and concepts of both the C3 Framework (NCSS, 2013b) and the Common Core State Standards (CCSS, 2010) integrate to develop the knowledge, skills, and abilities required of a critically thinking citizen of action. The C3 Framework (2013b) “elevates the purpose of literacy to be in the service of academic inquiry and civic action” (p. xxiii). This aligns directly with the authors’ proposed seven literacy construct as delineated in this chapter. Further support is echoed in the need for these “essential literacies” within the Common Core State Standards in which they, “specifically encourage depth of knowledge and higher order thinking, which is sorely needed in social studies, in contrast to the current tendency to favor breadth over depth, or factual minutia over understanding” (NCSS, 2013b, p. xxi). This statement is illustrative of the authors’ underlying intent to structure an elementary methods experience in literacies that encourages the habits of mind of independent, critical, reflective, and action-driven members of society. The focus of literacy, as defined by the authors and supported within the C3 and CCSS guidelines, illuminates the expansion of the disciplinary literacy in social studies, an interdisciplinary instructional approach, and the application of knowledge in real-world settings (NCSS, 2013b).

Critical Literacy

According to Coffey (2008), “Critical literacy is the ability to read text in an active and reflective manner in order to better understand, inequality, and injustice in human relationship” (p. 1). This imperative construct impacts K-16 education by commanding the integration of innovative and more in-depth approaches to literacy instruction. From this perspective, critical literacy is not a set of teaching skills or strategies, but a mindset (Mulcahy, 2011). This approach includes four dimensions: “disrupting the commonplace, interrogating multiple viewpoints, focusing on socio-political issues, and taking action and promoting social justice” (Lewison, Seely Flint, & Van Sluys, 2002, p. 382).

Critical literacy expands learners’ abilities to unearth the constructed narratives that inundate the national and global contexts. This ability requires learners to fine-tune their vision of the world of texts and language by exposing, questioning, and deconstructing the voices of the status quo. Friere and Macedo poetically state, “Reading the *word* entails reading the *world*” (in Luke, 2012, p. 5). Inseparable from this critical readership is the capacity in which learners must embrace the belief that the world is riddled with multiple layers of “truth,” challenging them to engage in deep exploration of multifarious perspectives (Lewison et al., 2002; Mulcahy, 2011). As educators guide young learners to look beyond themselves, critical literacy can be a catalyst for the discovery of the grander power structures

and institutions that socialize and influence individuals within a society. In combination, these practices provide the hope that learners will be inspired to act with the intent of exposing and transforming acts of injustice. Freire (1970/1992) articulates this as praxis – the transformation of the world through critically conscious reflection and critically informed action.

Teacher Educators are challenged to dispel the common notion that such approaches are “too difficult” for elementary learners. Readyng the next generation of educators to teach critical literacy requires exposure to learning experiences that incorporate these ideas in ways that are both practical and transformative. In an integrated methods course, the constructs of critical literacy may manifest in simple ways or more complex ways. Considerations for possible learning activities may include:

- Classroom Library Study

Teacher candidates are required to construct a classroom library that reflects the complexions, voices and experiences of a specific elementary classroom. This is accomplished by candidates’ critical analysis of an existing classroom library. This process involves examination of what is present and absent, as well as what should be included. Candidates support library selections through the construction of an annotated bibliography that justifies the inclusion of selected titles and how they might incorporate them into the social studies instruction. This activity is easily modified in contexts that are removed from actual field experiences. Instructors can pose hypothetical classroom demographics and access to public or school libraries to accomplish the same goals.

- Active Voices

In an attempt to model “writing with purpose” that personally connects with students’ interests, experiences, and realities, candidates will engage in the authorship of a children’s book that illuminates issues of social justice. Candidates begin by journaling about a time when they personally experienced or witnessed discrimination (Early, 2006). Using an electronic media tool such as Storybird (storybird.com), candidates will compose a 15-page picture book to be integrated into a social studies/language arts standards-based lesson. This project can be easily inspired by children’s literature focused on efforts to combat injustices and evoke change.

- Words are Power

Language is power. It can be inclusive or exclusive. To awaken candidates to this notion, teacher educators may create learning activities that encourage the critical interrogation of the language of commonly used school discourse, such as The Pledge of Allegiance. Walter Parker (2007) emphasizes this point by stating, “recitation without interpretation is like fishing in a dry lake” (p. 71). The dissection of the language of any document or academic vernacular with the school curriculum initiates accessibility to the language itself as well as the essence of its meaning. (An excellent example of this can be found in Mary Cowhey’s (2006) book, *black ants and buddhists*, pp. 219–221.)

Civic Literacy

Historically, the American education system has been the epicenter of citizenship development (NCSS 2013a, 2013b). Education in America has evolved over time. We have progressed through “eras” of philosophy that were deeply influenced by the zeitgeist of the period; however, regardless of the focus, the ultimate goal of schools was to produce Americans ready to move the country toward the dream of that age in history. In short, citizenship education parallels the national landscape in which it is occurring (Graham, 2005). In a country that depends upon an informed “we the people,” the ideal of democracy is hinged upon the education of the individual (NCSS, 2010). Holistically, the schoolhouse is ideally a place where the youth of America begin to experience democratic ways of being. More specifically, the social studies classroom can be the home of focused exploration of the ideals, practices, and skills of a civically-minded person; however within the current *educational landscape* the attention to this imperative has begun to erode (NCSS, 2013a; NCSS, 2013b). Teitelbaum (2011) states, “... civic knowledge, skills, and dispositions has withered in the midst of the panic for increasing reading and mathematics test scores and preparation of the workplace” (p. 16). The authors contend that within the current global landscape, critical civic literacy must be urgently taught *across* the disciplines because it is irrevocably intertwined with role of global citizen.

According to Westheimer and Kahne (2004) citizenship can be framed within three typologies: (1) Personally Responsible Citizen; (2) Participatory Citizen; and (3) Justice-Oriented Citizen. The distinction of each of the roles is aligned to the scope of involvement of an individual. Personally Responsible citizens fulfill the “distant” roles of participation, to include paying taxes, voting, and supporting charities. At the next level, a participatory citizen “moves closer” to civic activities; campaigning for a candidate in a political campaign or organizing a charity event. The Justice-Oriented citizen seeks a more systemic action focused on issues of equity and justice advocating for change. At the basic level, civic literacy means being learned in the knowledge, skills and dispositions of socio-political processes, issues, and patterns. More deeply defined, a civically literate individual utilizes civic knowledge to become an actively-engaged citizen (Teitelbaum, 2011). Within this framework critical civic literacy lives through Participatory and Justice-Oriented citizens; therefore, it is our charge as teacher educators to facilitate learning experiences that cultivate these levels of citizenship. The foundational approach to achieve this endeavor in the classroom could look like:

- Stances for Change

To extend beyond the disposition of a Personally Responsible citizen, teacher candidates need to experience opportunities that allow them to transfer the “knowing” of civic ideals and responsibilities to the “doing” of actively-engaged citizen. The ultimate goal of such a stance is the development of a strong civic efficacy, the result of which is the empowerment of an individual who is critically convicted to enact change within the local, national, and/or global community. In

a methods course, this action-oriented mindset can be expressed through the creation of issue-based projects in which teacher candidates: (1) identify an issue that compels change, as inspired by an observed learning community need; (2) research the identified need including data gathering and analysis; and (3) create an action plan to be presented to stakeholders who can impact the desired change. The design of such an activity must be grounded in what Serriere (2014) refers to as the “curriculum for life,” which centers curriculum on the passions and experiences of the learner.

Cultural Literacy

Historically, the concept of cultural literacy has been attributed to the scholar, E. D. Hirsch, who defines it as the learning of an American canon of knowledge (Hirsch, 1988). This frame is exclusive and possesses no connection to the idea of expanding the cultural awareness and interconnectedness required of a learner who is culturally literate in this global age; therefore the authors reclaim this term as the learners’ ability to be able to hear and honor the voices of all cultures, and seek out the interconnectedness, both visible and invisible, across cultural borders.

Erickson (2007) suggests that culture is a “human toolkit,” allowing the navigation of the many cultural contexts one may inhabit. It is a layered notion in which individuals can hold membership within varied cultural communities, increasing the complexity of their cultural identity. These multi-dimensional affiliations provide avenues for meaningful, cross-cultural connection and understanding. The possible blurring of cultural distinctions, coupled with the technology-rich world in which learners can be connected with the click of a button to others beyond their immediate contexts, requires a *substantive* approach to teaching culture. This instantaneous access to the vast array of cultural communities around the world dictates that learners’ possess a knowledge base regarding culture that moves beyond the typical, superficial cultural show and tell (Kirkwood, Shulsky, & Willis, 2013). The habits of mind compulsory for this deepened approach to cultural learning includes the abilities to: (1) zoom out from one’s personal cultural vision to incorporate larger contexts (e.g. *my world* to the world *beyond* my town, state, nation); (2) develop a *perspective consciousness* that enables understanding of different viewpoints as driven by cultural beliefs and norms; (3) analyze cross-cultural similarities and differences; and (4) navigate unavoidable cultural clashes with positive and productive results (Merryfield, 2010; NCSS, 2010). Learning grounded in the cultivation of these thinking routines aligns with the purpose of the National Council for the Social Studies standard on Culture which articulates, “By recognizing various cultural perspectives, learners become capable of understanding diverse perspectives, thereby acquiring the potential to foster more positive relations and interactions with diverse people within our own nation and other nations” (NCSS p. 26).

For many teacher candidates their own cultural education has been taught through a “textbook journey” of compartmentalized continents. These disjointed cultural

tours often include “cultural sound bytes” of exotic and well-known facts about a country and the unique customs of the people residing there. This approach fails to make connections across cultures and dishonors the diversity of many cultures across the globe calling teacher educators to find more meaningful ways in which to model more authentic cultural experiences that shape the mindset of global citizens (Kirkwood et al., 2013). Ideas in how this can be done may include:

- **Interplanetary Intercultural Investigative Team:**
Open the classroom door to the world through Web-Cams (e.g. Earth Cam <http://www.earthcam.com/>). View distant locales that allow learners to observe the world in real-time. After teacher candidates explore assigned or varied locales they will, from the perspective of someone from another planet, generate queries, observations, and assumptions about the culture of the place. Research will then be done that includes a cultural and historical profile of the place. As members of the Interplanetary Investigative team, candidates will compose a narrative that incorporates the place as the setting and the profile as the inspiration for the plot, character development, etc., with the goal of teaching the children of their home planet about the culture of the place the team explored.
- **Read Aloud Podcasts:**
Build a partnership with another teacher education class removed from your state/province/region. Candidates create a podcast that integrates reading stories that present cultural insight into teacher candidates’ individual culture or the local culture in which the college resides.

Digital Literacy

Digital literacy can be defined as “...the awareness, attitude, and ability of individuals to appropriately use digital tools and facilities to identify, access, manage, integrate, evaluate, analyze, and synthesize digital resources, construct new knowledge, create media expressions, and communicate with others, in the context of specific life situations, in order to enable constructive social actions and to reflect upon this process” (Martin & Grudziecki, 2006). This complex definition clearly aligns with the global perspective of a content-integrated curriculum espoused by the authors, as they unequivocally advocate the need for strong critical, digital literacy skills required of the new generation of citizen.

The essence of digital literacy is fundamentally dependent upon one’s ability to productively traverse and interact with the ever-expanding information highway; however, closely related to and, essentially, interconnected with such *digital* competence is the concept of *media literacy*. While this latter construct was not initially the primary focus of this section of the chapter, its synchronous relationship with digital literacy forces its acknowledgement as yet another twenty-first century skill that is needed for living and working in “media- and information-rich societies” that are responsible for nurturing and shaping global citizen (Hobbs, 2010). While

digital literacy encompasses more the personal, technological, and intellectual skills that are needed to live and succeed in a digital world, media literacy is more aligned with a critical investigation of the multimodal forms of mass media. While this process encompasses digital technologies, it also includes an acknowledgement of individuals as both producers and consumers of media content, with an accompanying understanding of the resulting social, political, and cultural shifts that ultimately occur (Hobbs). Since both of these constructs are still relatively new, particularly to the educational landscape, definitions and interpretations continue to evolve; nevertheless, the notion of critical literacy continues to be deeply embedded in this conjoined mindset.

When considering what digital (and media) literacies look like in the teacher education classroom, one primary consideration is the fact that today's K – 16 classrooms tend to be populated more with “digital natives” than “digital immigrants” (Prensky, 2001). As such, the traditional forms of instruction (e.g., lecture and “skill-drill-kill”) must be replaced with more relevant, engaging, and real-world learning activities that could include:

- **Meaningful Use of Technology**

Although, a majority of teacher candidates today are *digital natives*, it cannot be assumed that they can identify and meaningfully integrate appropriate technology into the elementary curriculum. Candidates require exposure to activities that illuminate the vast array of web-based tools and applications that can be utilized to more successfully reach the digital native within their future classroom. To accomplish this, candidates will research and select a current educational technology application and design an electronic bulletin board using Glogster (<http://edu.glogster.com/>) that presents a description of the selected tool accompanied by a social studies standards-based classroom activity that utilizes language art content.

- **Dissecting Media**

The current generation is bombarded with massive amounts of media in a variety of forms. Teacher candidates must be exposed to activities that require the critical examination of this wide array of media, which includes print, visual, and digital formats (e.g. newspapers, television/film, and websites, respectively). Varied activities for each of these categories consist the analysis of a current event from varied perspectives (print media), critical exploration of hidden messages within popular children's movies and television shows (visual media), and analysis of varied web-based content for validity and perspective of the source (digital media).

Problem-Solving Literacy

The population of the world is growing, natural resources are diminishing and technological advancements are posing grander possibilities alongside complex questions. Such global developments provide clues to the complexity of future problems. Sir Ken Robinson reminds us that challenges ahead will be “really new, and we're going to need every ounce of ingenuity, imagination, and creativity to

confront these problems (Azzam, 2009, p. 23). Accordingly, twenty-first century problem-solving will be more cognitively demanding due, in part, to the cross-curricular, multifaceted content and more complex learning contexts encountered in the new era of globalization.

Trends in some educational settings report the narrowing of curricula, which, in turn, places creative thinking at risk (Berliner, 2011). With this as a possible reality, teacher educators are called to move beyond the traditional classroom activity of merely seeking the right answer and forge ahead toward the creation of learning environments that integrate and incorporate real-world, problem-solving opportunities. The National Research Council states, “As the need for skilled problem-solvers is constantly growing, the educational capacity to prepare students for the workforce of the global society has largely remained the same” (as cited in Antonenko, Jahanzad, & Greenwood, 2014, p. 79). According to a recent report in *American School and University* (2013), students today require more experience in real-world problem solving—a mandatory 21st century skill—in order to effectively deal with the demands and pressures of the global age and become successful, contributing, and productive members of society. In response to this “gap” between the need for able, creative problem-solvers and existing pedagogy, the authors contend that it is the responsibility of the teacher educator to spearhead change by providing teacher candidates with the knowledge, tools, and experiences required to facilitate this demanded instructional transformation.

While multiple sources (Antonenko et al., 2014; Marzano, 2014), have proposed models designed to guide students through the problem-solving process, the essential elements of each tend to be similar: (1) assess the “lay of the land” in order to determine any imbalance; (2) identify the problem or issue to be addressed; (3) consider the possibilities toward resolution and ascertain the preferable result; (4) determine a plan of attack or course of action; (5) set the plan in motion; and (6) evaluate the outcome and determine subsequent action. One such framework that meets these requirements and goals is Project Based Learning (PBL), a student-driven, teacher-facilitated inquiry approach to education in which learners pursue knowledge by asking questions that have piqued their natural curiosity (Bell, 2010). Given the real-world focus to create independent thinkers and learners, many inquiries are science-based or originate from current social problems and include reading, writing, and/or math by nature, thus resulting in an inherent “fit” for the content-integrated classroom.

Problem solving as a literacy is innate within the more content-rich literacies (e.g. civic literacy). It is the vehicle by which learners are continuously immersed in thinking through complex issues and designing creative solutions and/or actions. As such, many, if not all of the ideas of practice explored thus far in this chapter can be viewed as exercises in developing the *habit* of creative problem solving. An example of an activity that builds teacher candidates’ inter-curricular problem-solving abilities is

- Teaching Dilemma Action Plan

Teacher candidates will: (1) identify a teaching dilemma (from the field) regarding instruction in social studies/language arts and pose a research wondering;

- (2) research current literature to gain knowledge and resolutions to their query;
- (3) create a plan of action based on the new learning and insights from literature;
- (4) implement the plan; (5) collect data relevant to the plan; and (6) reflect on the outcome of the plan enacted.

Collaborative Literacy

In the face of the modern workplace, the next generation will be required to work not only as effective problem-solvers, but also, and often concurrently, in teams across physical and technological boundaries. This forces a new paradigm in how work is accomplished. Jerald (2009) states, “The biggest change in the American workplace is the massive increase in *horizontal* collaboration” (p. 14). Such collaboration places workers in teamwork situations that are both global and virtual requiring the abilities of self-management, autonomous action and effective, creative communication skills (Jerald). This demands the need for a shift in how education cultivates the skills of rich collaboration. For K-12 classrooms, such an endeavor warrants teaching methods that cultivate collaborative dispositions as its foundational methodology.

Across disciplines, the literature supports the need for collaborative, partnership alliances as evidenced through the Digital Learning Standards for Students (International Society for Technology in Education, 2007). Prensky, in his book *Teaching Digital Natives: Partnering for Real Learning* (2010), echoes this assertion when he shares responses from nearly a thousand students representing all economic, social, intellectual, and age strata worldwide as to what they desire from their public education experiences. Among the most telling responses were: (1) the opportunity to connect with peers around the world to express and share opinions and collaborate on projects; (2) the ability to make decisions and share control; and (3) the ability to follow their own interests and passions, using the “tools of their time,” to attain an “education that is not just relevant but *real*” (p. 2–3).

In order to create the desired collaborative school culture, it is imperative that teachers not only provide directives to this end, but also model and facilitate the process through their own teaching. According to Minkel (2013), students tend to pay more attention to what we do than what we say, thus emphasizing this profound truth: If we want students to *collaborate*, *innovate*, and *problem-solve*, we must model these skills through our own teaching and across content disciplines.

This notion of collaboration is clearly evidenced in the conceptual framework of the Partnership for 21st Century Skills (2011) as it describes the need for a complex collection of interrelated skills and identifies critical thinking and problem-solving, in conjunction with communication and collaboration, as vital to this process. Within this structure, the development of these skills is purposefully integrated throughout core content areas in ways that help students establish real-world relevance in their work—a characteristic identified above as central to motivation and learning. It is also important to note that teachers should not view the assimilation

of collaborative dispositions as an additional content or supplementary curriculum component but rather as a skill set to be integrated and developed across all content curricula.

Teaching is a collaborative endeavor. Teacher candidates will be involved in grade-level teams, content departments and other faculty committees. A current paradigm within schools is the presence of Professional Learning Communities (PLC). Eaker, DuFour, and DuFour (2002) remind us that:

Schools that function as professional learning communities are *always* characterized by a collaborative culture. Teacher isolation is replaced with collaborative processes that are deeply embedded into the daily life of the school. Members of a PLC are not “invited” to work with colleagues; they are called upon to be contributing members of a collective effort to improve the schools capacity to help all students learn at high levels. p. 5

Within this cooperative structure, teachers are placed in a context in which they must demonstrate the ability to self-manage, act autonomously, and practice effective communication skills. In order for teacher candidates to practice these skills, the integration of cooperative learning experiences throughout teacher education courses is vital. A specifically designed activity through which this may be emphasized is:

- **Simulated Team Meeting**

Given a scope and sequence for a specific grade level, teacher candidates will individually research and prepare possible content, activities and resources to be shared with a simulated grade-level team meeting. Within the time restrictions of an average elementary planning period (i.e. 30–45 min), candidates will collectively share individual ideas and negotiate the content and design of curriculum to be taught. Final products will be a drafted outline of a collectively-designed, week-long unit of study.

The Roots: The Four Habits of Mind

Beyond the cultivation of these literacies lay the deep roots of the four habits of mind required of a critically engaged citizen. It is important to note that these habits of mind are consistently addressed within the context of the course design. The described activities in this chapter address each of the four habits in specific ways that support the C3 Framework, as well as the Common Core State Standards. These crucial elements, alongside the seven literacies, are foundational and deeply intertwined within the essence of the course and are embedded in all that we do. For transparency of thought, the authors review each of the habits of mind and briefly discuss how each habit “lives” within the course.

- **Awakenedness:** Heightened sense of consciousness that illuminates the existence and complexities of the interconnections across cultural boundaries and actions that impact the common good. The course is founded on this notion, making

Critical Literacy the dominant literacy of the course. We spend an exorbitant amount of time exposing teacher candidates to the skills required of an “awake” reader of the world. We model language arts strategies that include close reading of text, video, and other authentic resources. Social studies curriculum is designed to seek the invisible voice in history and question the reasoning for the omission and inclusion of the participants of the mainstream social studies narrative.

- **Broad-mindedness:** Willingness to see and hear ideas removed from one’s personal paradigm. To cultivate this habit of mind, we were challenged by the introspective nature of our teacher candidates. We consistently presented experiences that pushed learners to engage in discourse removed from their own experience (i.e. *Dissecting Media/Digital Literacy*). The selected readings of the course caused learners disequilibrium as they were forced to consider alternative interpretations of teaching, learning, and content. They were often faced with classmates that challenged their reasoning and viewpoints regarding curriculum decisions and course content. (i.e., What constitutes a controversial issue?). Although these approaches are nothing new for teacher educators, our experience in the context of the integrated course was heightened. We surmise this was an effect of the continual focus on the literacies alongside the importance of the habits of mind that support them.
- **Innate contemplation:** Deep reflection as a natural, initial instinct. The cultivation of this habit of mind was integrated through the transparency of our teaching and the rigor of our feedback on the reflective activities that are the basis of the course. Innate contemplation was inseparable from the course content and lies at the foundation of all learning experiences within the class – and difficult to authentically develop. The expectation of learners was to move beyond the trite treatment of habitual reflection and consistently pursue critical, evidence-based thinking (i.e. *Teaching Dilemma Action Plan/Problem-Solving Literacy*).
- **Critical conviction:** Deep-seated belief that is open to analytical exploration and possible evolution. This habit serves as the oxygen of the course and is basis of learning. Teacher candidates are encouraged to step into the class readied to “try-on” the ideas and experiences of the course work. The persistent nature of relevant questioning from both instructors and fellow classmates required them to critically reason, consider and realign their beliefs and positionalities on varied topics (i.e. *Reciting the Pledge and treatment of holidays*). Civil discourse was modeled and demanded as a foundational skill of the course.

All of the examples of classroom practice presented in this chapter are grounded in the notion that if teacher candidates experience content-integrated courses designed around these proposed seven literacies and rooted in the four habits of mind, they can be emboldened to provide similar learning opportunities for their future students, thus cultivating the next generation of citizens readied to ardently face the complexities of the future.

It Takes a Village: Integration in the Elementary Classroom

The literacies required of global citizenship do not exist in a vacuum. That is to say that no *one* content discipline can, in isolation, profoundly develop the critical lens and skills required to be an actively engaged global citizen. Regrettably, this goal is threatened by the compartmentalization of content within the elementary school day. More specifically, social studies instruction, the foundational task of which is citizen development, is often sacrificed for content areas driven by standardized testing (Agarwal-Rangnath, 2013; NCSS, 2010). This practice causes the need to merge the essence of social studies content throughout other subject areas to insure the presence of the knowledge, skills and convictions of a critically literate individual. The belief of the authors is that this charge must start in the early years of the education of our children and innovative approaches must be generated in teacher education programs to this endeavor.

The marriage between social studies and language arts is a natural one as it provides rich opportunities for critical connection-building in young children (Agarwal-Rangnath, 2013; Melber & Hunter, 2010). This partnership moves beyond basic literacy instruction to empower children to critically question, think and act. In practice, this is *not* the mere reading of a historically based piece of literature at circle time. Likewise, it is not the regurgitation of grammatically correct responses to lower level questions. In an integrated model focused on the development of critical consciousness, literature is deeply dissected to discover inequities in voice, underlying assumptions, expressions of power and the cohesive nature of learning. The mechanics of writing are approached in real-world contexts with purpose and meaning, mirroring a more a constructivist approach that minimizes attention to the minutiae of the rules and mechanics of writing in favor of the experiential context provided by relevant writing experiences.

There is a strong case to be made for the integration of content within teacher preparation programs, specifically with respect to required instructional methods course work. Such interrelated constructs can strengthen the knowledge and skills that teacher candidates (i.e. pre-service teachers) learn in one content area and simultaneously allow them to practice those abilities in another content area, thus realizing the cross-curricular applications and real-world learning that takes place. More often than not, universities tend to favor a more traditional program track—one in which candidates take required courses in a more fragmented fashion and are then expected, during state-required field experiences and certification examinations, to be able to (1) apply what was learned in the university classroom to the K-12 classroom, and (2) to do so in a way that engages their students in relevant and meaningful learning experiences. Peterson et al. (1995) concluded that this type of track results in pre-service teachers' disjointed encounters with methods instruction.

In order to provide a more integrated learning experience for elementary teacher candidates, the authors merged two independent methods courses (language arts and social studies) into one double-blocked methods class. The rationale for this

non-traditional approach supports: (1) learning experiences that more meaningfully reflect the interrelated nature of the real-world; (2) inclusion of all content areas to combat restrictive curriculum mandates, especially regarding social studies; and (3) the development of complex thinking processes and requisite critical literacy skills required of a citizen of the world.

Rooting the Literacies

Roots of a global citizen grow from the development of a “perspective consciousness”—an awakening to multidimensional interpretations of the world (Hanvey, 1982). In the absence of this stance, citizens are void of the global awareness needed to take on the role of a Justice-Oriented citizen (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). The authors proposed vehicle for the development of such a consciousness occurs through the practice of the “elements of global citizenship”—awakenedness, broad-mindedness, innate contemplation, and critical conviction. These roots cultivate the branches of literacy as defined in this chapter, namely Critical, Civic, Culture, Digital, Problem-Solving, and Collaborative literacies, which embody Literacies in Action.

Together and separately these literacies are irrevocably connected to the development of a consciously-aware global citizen; however the potential impact of these literacies should prove to be more powerful when approached as a synergistic experience. Within the elementary setting, in which social studies (an often marginalized content area) is the primary platform for citizenship education, it is imperative that the next generation of educators embrace the idea of integrated curricula that include the literacies of a critically global citizen.

Literacies in Action for a Global Citizen

Treated as compartmentalized skills, the literacies explored in this chapter become nothing more than another “strategy,” thus defeating the “call to action” needed to address the complex challenges of globalization. The C3 Framework (NCSS, 2013a; NCSS, 2013b) reiterates this claim stating, “Active and responsible citizens identify and analyze public problems; deliberate with other people about how to define and address issues; take constructive, collaborative action; reflect on their actions; create and sustain groups; and influence institutions both large and small”(p. 19). This quote embodies many of the literacies presented within the chapter, specifically critical, problem solving, collaborative, and literacies in action. The *action* of all of the literacies is inseparable from the four habits of mind that include an “awakenedness” to problems, the broad-mindedness required of solution creation, an innate contemplation as they reflect on actions, and the critical conviction to act on their new learning.

Within the context of teacher education, the authors have presented ideas for the integration of reframed literacies as supported by the habits of mind of global citizenship. For the authors and in the context of teacher education, *literacies in action* is the translation of a literacies-infused methods experience into the K-6 classroom. The authors' ultimate hope is that the manifestation of the essence of a course grounded in the literacies required of a twenty-first century global citizen inspires their students to be agents of change.

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Part III

Rethinking Campus Connections

The on-campus experience of social studies teacher education requires prospective teachers to seamlessly integrate different forms of knowledge for teaching. At times, prospective teachers are asked to connect the disciplinary knowledge found in arts and sciences coursework with the pedagogical principles often taught in education schools. In other moments, prospective teachers are asked to make connections within the education school between different aspects of learning such as development, classroom management, and the diverse needs of learners. Without careful attention to the ways in which teacher candidates make inferences across and between each of these different settings, the experience of teacher education can be easily compartmentalized and result in teachers who lack the rich pedagogical content knowledge needed to be a powerful social studies teacher. In this section, authors explore how social studies teacher education can work collaboratively across the divisions that tend to partition the teacher education experience.

The first chapter by Journell and Tolbert describes a joint effort between the Social Studies Teacher Education program and the History Department at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. This collaboration sought to increase the pedagogical content knowledge of secondary social studies teachers. In the next chapter, Turchi and her colleagues at the University of Arizona describe how the need to strengthen the social studies content area knowledge of future elementary teachers led to the creation of two “supercourses” that combined content previously taught across eight different disciplinary courses. The chapter details how different stakeholders such as liberal arts, teacher education, community colleges and professional organizations worked together to design and implement the supercourses.

Facing the unfortunate reality of marginalization of social studies at the elementary level, Whitlock and her colleagues describe a collaborative effort with literacy faculty to redesign a year-long block of social studies and literacy methods. Arguing that the relationship between social studies and literacy must be collaborative, this chapter illustrates how social studies and literacy teacher education can be taught in ways that simultaneously serve the aims of each field. Citing the need for social studies educators to deliver powerful content to students with diverse needs,

Pellegrino and Weiss describe a unique collaboration between social studies and special education faculty at George Mason University. The authors outline the development, implementation, and outcomes of a course co-taught by faculty from these two departments. This chapter illustrates the generative potential of collaboration in social studies teacher education to address the needs of all social studies learners. The final chapter in this section by Carano and Krutka explores the power of technology to push the concept of “campus” into a digital realm. The authors in this chapter argue that digital social studies teacher education experiences hold the power to redefine both how social studies teacher learning is created and whom it is created with.

Each of the chapters in this section speak to unique efforts across different social studies teacher education programs to create experiences that work together across the various campus-based spaces where social studies teachers learn to teach. The attempts by the teacher educators in this section to break curricular silos hopefully provides the impetus to start or continue conversations on your campus within and across disciplinary departments, teacher education faculty, and global partners who all have a stake in social studies teacher education.

Chapter 7

Working Together, Not Sharing the Burden: A Collaborative Approach to Developing Pedagogical Content Knowledge with Secondary Social Studies Pre-service Teachers

Wayne Journell and Lisa C. Tolbert

The responsibilities associated with teacher preparation in the United States have historically resulted in a tumultuous relationship between Colleges of Arts and Sciences and Schools of Education on university campuses (e.g., Cochran-Smith, 2005; King, 1987; Zeichner, 1993). Broadly speaking, Colleges of Arts and Sciences are typically charged with developing pre-service teachers' knowledge of content while Schools of Education provide necessary pedagogical training. This clear separation of duties too often results in "turf wars" over which unit has greater responsibility for pre-service teacher development and, thus, has a stronger claim for ownership of licensure students.

Of greater concern, however, is that the delineation of content and pedagogy within teacher training programs creates an instructional gap that prevents pre-service teachers from being able to effectively apply their knowledge of content in classroom settings (Segall, 2004). Using Shulman's (1987) notion of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) as a guide, we make a case for the merging of content and pedagogy within teacher education programs through a description of the recently revised secondary social studies program at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro (UNCG). In this program, we offer content courses designed specifically for social studies teacher licensure candidates as well as methods courses taught within both the School of Education and the College of Arts and Sciences. We believe that these changes have strengthened our pre-service teachers' PCK and, as a result, their classroom instruction.

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Pedagogical Content Knowledge

Nearly three decades ago, Shulman (1986) delivered a presidential address at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association in which he argued for a new framework for conceptualizing teacher knowledge. Content and pedagogy, Shulman argued, should not be viewed as separate entities when assessing the skillset of teachers. Effective teachers, rather, possess a blend of content and pedagogical knowledge that is unique to teaching. The resulting notion was PCK, which is visually depicted in Fig. 7.1.

As Fig. 7.1 shows, PCK is the merging of pedagogical knowledge (PK) and content knowledge (CK). Perhaps the most obvious of these knowledge bases is CK, which is simply knowledge about the subject matter being taught and includes knowledge of relevant concepts, theories, and organizational frameworks, as well as disciplinary methods for developing such knowledge (Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Shulman, 1986). PK, on the other hand, encompasses knowledge about the practices of teaching, which includes scientific aspects about how people learn, theoretical approaches to teaching (e.g., culturally relevant pedagogy), and practical aspects of teaching such as lesson planning and classroom management (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). The resulting intersection of these two knowledge bases is PCK, which Shulman (1987) described as “the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction” (p. 8). In other words, PCK is what separates the history teacher from both the historian and the education generalist.

In the decades since Shulman’s address, his theory of PCK has become widely accepted, although the definitions of both pedagogical knowledge and content

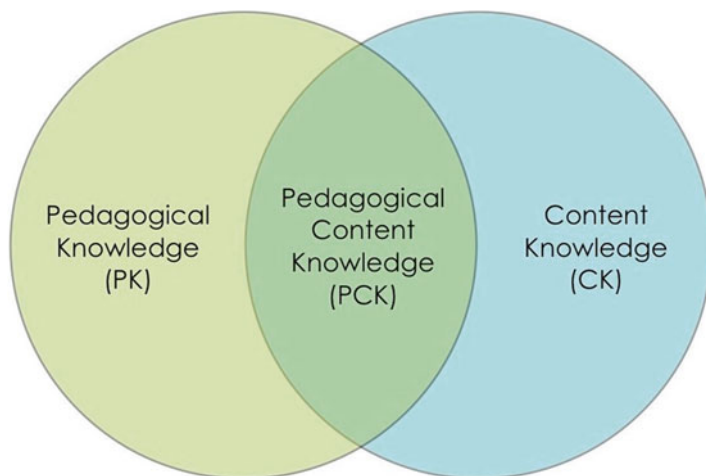


Fig. 7.1 Pedagogical content knowledge

knowledge have become more nuanced over the years (e.g., Ball, Thames, & Phelps, 2008; Mishra & Koehler, 2006), and the framework has been amended to include additional knowledge bases (e.g., Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Zembylas, 2007). Yet, many teacher education programs seemingly ignore this body of research by keeping content and pedagogy separate throughout pre-service teachers' plans of study. Too often, the only time CK and PK merge is in the subject-area methods course taught in the School of Education, which is often confined to one semester and taken near the end of the pre-service teachers' coursework, often directly before the student teaching semester. In our opinion, such an approach is inadequate for developing the PCK that is necessary for successful teaching.

As Segall (2004) noted, "for courses about content to be meaningful for prospective teachers they must learn to examine how pedagogy relates to content in the content they learn about in those courses" (p. 501). Typically, however, content courses simply provide pre-service teachers with what Ball et al. (2008) have termed *common content knowledge*, which is basic knowledge of a particular topic. Common content knowledge in history, for example, would include important factual information, as well as knowledge of the methods of historical data collection and analysis.

Common content knowledge is essential to teaching if for no other reason that one cannot teach what one does not know. Moreover, if teachers lack common content knowledge they will have difficulty making appropriate instructional decisions about content and will be forced to rely on textbooks and other instructional aids for content delivery (Bain & Mirel, 2006; Ball, 2000; Journell, 2013). Common content knowledge alone, however, is insufficient for successful teaching. Effective teachers, rather, need what Ball et al. (2008) term *specialized content knowledge*, which they define as content knowledge that is unique to teaching and situated within the domain of PCK. Specialized content knowledge requires an understanding of how content relates to students' conceptions and misconceptions about that content and how content relates to the instructional design of teaching. To use history again as an example, specialized historical content knowledge would involve understanding the processes behind thinking historically (e.g., Wineburg, 2001) as well as the challenges students face in conceptualizing historical time and performing aspects of historical thinking, such as sourcing and corroborating primary sources.

Specialized content knowledge, however, does not develop simply by combining common content knowledge with pedagogical knowledge. Rather, it needs to be modeled, practiced, and reinforced. In other words, attempting to develop pre-service teachers' specialized content knowledge within a one-semester methods course and then expecting them to enact it during student teaching is often a futile approach. A progressive sequence in which pre-service teachers learn about content and pedagogy simultaneously throughout the span of a program, both within pedagogical and content courses, would seem more logical in terms of scaffolding the development of PCK. It is only when the line between pedagogy and content becomes blurred do pre-service teachers begin thinking like social studies teachers instead of content specialists or education generalists.

Yet, within the teacher education literature there are few models of shared development of pre-service teachers' specialized content knowledge across Schools of

Education and Colleges of Arts and Sciences (see Stotko, Beaty-O’Ferrall, & Yerkes, 2005 for an exception). Within the social studies teacher education literature, specifically, most of the work on pre-service teachers’ PCK has involved studying strengths and deficiencies within pre-service teachers’ knowledge bases (e.g., Journell, 2013; Monte-Sano, 2011) rather than describing institutional efforts to strengthen PCK. In our revised program, however, we offer multiple opportunities for pre-service teachers to develop their PCK, both within the School of Education and the College of Arts and Sciences. The remainder of this chapter will describe the steps we have taken to redesign our program, the core courses that are aimed specifically at strengthening our pre-service teachers’ PCK, and the nature of the collaboration between the School of Education and the College of Arts and Sciences. It is our hope that our program can serve as a model for cross-campus collaborations within social studies teacher education programs and encourage others to consider ways in which they can strengthen their pre-service teachers’ PCK.

Program Context

UNCG is classified as a public research university with “high research activity” and has an enrollment of over 18,000 students. The university also holds the distinction of being the most diverse campus within the University of North Carolina system with approximately 33 % minority enrollment; however, the student population within the secondary social studies program typically does not meet that level of diversity. As a former women’s college, teacher education remains one of the hallmark programs at the university. The UNCG School of Education is annually ranked within the top 100 schools of education in the United States by *U.S. News & World Report*, and the university maintains a strong reputation within the state for producing quality teachers.

Pre-service teachers in the secondary social studies program major in a content area and then seek licensure from the School of Education. Students majoring in anthropology, economics, geography, history, political science, psychology, or sociology are eligible for the program, although most of our students come from the history department. The secondary social studies program is the largest secondary education program within the School of Education with approximately 25 pre-service teachers, on average, in each student teaching cohort. Pre-service teachers complete their major requirements throughout their program but begin taking education courses the fall semester of their junior year, which starts a 2-year sequence that ends with student teaching during the spring semester of their senior year.

Wayne serves as the secondary social studies program coordinator since the program resides in the School of Education, and Lisa serves as the primary liaison between the program and the College of Arts and Sciences.¹ Together, they teach the

¹The other secondary education programs (language arts, mathematics, science, and foreign language) are housed within the College of Arts and Sciences. The social studies program is housed

majority of the core courses designed to improve pre-service teachers' PCK. Wayne has a Ph.D. in social studies education and teaches the methods course within the School of Education that students take the semester before student teaching. Lisa has a Ph.D. in history and teaches two of the four content courses designed specifically for pre-service secondary social studies students.

The program that we are describing in this chapter was developed as part of a state-mandated revisioning effort that culminated in the 2009–2010 academic year. This revisioning, although required by the state, was viewed as an opportunity within the School of Education to improve our programs, both for the betterment of our pre-service teachers' professional development and to ensure that we were meeting requirements of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). Those of us in secondary licensure programs were told that NCATE expected collaboration between the School of Education and the College of Arts and Sciences, especially given that our students major in a content area and not in a program within the School of Education. Therefore, there was a deliberate attempt to create this type of collaboration; however, there was no real expectation of how well it should work or what should come of it. The emphasis on PCK within our revised program, then, was developed on our own accord and subsequently supported by our respective departments.

Due to the grandfathering of students who were already invested in the old program, the first group of pre-service teachers who were able to take the revised program in its entirety were those who graduated in the 2011–2012 academic year. In other words, at the time of this writing, we have had three cohorts of pre-service teachers who have matriculated through the revised program. For the sake of comparison, we start with a brief description of the old program before discussing our initial collaboration that ultimately produced the revised program that we still use today. After briefly describing the current program, we offer a detailed description of the core courses designed to strengthen our pre-service teachers' PCK.

The Old Social Studies Licensure Program (Pre-2010)

The old program was, in practice, seven different programs that varied depending on a pre-service teacher's major. Although all secondary social studies pre-service teachers took the same pedagogical courses, the content courses required for licensure were structured so that students would be exposed to more content outside of their major. In other words, history majors would not take specific history courses for licensure since they took history courses as part of their major and instead, took courses in the other social studies disciplines. Table 7.1 provides examples of the required content coursework for history and political science as well as the pedagogical courses required for all social studies licensure students. Also, we have italicized the area in which we perceive PCK development to have taken place.

in the School of Education primarily as a coordinating function for the various academic disciplines that are eligible for social studies licensure.

Table 7.1 The old program

History major content coursework	Political science major content coursework	Required pedagogical courses (all majors)
ECO201 (Microeconomics)	ECO201	LIS120 (Intro to Technology)
ECO202 (Macroeconomics)	ECO202	ELC381 (Institution of Education)
SOC101 (Intro to Sociology)	SOC101	TED450 (Educational Psychology)
ATY212 or 218 (Intro to Anthropology)	ATY212 or 218	TED545 ^a (Diverse Learners)
ATY300-level (Cultural Anthropology)	ATY300-level	TED535 (Literacy in the Content Area)
GEO105, 114, or 202 (World Geography)	GEO105, 114, or 202	TED553 ^b (<i>Social Studies Methods</i>)
GEO102, 104, or 344 (Regional Geography)	GEO102, 104, or 344	TED465 (Student Teaching)
PSC100 (American Government)	WCV 101 or 102 (Western Civilization)	
PSC260 or 290 (Comparative Politics)	HIS211 (American History to 1877)	
	HIS212 (American History 1877 to present)	
	Non-Western HIS (e.g., African History)	

Note:

^aTED545 included a 25 h internship at a local school

^bTED553 included a 50 h internship at a local school that turned into the preservice teachers' student teaching placement the following semester

When looking at this program from a PCK perspective, it leaves much to be desired. It was designed as a typical teacher licensure program in that pre-service teachers' CK and PK were segregated with the exception of the social studies methods course. Moreover, the content requirements were predominately introductory-level, and the courses did not follow any sort of purposeful pattern other than to provide students with a breadth of knowledge about the various social studies disciplines. At no point did the program require pre-service teachers move from acquiring common content knowledge to demonstrating specialized content knowledge other than, again, in the social studies methods course. Finally, although not the focal point of this chapter, the PK that students received was also lacking in several areas. In particular, pre-service teachers received marginal training in important topics such as analyzing assessment data and teaching students with specialized learning needs (e.g., special education students and English Language Learners), which are both essential aspects of a teacher's PK and, thus, their PCK.

Working Together

The state-mandated revisioning of all teacher education programs in 2009 offered a unique opportunity to reevaluate the secondary social studies program. Wayne did not arrive at UNCG until Fall 2009, so much of the planning of this revised program came from Lisa, who was able to secure administrative buy-in from the history department for the creation of the new courses and approval for the new curriculum from the other social studies content area departments. Lisa offered to teach two of the newly created courses that would be offered through the history department, which was an integral selling point for her history department colleagues. Yet, there were two other courses that would have to be offered on a regular basis. Ultimately, Lisa was able to convince her colleagues that offering these courses was necessary given that a sizeable percentage of UNCG history majors also sought secondary licensure, and to date, members of the history department have shared in the responsibility of teaching these courses.²

Once Wayne arrived at UNCG, the focus became ensuring that the content offered in these new courses would complement each other as well as the courses that students would take within the School of Education. We swapped syllabi and collaboratively made decisions about what aspects of the program would be best suited in the newly developed courses as opposed to the already established School of Education methods course. From a PCK standpoint, we wanted the content to build upon each other logically. Although only the School of Education methods course is locked into a specific year and semester (Fall senior year), we created the new program so that the pre-service teachers would almost be forced to take the newly revised history courses during their sophomore and junior years. This progression of courses allowed us to think critically about how to make our program more cohesive rather than a collection of courses.

Ultimately, this collaboration required sacrifices on both sides. As coordinator of the program, which is housed in the School of Education, Wayne had to relinquish some authority over programmatic control and make the argument to his department that the pre-service teachers would benefit from taking courses that merged content and pedagogy in the College of Arts and Sciences. The history department had to undertake significant “cost” in terms of allocating resources for staffing the newly created courses. Finally, Lisa had to make a personal sacrifice of her own teaching by committing to teaching two of the newly designed courses on regular basis. Although this could have easily turned into a “turf war” between the two schools, both Lisa and Wayne made the case to their respective departments that shared responsibility in the preparation of pre-service teachers would ultimately benefit everyone given the large numbers of students our program graduates

²The UNCG history department acknowledges that a large percentage of its students are secondary education licensure students and has regularly taken steps to recognize those students. For example, each year at the history department graduation they recognize an outstanding graduate who sought teacher licensure with a commemorative gift of a free year’s membership to the National Council for the Social Studies.

each year. We will discuss this collaboration in greater detail following a description of the revised program and the five courses that are designed to improve our pre-service teachers' PCK.

The Current Program

The revised program represents a dramatic shift from the old program. At the core of the changes were the four new courses that were created within the history department. All of these courses were created specifically for social studies pre-service teachers, as opposed to general history majors, and the focus in all four courses was developing students' PCK.

Another change in the new program was that all social studies pre-service teachers would take the same core content courses, regardless of major. This change would help ensure a certain amount of consistency among the assessment of social studies licensure candidates as well as hopefully create a sense of community among each cohort of social studies pre-service teachers. Finally, given that the focus of the newly developed courses was on history education, the new program also required that history majors take 15 additional credit hours in non-history coursework as a way to expand their breadth of knowledge within the various social sciences. Table 7.2 shows the program as it currently stands. Again, these courses are taken in addition to the pre-service teachers' major requirements, and we have italicized the courses designed to strengthen PCK.

We believe this current program takes several steps to increase our pre-service teachers' PCK. From a PK perspective, we addressed the limitations in the old program and included courses on assessment, teaching learners with special needs, and teaching English Language Learners while maintaining a strong emphasis on cultural diversity and literacy.³ Also, we included 25 more internship hours for pre-service teachers in local schools prior to taking methods.

What we feel makes our program unique, however, is the creation of "content" courses that are designed to strengthen our pre-service teachers' PCK. Four of the six core content courses required for all pre-service teachers are designed to build pre-service teachers' specialized content knowledge, as opposed to simply providing them with common content knowledge. Moreover, these four courses are taken in the College of Arts and Sciences with disciplinary experts, which provides our pre-service teachers with a different perspective on teaching than they see in the School of Education. Finally, these courses are typically taken prior to the School of Education methods course, which creates a natural course sequence that allows for the building of concepts and a seamless transition between the College of Arts and Sciences and the School of Education.

³Although we are happy that the current program addresses these topics, we are not satisfied with the delivery of these courses. The one-credit hour online modules have been a topic of discussion since the implementation of this program, and we are currently working on making most, if not all, of them face-to-face seminars.

Table 7.2 The current program

Core content courses (taken by all majors)	Pedagogical courses
ECO101 (Introduction to Economics)	TED 445 ^a (Human Diversity, Teaching, and Learning)
HIS 300-level Elective	TED 401 ^b (Human Development)
<i>HIS 308 (Navigating World History)</i>	ERM 401 ^b (Assessment I: Accountability in Our Nation’s Schools)
<i>HIS 316 (Interpreting American History)</i>	LIS 120 (Intro to Technology)
<i>HIS 430 (Historical Methods for Social Studies)</i>	TED 403 ^{b,c} (Teaching English Language Learners)
<i>HIS 440 (Principles and Practices of Teaching History)</i>	SES 401 ^{b,c} (Teaching Students With Special Needs)
	ERM 402 ^b (Assessment II: Standardized Tests)
	ERM 403 ^b (Assessment III: Classroom Assessment)
	TED 535 (Literacy in the Content Area)
	<i>TED 553^d (Social Studies Methods)</i>
	TED 465 (Student Teaching)
History majors must also take five courses in at least three of the following categories: Anthropology, Geography, Political Science, Psychology, and Sociology	

Note:

^aTED445 includes a 25-h internship at a local school

^bThese courses are one-credit hour online modules

^cThere is a 25-h internship at a local school that coincides with TED 403 and SES 401, which are taken concurrently

^dTED553 includes a 50 h internship at a local school that turns into the preservice teachers’ student teaching placement the following semester

Part of ensuring that seamless transition, however, is continued communication between the School of Education and the College of Arts and Sciences. We are continually engaged in conversations about how to improve the program and the flow of the courses throughout. In the remainder of this section, we will discuss each of the core courses in greater depth before moving to a general discussion of the issues surrounding this collaboration and future changes to the program that we hope to make.⁴

HIS 308: Navigating World History and HIS 316: Interpreting American History

The old requirements for non-history majors included general education courses in U.S. history and Western Civilization. The college faculty determined that these low level CK requirements left pre-service teachers unprepared to design course

⁴The syllabi for any of the history courses can be found by going to <http://www.uncg.edu/his/courses/syllabi.html>. Readers interested in the TED553 syllabus can email Wayne at awjourne@uncg.edu.

content beyond a superficial reliance on the textbook. In fact too many pre-service teachers were opting out of these requirements through Advanced Placement or other K-12 credits, which meant that the last U.S. or World History course for some pre-service teachers may have been in high school. For example, if the political science major illustrated in Table 7.1 earned AP credit for U.S. history, she was not required to take any additional history. Furthermore, even though History majors who comped out of the U.S. history survey took additional U.S. history courses at a higher level, studying the Jacksonian era in depth did not necessarily prepare History majors to grapple with big historical problems in American history. The History Department did not offer an upper level survey that would prepare pre-service teachers to conceptualize and practice different thematic or chronological frameworks for organizing the breadth of human experience in U.S. (or World) history in the courses they would teach.

The History Department created two intermediate level history surveys to address this problem. HIS 308: Navigating World History and HIS 316: Interpreting American History are designed to provide teacher candidates with a working knowledge of World and U.S. history above the introductory level of general education. Whereas a general education survey might introduce pre-service teachers to working with primary sources as historical evidence and provide a basic chronological framework to develop breadth of knowledge, these two courses provide greater depth of content knowledge by going beyond instruction in the chronological narrative to teach pre-service teachers how historians organize knowledge and make sense of historical evidence. Though both of these courses are intended to “cover” U.S. and World history broadly, they go beyond the memorization of subject matter content knowledge to engage in history as a discipline and practice. Thus pre-service teachers have multiple opportunities to practice analyses of different types of primary source evidence, consider the essentially interpretive nature of history, test textbook narratives by evaluating different periodization schemes for ordering human experience, and consider different approaches to studying the past (for example, social history, political history, cultural history).

In HIS 308: Navigating World History, pre-service teachers investigate the chronological framework and periodization of world history and evaluate historical evidence relating to human societies worldwide from 8000 BCE to the twentieth century. Because so many World history textbooks still organize chapters as unconnected surveys of different cultures, the emphasis in HIS 308 is on the importance of comparison of cultures and world (as opposed to Eurocentric) historical perspectives on the human past. The course introduces some of the challenges of using primary sources to address the diversity of human experience over time. In HIS 316: Interpreting American History, pre-service teachers study broad chronological patterns and periodization of American history from the colonial era through the twentieth century. As in the world history course, pre-service teachers use primary source evidence to question textbook narratives and other historical interpretations. The pre-service teachers also practice historical interpretation of diverse primary sources such as oral evidence, photographs, ecological data, films and television programs, church and town records, census data, and novels.

The primary purpose of both of these courses is to ensure that pre-service teachers have ample experience in contextualizing primary sources and develop a breadth of content knowledge in history. They were designed to be taken early in the program and, as such, are prerequisites for HIS 430 and HIS 440. Despite the emphasis on common content knowledge, these two courses start the process of building PCK by having pre-service teacher begin to think about history through the lens of a teacher. For example, regardless of who teaches the course, one of James Loewen's (2007, 2010) books that provides a critical analysis of the K-12 history curriculum is required reading for HIS 316. Also, one of the standing assignments for HIS 308 is for pre-service teachers to develop an assessment for world history and explain their pedagogical reasoning behind the questions that they included in the assessment. Similarly, a recent requirement of HIS 316 involved pre-service teachers team-teaching lessons based on aspects of U.S. History that they had learned about in class.

Although these types of assignments are fairly minor forays into teaching, they are only the first steps in scaffolding pre-service teachers' PCK. At this point in their professional development, pre-service teachers should not be expected to be able to articulate a nuanced understanding of PCK since they have yet to take many, if any, of their pedagogical coursework. The next two courses in the sequence, HIS 430 and HIS 440, begin a more purposeful integration of content and pedagogy, and they typically occur during pre-service teachers' junior year in which they also begin taking pedagogical courses within the School of Education, so the integration of content and pedagogy becomes more transparent.

HIS 430: Historical Methods for Social Studies

HIS 430 is an introduction to historical thinking and the research process designed to address state licensure requirements for demonstrating depth of content knowledge. A practical outcome of the course is the production of an artifact that pre-service teachers can use as evidence of depth of CK for licensure. However, because this course serves as an introduction to historical research methods, it must go beyond instruction about how to write a history research paper to help novice researchers practice different stages of the research process.⁵

In HIS 430, pre-service teachers complete a variety of research exercises to practice different aspects of the research process that can apply to any history research project. The final project in HIS 430 provides opportunities to synthesize a range of historical evidence, develop effective research questions, identify appropriate sources for addressing those research questions, contextualize primary sources in different ways, and present an effective written interpretation of the evidence. In terms of PCK, the research exercises pre-service teachers complete in HIS 430 also help them understand how to target specific information literacy

⁵Another purpose of this course is to prepare pre-service teachers who are history majors for their capstone research course, HIS 511.

skills for developing historical thinking. We build on that knowledge in HIS 440 when pre-service teachers develop an information literacy activity for a lesson using primary sources.

In order to give the pre-service teachers hands-on experience in archival research, Lisa has developed two different case study archive projects for HIS 430 in collaboration with University Archivists at UNCG. In both cases pre-service teachers use the same research methods text written by librarian Jenny Presnell (2013), *The Information-Literate Historian*. When the course was first taught, pre-service teachers received the name of a first-generation UNCG student at the beginning of the semester and used manuscript materials to develop a biography of that individual using manuscript resources. The biography had to contextualize the student's experience in two different ways—within the history of the institution at the turn of the twentieth century and also in some appropriate way beyond the institution. For example, pre-service teachers might consider the history of education in the South or in North Carolina, some aspect of women's history, or some historical facet of the academic or extra-curricular activities of the student. Contextualizing the archival sources was one of the key challenges of creating a meaningful biography that explained the historical significance of the experience of an ordinary individual.

More recently the archival project has focused on interpretation of scrapbooks in the University Archive. Pre-service teachers begin by studying Helen Gruber Garvey's (2013) *Writing with Scissors*, as a model for research design and interpretation of scrapbooks. Then, working in research teams they are required to contextualize a given scrapbook both within the institution's history and using a theme beyond the institution. Each team researched different scrapbooks produced in different historical eras, so unlike history research courses that tend to focus on a particular historical topic or era, the only thing the pre-service teachers had in common in terms of CK for this project was the disciplinary-based research process itself. The scrapbooks ranged in era from the first decade of the twentieth century through the 1950s.

The scrapbook project can serve as an illustration of the overall approach Lisa takes to this research methods course. Working with the archivists, Lisa identified a set of scrapbooks that were digitized so that pre-service teachers could have access to them even when the archive was closed and that also were in good enough physical condition to be studied on site. In one research exercise, pre-service teachers were required to compare the difference between studying the digitized source and studying the original scrapbook. This relates to Lisa's efforts to go beyond the basic information literacy questions students consider when evaluating Internet resources in any subject (issues of authorship, currency, navigability, for example) to consider the particular challenges and opportunities of evaluating digitized historical sources, such as how the content of the physical source can be altered or obscured through digitization or how digitization changes the way the source is read or viewed.

This case study has been a tremendous success based on the variety of approaches pre-service teachers have taken to contextualizing the scrapbooks. Three cases

illustrate the range of interpretations. One pre-service teacher was inspired by a scrapbook page that seemed to celebrate electrical lighting to evaluate why the scrapbook author might have found electricity to be such a curiosity in the early twentieth century. Another pre-service teacher became curious about a dance card pasted into a scrapbook and explored it to contextualize the meanings of social dance for students of the early twentieth century. A third noticed that a student scrapbook author included several references about music in her scrapbook and researched the role of school songs and popular music in the era in which the scrapbook was created.

Since the scrapbook had to be the subject of the final paper, this case study has been more successful than the student biography in getting pre-service teachers to explicitly consider the primary source as evidence. In the case of the biography, pre-service teachers tend to piece together different primary sources—grade reports, admission letters, information from annuals. Because most of the sources were not written by the student herself it is difficult to critically evaluate perspective of the sources. By contrast, evaluation of the scrapbook as historical evidence was an explicit requirement of the final paper in the scrapbook project, and pre-service teachers used a variety of approaches to achieve this requirement—evaluating authorship, considering physical evidence of the scrapbook as an object, and identifying the narrative patterns based on overall organization of materials in the scrapbook to name a few. Finally, since UNCG was originally created as a teacher's college, both of these archival research projects have turned out to be particularly meaningful for our teacher candidates by offering them a deeper understanding of the history of education in the state.

Ultimately, the purpose of HIS 430 is to have pre-service teachers practice processes of historical inquiry. Whereas HIS 308 and HIS 316 provided mainly common content knowledge, HIS 430 begins the bridge to specialized content knowledge. Given that the goal of our program is for our pre-service teachers to have their students engaged in processes of historical inquiry, it is essential that our pre-service teachers develop mastery of those skills themselves. Once pre-service teachers understand the principles of historical thinking, they can begin to merge their specialized content knowledge more deliberately with their increasing PK, which is the focus of the final two courses, HIS 440 and TED 553.

HIS 440: Principles and Practices of Teaching History

HIS 440 is the most explicit history course that links content knowledge with pedagogical knowledge. HIS 440 introduces students to the growing scholarship that addresses the distinctive challenges of teaching and learning history as both a subject and a disciplinary way of thinking. This focus on historical thinking is a key way that Lisa distinguishes this course from the methods course Wayne teaches. Pre-service teachers evaluate best practices for teaching historical thinking, paying particular attention to the role of primary sources and promoting historical inquiry

and analytical reading. Although Wayne's methods course also addresses teaching with primary sources, he covers a much broader range of social studies issues than historical thinking.

HIS 440 begins with a focus on the principles of historical thinking including articles by high school teachers that explain how they target specific historical thinking skills in real world lessons. The Stanford Historical Group's *Reading Like a Historian* curriculum is a key resource for this course.⁶ The primary goal of the first half of the course is to define specific aspects of historical thinking, including conceptual and procedural knowledge, and identifying specific challenges students face in learning to use those historical thinking concepts. In studying the principles of historical thinking, pre-service teachers also consider the reasons why students should learn history in the twenty-first century. They confront the question of what should a history course accomplish beyond the coverage of a particular historical narrative or the survey of chronological content.

The second half of the course operationalizes the principles through the study of best practices in historical thinking pedagogy. Pre-service teachers implement ideas of cognitive apprenticeship (Collins, Brown, & Holum, 1991) to evaluate the ways that given lessons based on primary sources target specific historical thinking skills and concepts. We use lesson examples from *Reading Like a Historian*, the Library of Congress's *Teaching With Primary Sources Program*, and *World History for Us All*. Pre-service teachers also study effective strategies for assessing historical thinking, using models from *Beyond the Bubble* to create assessment questions that target specific skills such as sourcing or contextualizing.⁷ We also conduct in-class practice to identify strengths and weaknesses of lesson design, such as the characteristics of an effective historical inquiry question, appropriate modifications to facilitate comprehension for novice readers, and how to scaffold specific historical thinking concepts and skills in various student learning activities.

The pre-service teachers work in teams for the final project to develop a lesson focusing on a given historical topic. They are required to include effective scaffolds for learning historical thinking using primary sources and explain how the lesson addresses the scholarship of teaching and learning history. By the time the pre-service teachers get to Wayne's methods class they have learned how to evaluate what a good lesson plan looks like, how to target specific historical thinking concepts and skills, and how to operationalize student learning through research-based pedagogical practice.

By the end of HIS 440, pre-service teachers have developed strong specialized content knowledge of historical thinking. By merging the skills learned in HIS 430 with a focused understanding of how to teach those skills to others, HIS 440 allows pre-service teachers to transition from historians to teachers of history. The questions that HIS 440 addresses—how to help students read primary sources, how to create engaging

⁶The *Reading Like a Historian* curriculum can be found at <http://sheg.stanford.edu/rlh>.

⁷The *Teaching With Primary Sources Program* can be found <http://www.loc.gov/teachers/tps>. The *World History For Us All* program can be found at <http://worldhistoryforusall.sdsu.edu/>. The *Beyond the Bubble* program can be found at <https://beyondthebubble.stanford.edu/>.

ways to teach processes of historical inquiry to students, and how to assess whether students understand elements of historical thinking—are examples of specialized content knowledge that only apply to history teachers. By the end of this sequence of courses in the history department, pre-service teachers have developed both common and specialized content knowledge. Yet, Ball et al. (2008) offer two additional knowledge domains that teachers need in order to fully enact PCK in their classrooms, and the final course in the program, TED 553, seeks to develop these domains.

TED 553: Social Studies Methods

TED 553, or methods, is designed to serve as the culmination of pre-service teachers' licensure coursework and is the final step in preparing them for student teaching. There is also a 50 h internship associated with the course that becomes the pre-service teachers' student teaching placement the following semester. The main objective of methods is to build pre-service teachers' knowledge of what Ball et al. (2008) term *knowledge of content and students* (KCS) and *knowledge of content and teaching* (KCT), both of which are essential aspects of PCK.

According to Ball et al. (2008), KCS requires knowledge of how students learn, including what they find interesting and motivating, as well as familiarity with common issues associated with teaching certain content. KCT, on the other hand, requires knowledge of how to manage a classroom and build one's instruction so that it maximizes learning of specific concepts. For example, the decision whether to present content via a lecture, a whole-class discussion, or a group project requires both KCS and KCT and is dependent on both the content being taught and the abilities of the students to respond to that strategy.

Although pre-service teachers learn how to use state and national standards to plan instruction in methods, the emphasis of the course is developing strategies for engaged, student-centered learning as opposed to learning how to teach to the test. A typical class meeting starts with one or more pre-service teachers delivering a 30–40 min mini-lesson on a social studies topic of their choice using a non-lecture-based teaching strategy that they have read about in practitioner articles from journals such as *Social Education* and *The Social Studies*. Then, Wayne addresses the specific topic for each week, for which the pre-service teachers have also been prepped via research-based practitioner articles. Finally, each class ends with the opportunity for the pre-service teachers to discuss a wide array of issues related to the teaching profession based on questions that they posted online prior to class. These questions range anywhere from the politics surrounding public education in North Carolina to issues that have arisen in the pre-service teachers' internships. Table 7.3 shows the weekly topics that are covered over the course of the semester, as well as examples of mini-lessons that students present.

The course assessments also strive to build upon pre-service teachers' KCS and KCT. In addition to the mini-lessons, the pre-service teachers are required to create a number of lesson plans, including one for a primary source activity that utilizes

Table 7.3 TED553 topics and mini-lesson strategies

Week	Topic being discussed	Mini-lesson strategy
1	Introduction to Social Studies Education	
2	Civic and Cultural Implications of Social Studies Education	
3	Unit and Lesson Planning/Navigating State and National Standards	Teaching Using Raps
4	Traditional Ways of Teaching History: Problems and Pitfalls	Strategies for English Language Learners
5	Thinking Historically/Teaching with Primary Sources	Teaching Using Primary Sources (Wayne teaches this lesson)
6	Visual and Cultural History/Teaching with Movies and Music	Teaching Using Popular Music
7	Strategies for Teaching Civics, Economics, and Geography	Teaching Using Counterfactual History
8	Using Technology to Create Learner-Centered Environments	Teaching Using Art
9	Incorporating Technology into Social Studies Instruction	Teaching Using Drama
10	Multiculturalism and Diversity in Social Studies Instruction	Teaching Using Student Personal Histories
11	Teaching Controversial Issues	Teaching Using Structured Academic Controversy
12	Reading and Writing in the Social Studies	Teaching Reading Strategies
13	Classroom Management	Teaching Using Poetry/Creative Writing

historical/critical thinking. They also create an inquiry-based webquest that incorporates technological pedagogical content knowledge (Mishra & Koehler, 2006) and complete a community analysis assignment that requires the pre-service teachers increase their understanding of the students that they will serve as student teachers and how they can incorporate community-based resources into their instruction. The culminating project is a comprehensive plan for a unit they will teach the following semester. The unit follows a traditional backwards design approach (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005) and includes a teaching philosophy statement, a unit plan, a minimum of four detailed lesson plans, formative assessments, and a summative assessment. As part of the four detailed lessons, pre-service teachers are expected to include lessons incorporating primary source analyses, learner-centered approaches to using technology, and one or more of the mini-lesson strategies presented throughout the semester.

Summary

These five courses represent a deliberate attempt at strengthening our pre-service teachers' PCK, both within and across these five core courses. Specialized content knowledge is emphasized over common content knowledge within each of the four

courses in the College of Arts and Sciences, and the School of Education methods course provides further PCK development by increasing pre-service teachers' KCS and KCT. Since the content in each course builds upon each other, pre-service teachers' PCK development is continual and, we believe, more effective.

Perhaps more importantly, our program shows what is possible when Schools of Education and College of Arts and Sciences both take a vested interest in the development of pre-service teachers. This collaboration, however, did not occur naturally or without significant buy-in from both units. The remainder of this chapter will discuss the aspects of this collaboration that we believe has led it to be successful, as well as ways in which we hope to improve the program in the future.

Discussion

Although the state mandate requiring revisions to all teacher education programs prompted the changes we have described in this chapter, the collaborative feel of those changes came largely from the willingness of various stakeholders to create a program that serves the best interest of UNCG pre-service teachers. That said, we want to first acknowledge institutional contexts that have allowed this collaboration to develop without much contention on either side. First, we believe the foundation of this collaboration is the fact that our pre-service teachers major in a content area in the College of Arts and Sciences and then receive licensure within the School of Education. This symbiotic relationship ensures that there are no "turf wars" between the two units. Given that a sizeable percentage of UNCG history majors pursue teacher licensure, it behooves the history department to work closely with the School of Education, and vice versa. If, as is the case in other universities, our social studies pre-service teachers were the sole "property" of the School of Education, we imagine that it would be more challenging to ask departments within the College of Arts and Sciences for courses devoted to specialized content knowledge.

Similarly, the size of our program encourages collaboration. This size advantage may be what differentiates our program from the relationships held between the College of Arts and Sciences and the UNCG secondary math and science programs, which currently do not enjoy the same type of collaborative spirit that we share. Those programs only graduate a handful of pre-service teachers each year; thus, it is not economically viable for the math and science departments to devote resources to creating courses for those students. The fact that we graduate anywhere from 25 to 30 pre-service teachers each year allows the history department to feel comfortable allocating sections of the courses described above each year because they are guaranteed be filled. In an era of dwindling resources for higher education, it is understandable that departments have to manage course offerings carefully; therefore, we acknowledge that universities with smaller programs may have a greater challenge developing the types of specialized content knowledge courses that we describe above.

Shared major responsibility and program size do not automatically translate into a collaborative relationship, however. Take, for example, the language arts secondary

education program at UNCG. Their program is similar to ours in that their pre-service teachers are English majors and receive licensure from the School of Education, the size of their program is comparable, and they went through the same state-mandated revisioning that we did. Yet, their program still resembles a traditional teacher licensure program in that content and pedagogy remain separate outside of the School of Education methods course, and the content presented in the English department is largely common content knowledge.

We offer that example as a way to underscore the importance of developing a shared sense of responsibility for the preparation of pre-service teachers across both Schools of Education and Colleges of Arts and Sciences. At the heart of this type of collaboration, however, are personal relationships. The success of our program is a testament to the power of two people with similar goals regarding pre-service teacher education who saw an opportunity to work together. The key, however, is for those people to be willing to share control of the program and, in some cases, be willing to step outside of their comfort zones.

Since the secondary social studies program is housed in the School of Education, Wayne could have easily made unilateral decisions about the program once he arrived at UNCG. Such an approach, however, would have made any sort of collaboration with the College of Arts and Sciences unlikely. Instead, one of the first things that Wayne did once he arrived on campus was meet with Lisa and other stakeholders in the College of Arts and Sciences and ask for their help in coordinating the program.

For her part, Lisa was a willing collaborator and, more importantly, allowed herself to expand her teaching portfolio to include courses that included specialized content knowledge for pre-service teachers even though it meant not being able to offer her other courses as often as she had in the past. As a historian who specializes in American cultural history, Lisa did not have prior experience training pre-service teachers to create instruction using historical thinking, but she eagerly created courses in which pre-service teachers read works by social studies scholars, such as Sam Wineburg and Bruce VanSledright, who are not typical names found on history department syllabi. Moreover, she sold this idea to her colleagues in the history department who are responsible for teaching HIS 308 and HIS 316. Overall, the faculty members in the history department have demonstrated considerable flexibility in helping to ensure that the required courses in this program are available to students, and the department chair has even allocated money for guest speakers and workshops designed to increase faculty members' knowledge of how to teach historical thinking.

Finally, there is never a substitute for personal chemistry when forging collaborations. We genuinely like each other and, more importantly, share a similar mindset with respect to maintaining high standards and ensuring academic rigor in our courses. We work well together and continue to share decision-making responsibilities regarding licensure requirements as well as engage in regular discussions on how to improve the program.

Although we both believe that our current program is stronger than it was prior to the changes we have described, we also realize that our program is not perfect. One obvious limitation is that our program only caters to our pre-service teachers' PCK in history, and research suggests that pre-service social studies teachers' PCK in non-history disciplines is often lacking (e.g., Joshi & Marri, 2006; Journell,

2013). Research has also shown that teachers often struggle when asked to teach courses outside of their disciplinary expertise (e.g., Gudmundsdottir & Shulman, 1987; Wilson & Wineburg, 1988). Given that a large number of our student teachers are placed in civics & economics and psychology classrooms, our pre-service teachers' lack of specialized content knowledge in these areas is concerning.

Currently, the content coverage of these non-history disciplines in our program largely consists of acquiring common content knowledge. Given that Wayne's disciplinary background is in political science and his research interest is in civic and political education, our pre-service teachers do receive some specialized content knowledge in civics, but nowhere close to the depth that they receive in history. To date, Wayne has not been successful in developing the same type of partnership with the political science department as he has with the history department, although talks are ongoing. Similarly, we have offered an experimental course for the past two years entitled *Economics for Educators*, which was designed to increase pre-service teachers' PCK in economics (for more on this course, see Ayers, 2014). This course was taught by a social studies doctoral student who had a background in economics, and we have had conversations with the economics department about making it a regular course, but talks have stalled due to budgetary concerns.

In a perfect world, we would be able to develop specialized content courses in all of the various social studies disciplines, and that remains our goal. In the meantime, though, we have been pleased with the results of our current collaboration between the School of Education and the College of Arts and Sciences. Although we do not have empirical data to suggest that our pre-service teachers' history PCK has improved as a result of our program revisions, we do have approximately 3 years of anecdotal data. Based on our own observations, as well as those by cooperating teachers and other university supervisors who have observed student teachers in both programs, the quality of instruction of student teachers who have matriculated through the current program is noticeably superior to what we observed from student teachers who were products of the old program. Perhaps more importantly, this collaboration has created greater continuity within the program, and our pre-service teachers can better see how their content courses relate to their pedagogical courses, and vice versa. Although there are always growing pains with any type of curricular reforms in higher education, our experience suggests that taking steps toward a School of Education and College of Arts and Sciences collaboration is essential for the professional development of secondary social studies pre-service teachers.

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Chapter 8

Six Credit Hours for Arizona, the United States, and the World: A Case Study of Teacher Content-Knowledge Preparation and the Creation of Social Studies Courses

Laura B. Turchi, Elizabeth R. Hinde, Ronald I. Dorn, and Gale Olp Ekiss

This chapter explores how a collaborative federally funded initiative—The Teaching Foundations Project—addressed the social studies content-area knowledge of future elementary teachers through the combined efforts of university faculty in teacher education and liberal arts and sciences, along with faculty from community colleges in Arizona. As a result, the project developed two courses combining history, political science, geography, and economics. The two lower division courses: “Arizona and The US for Aspiring Elementary Educators [AZ&US],” and “The World for Aspiring Elementary Educators [WORLD],” are now required in the elementary teacher preparation program at Arizona State University.

As we describe the development, evaluation, piloting, and institutionalization of the courses in a rough chronology, three themes emerge:

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- **Responsibility and Autonomy in Teacher Education:** There are opportunities and challenges in aligning different institutions in shared commitments to teacher preparation;
- **The Blessings and Constraints of Major Federal Funding:** Having resources as a lever for change brings tensions of compliance and cooperation across institutions;
- **Constructions of twenty-first century Learning:** There is complex work in the identification and operationalization of theories about what content and pedagogy future elementary teachers need, particularly when faculty from university in teacher education and liberal arts and science, as well as community colleges in Arizona, are all working together.

The Teaching Foundations Project: One Stage in the Pipeline of Teacher Preparation

Reform Context

In September 2009, the US Department of Education announced a major Teacher Quality Enhancement grant to Arizona State University. At the time, the University was already embarking on multiple restructuring initiatives, combining programs, streamlining departments, and establishing new centers. Programs leading to teacher certification were consolidated under what became the Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College at ASU, and this structure required a significant shift in leadership, faculty, and eventually program plans and coursework. These changes were in their opening stages when the TQE grant was awarded.

As a Teacher Quality Grantee, ASU NEXT, as the project was called, was awarded \$33.4 million for five years to meet multiple and ambitious objectives. The results would situate Arizona State University's Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College within an improved pipeline: bringing better prepared teachers into Arizona classrooms by attending to their content-area preparation, their clinical experiences, and their induction into the profession. The project would also improve the Arizona schools in which the new teachers served through professional development toward whole-school reforms.

The response of the leadership of the Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College to the significant needs of Arizona schools, and their vision of the potential of future schools, were driving forces in revising the curriculum. They communicated a sense of urgency about the need to prepare qualified teachers who were well versed in the challenges and realities of schools. At the center of the grant project was the iTeachAZ program. This program required 1 year of student teaching in a residency model. At ASU, as for many programs, elementary teachers are prepared as generalists and complete content-area requirements through introductory and survey courses.

Teacher preparation writ large has often been criticized for its lack of curricular rigor (Labaree, 2004). Whether the criticism is warranted or not, providing stronger

content knowledge for people who would become teachers was one focus of the curriculum revisions that the Teachers College made to its Bachelor of Arts in Elementary Education (BAE) degree to prepare undergraduates for the new intensive clinical experience. The Teachers College revised the BAE degree for elementary teacher certification to include 35–40 additional content-area credit hours. Because of the AZ-mandated 120 credit hour maximum for undergraduate degrees, this meant the new requirements replaced or combined courses previously offered in the Teachers College with coursework to be offered through arts and sciences departments at both Arizona State University and community colleges (Table 8.1).

Collective Responsibility

The Teacher Quality Enhancement Grant enabled Arizona State University to fund work to significantly enhance the content-area preparation of aspiring elementary teachers. It created the Teaching Foundations Project, tasked with developing new or reforming curricula for 40 undergraduate content-area (*not* methods) courses, eight in each of five content areas: the arts, English Language Arts, math, sciences, and social studies.

The grant proposal had asserted, “University colleges of education in Arizona are utterly dependent on the programmatic articulation and academic rigor of community colleges but have failed to work effectively with them.” The Teaching Foundations Project reform method was to establish five statewide content-area consortium groups to carry out curriculum development and implementation. Because over 50 % of the students admitted to ASU’s teacher preparation program transferred from the community college system, the Teaching Foundations Project worked closely with AZ community college partners to create, pilot and implement the new course work.

The Project strategically recruited five ASU leaders (content-area specialists already involved in K-12 teacher professional development and other University out-

Table 8.1 Program revisions

BAE requirement	Old courses	New course requirement
2 Social and Behavioral Science Courses	Any two courses that meets the requirement	GCU/HST 113 AZ&US
		GCU HST 114 The World
1 Historical Awareness Course	Any course that meets the requirement	GCU/HST 113
1 Awareness of Global Cultures Course	Any course that meets the requirement	GCU HST 114
Arizona and U.S. Constitution State Certification Requirement	A variety of political science courses to select or study for a test	GCU/HST 113

reach programs impacting K-12 education) and paired them with five community college co-leaders to lead each of the consortium groups within the broad disciplinary areas of English Language Arts, math, science, social studies, and the arts.

Shared responsibility required a cultural shift in higher education overall, and teacher preparation specifically. In this case, the cultural shift began as the Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College relinquished some responsibility—“ownership” of course requirements and credit hours—in the preparation of teachers, and utilized the Teaching Foundations Project to support literally statewide collaboration.

This chapter focuses on one dimension of the work of the Teaching Foundations Project: providing a sound foundation in history, civics, economics and geography in the first four undergraduate semesters, before future teachers would take their social studies methods courses in their last two semesters. Significant changes to the social studies content preparation of elementary teachers required faculty to come out of the academic silos in which they typically resided and instead work together. Zeichner and Peña-Sandoval (2015) point out that for many years scholars who advocate for transforming teacher preparation have called for collaboration across universities and local communities to prepare teachers. Among other things, they call for “more shared responsibility for preparing teachers among universities or other program operators, schools, and local communities” (p. 15). The Teaching Foundations Project became the vehicle in which the knowledge of social science content experts in other colleges of the university could combine with that of education experts in Fulton Teachers College.

The development of the courses required institutional and administrative collaborations as well the work of an unusually broad-based and inclusive team, represented here by the authors. The perspectives offered in this piece are important because of how they intersect: while adopting a single voice, the diversity of experience and expertise helps further illuminate the three themes of the case.

The Teaching Foundations Project Director (Turchi) was relatively new clinical faculty in the ASU English Department’s Education Program. As proposed, the TFP had a budget to pay for course development, but not a mandate for change or even a consensus over what that change needed to be (especially in terms of changing other institutions). There were minimal data available that could clearly diagnose the causes of the perceived problem of poor AZ K12 student performance, but the theory of change was that better teacher preparation would ultimately lead to improvement. The Director had substantial teacher education accreditation and policy work to her credit, but was tasked with operationalizing “Great Learners Make Great Teachers” across the University and with its partners.

The Director of the Division of Teacher Preparation in Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College (Hinde) was a social studies content-area methods expert, responsible for overseeing all of the teacher preparation programs as well as managing the broad reorganization of programs, and keenly aware of what students bring to a methods course and student teaching. AZ certification testing for future teachers represented a low bar for content-knowledge expectations, including disproportionate representation of some core knowledge areas. In addition, K12 accountability testing pressured teachers and preservice teachers away from social studies as a subject area

and strongly encouraged the integration of social studies into reading and math instruction instead.

A geography professor (Dorn), served as co-chair of the “Social Studies Consortium” within the Teaching Foundations Project. Already serving as a liaison to the teacher education, he also connected the TFP to faculty teaching locally at ASU and in the community colleges. In addition, as a full professor, he was an experienced navigator of the university course approval system.

An expert K12 teacher and adjunct professor (Ekiss) brought an established network of teacher-leaders to the TFP as co-coordinator of The Arizona Geographic Alliance. The AzGA has 165 teachers in its Teacher Consultant leadership cadre, many of whom provided course materials, supplementary videos of teaching techniques, and pilot instructors to the project.

Strategizing Within the Constraints of Institutional Processes

Urgency of purpose does not sufficiently leverage change, and resources—even the significant federal funding afforded Arizona State University—was just the beginning.

Undergraduate Program Design

The university constraint of 120 total credit hours in any major, and an emphasis on STEM preparation for future elementary teachers, meant that the BAE degree plan revisions ultimately assigned six credit hours for core content knowledge (history, geography, political science, and economics) in social studies. The vision of the Teaching Foundations Project social studies consortium leaders was to create the eight funded courses as contributing parts to what would be two required social studies courses: “Arizona and The US for Aspiring Elementary Educators [AZ&US],” and “The World for Aspiring Elementary Educators [WORLD].” These new courses would replace what had been somewhat random student-chosen electives. One notorious example had been future teachers fulfilling history requirements through enrolling in a popular culture course on the Beatles; more typically, these students were arriving in curriculum methods courses with only knowledge of US history since the Civil War or other limited perspectives on the broad field of social studies.

Discussions with Teachers College advisors about the challenges of efficiently fitting the courses into the revised BAE program had also revealed that the new courses would need to meet “awareness” (historical thinking) and “global awareness” (of other cultures) general education requirements, as well as meeting the Arizona Department of Education requirements for content instruction on the U.S. Constitution and Arizona Constitution. Thus, the first course, AZ&US was

designed to meet social science, historical awareness, and the constitution requirement; the WORLD course had to meet both social science and global awareness requirements. In the parlance of advising, the TFP had to ensure that courses were “double-” or even “triple dipping.” This strategy would enable students to meet general education mandates for graduation while they completed the academic experiences that the Teaching Foundations Project was designing for them, all within the maximum 120 credit hour framework.

As those who have toiled in the field of institutional approvals know, both the university system and the parallel requirements within the community colleges had to be traversed. Multiple committees needed to review the courses in order to earn general studies designators (known as “core” or “basic” at other institutions), and institutional rules frequently meant that these could only be applied to courses that had been offered several semesters as “experimental” or “omnibus” first. Without careful negotiation it would be only then that the courses could be scheduled, have instructors, and be populated by students.

Not surprisingly, there were recurring tensions in the Teaching Foundations Project between the deliberative pace for effective collaboration across institutions and the urgency for Arizona K12 school improvement as promised by the Project. Ironically perhaps, the federal funding was ample, and yet required speedy expenditure: courses needed to be almost simultaneously designed, evaluated, piloted, and established as requirements.

Cooperation and Advocacy

Statewide community college and university articulation processes and agreements were already in place, including initiatives that guaranteed student tuition rates and automatic transfers. Even as the Teaching Foundation Project courses were being created and revised, the leadership of the Project found it necessary to engage in course advocacy that went beyond following institutional processes for articulation (identifying shared courses, aligning requirements, and establishing equivalencies). Advocacy meant recruiting friends and others as participants—establishing credibility and trust, and not just for the project.

As a major teacher education program in the state, and with the funding of the federal grant, Arizona State University was able to push in the direction of its identified objectives for reform. It may seem obvious, but the Teachers College nonetheless needed students who would choose to enroll. The Teachers College communicated to its partners that the BAE requirements were in revision, and that ultimately Project data would be used to make decisions about the quality and necessity of courses in teacher preparation.

The Teaching Foundations Project leadership found that it had to identify gatekeepers within administrative offices and faculty leadership across the state and convince them the new courses were needed. Hard questions about the intentions of the project, such as “are you segregating out the education students?” needed substantial discussion. It did no good to take an accusatory stance and claim that

current courses were “bad.” The Project’s subject-area consortia had to support good conversations across institutions, and connect different constituents.

The new requirements needed to be seen not as a random set of individual decisions, but as an intentional design for teacher quality: teacher education at ASU was restructuring, and partners needed to participate and share in accountability for the quality of teacher educators. Through long meetings and public events held by the Project, as well as regular statewide community college-university articulation meetings, the focus on content-area preparation for future teachers had to be reiterated carefully.

Advising

Even imagining that all the faculty and administrators agreed with the goals and processes of the Teaching Foundation Project, another key requirement for its success was facilitating the role that advisors and other support staff needed to play in implementing the courses. The Project needed advisors from different units across the University and partner community colleges to work together to schedule the courses. Advisors needed to identify the new options for coursework and help steer students toward the recommended sections in order to populate them.

Of more importance: advisors needed to help undergraduates recognize that lower-division coursework is, in fact, relevant to their professional preparation. For the broad population of students that would include future teachers, the Teaching Foundations Project needed to help advisors not only communicate that the courses were *not* “watered-down” for teachers, but that the courses were intended to be more challenging, and that this was a good thing.

We argue that what makes this case important is not the rich resources of grant funding that were available, but that the Project successfully navigated complex institutional, departmental, and individual faculty responses to reform. It was not unreasonable for faculty, even within Arizona State University, to feel they were in competing groups, all in search of a predictable flow of tuition dollars from students into programs. The rhetoric of the original grant proposal had been stark: There would be carrots of compensation to be rewarded to individual course developers and pilots were one lever for change, but there was a stick: that if partners were to refuse to offer the reformed courses, they could get shut out of the teacher education pipeline, insofar as it was controlled by the Teachers College.

The Teaching Foundations Project work in developing, promoting, and institutionalizing new courses also demonstrates that “pipeline” is a very limited metaphor for the many contributions that different players within higher education make to the emergence of a new teacher. Perhaps the better analogy is to the *network* as described by the work of Thomas Hatch at Columbia Teachers College, or even the “village” that is supposed to be able to raise a child. In both cases, multiple contributing forces and influences result in a newly minted teacher. The Project’s claim that “Great Learners Make Great Teachers” focused efforts on curriculum that would

offer great learning experiences to students, in hope that the rest of the pipeline/system/village would shape those students into successful teachers.

Operationalizing Twenty-First Century Learning Ideals

The TFP Rubric

As a first major task of collaboration, The Teaching Foundations Project cross-institutional leadership created a rubric to describe and delineate the qualities of the new/reformed courses. The rubric was drafted utilizing research from across social and learning sciences, and seeking to articulate a shared understanding of rigor, inquiry, and the critical thinking to be engendered. In effect, the goal was to predict and provide the knowledge and skills upon which later coursework would build pedagogical content knowledge (Fig. 8.1).

The intention was that the same Project rubric could be used to inform the design of the courses; to structure the external evaluation; to advocate for the adoption of the courses, based on their qualities; and to inform and provide professional development for the instructors who would offer the courses. Consensus about the rubric as a guiding document, and not an immutably authoritative text, helped overcome the strident language of the original grant proposal and focus the Project leadership's attention on convincing others to embrace the work of reform.

One of the highest values embodied in the rubric was the cultivation of higher-order and critical thinking skills. The Project recognized that each subject area offers students unique skills and experiences; the goal was to enhance student understanding of the relevance of these skills to the real world, at least in part as preparation for teaching. In general, the rubric encouraged the cultivation of student self-reflection about the knowledge, skills and work they produce during their education.

Mason (2007) traces the trends in the idea of critical thinking and its career in education. In a review of philosophical perspectives on critical thinking, Mason suggests that there are competing aspects within its definition that make teaching or even exhorting individuals to "think harder" or "think better" problematic. These include requiring skills such as reasoning; dispositions (such as a predilection for probing questions); and counterintuitive attitudes toward new learning, like skepticism. Questions of whether critical thinking is content-specific (i.e., per discipline), or a single general mode of thinking shaped the rubric: arguments on both sides were compelling; the Teaching Foundations Project rubric took a blended approach.

This rubric attempted to capture the differing processes of inquiry and engagement in each subject while searching for common understandings to inform undergraduate curriculum. For instance, Smith, Ware, Cochran, and

Higher-Order Skills Reading/Thinking/Acting	Basic Level	Intermediate Level	Target
Connections/Multidisciplinary/Interdisciplinary	Materials and texts and directly-delivered instruction exhort students to think and act intentionally	One or two assignments require students to make and explore connections within and between disciplines.	<p>Throughout the course, students are challenged to think and act intentionally</p> <p>Assess the credibility, accuracy and value of information; Identify audience to whom the information is addressed. Analyze and evaluate information; Make reasoned decisions; Take purposeful action; Identify problems; Think through solutions and alternatives...Question; Use evidence to formulate explanations; Justify, Argue, Debate; Predict; Make Estimates, Form hypotheses</p> <p>The course is rich in connections, within and outside the content area of the course</p> <p>Topics are introduced with integration in mind. Connections among topics within a given discipline are explicitly established. Connection between topics within one given discipline and other disciplines are explored and established, preferably through applied situations. Make pairwise connections (e.g., math-science; science-history, etc), and larger clusters (e.g., art-history-science; art-math-science etc); explore connections, interactions, influences, that run between different ways of seeing and thinking about the world.</p>
Authentic Learning Experiences	Relevant connections are named; application of ideas is discussed	Individual or discrete assignments or assessments require students to connect academic learning to broader understandings in applied settings	<p>The course is highly relevant to students and other stakeholders because of the authentic and creative application of academic learning to important day-to-day realities</p> <p>Proposing academically-driven solutions or advancements to a real audience; Accurately interpreting evidence; Assessing appropriate match of audience and message; Identify/formulating key questions; Identify the salient arguments; original data collection and display; sharing/publication of findings; Conducting extensive research, Ongoing communication with numerous stakeholders; Receiving substantial and ongoing formative feedback during development; Authentic and high-profile culminating presentations and summative assessment.</p>
Instruction	Course materials are presented in interesting ways. Students are invited to participate in class discussions.	Course materials are presented in interesting ways. Students are required to participate in class discussions.	<p>Course instruction is highly student-engaging; students think, communicate, and participate at an uncommonly high level on topics that challenge them to apply knowledge, reason, perform skills, and/or create products</p> <p>Examples of ways such instruction is carried out / promoted/ evaluated: RTOP, Discourse in Inquiry Science, The Learning Cycle, Modeling, "Process Drama" History as debate and multiple perspectives, Cognitively Activating Instruction in Mathematics, Environmental Mode in Writing</p>
Assessment	Students are assessed for content-area knowledge and application	Students are assessed for content-area knowledge and synthesis of ideas	<p>Course assessments move beyond basic knowledge-level multiple-choice formats along to measure students' mastery of reasoning, skill performance, and/or the creation of products</p> <p>Open-ended written essays of reasoning; Research papers; Oral presentations of (individual and group) projects; Science experiment design, execution and reporting; Design a prototype of a sustainable, high-use product; Perform an activity</p>

Fig. 8.1 The Teaching Foundations Project Rubric

Shores (2010) describe courses in mathematical investigations for pre-service teachers that demand students take a more active role in sharing and solving problems with one another. Such a discovery-based approach has been advocated for a variety of subject areas, and there were arguments for and against presumed extreme versions, with fears that the course designs would be process-focused and thus insufficiently rich in content. The Project's only solution was to count on the expertise of course developers, evaluators, and pilot instructors to find the right balance as they worked to meet the descriptors for student engagement in the rubric.

Similarly the Project rubric was informed by work in the sciences by Taylor, Jones, Broadwell, and Oppewal (2008) who contrast scientists' and teachers' perceptions of science education. These findings helped capture the balances between content and pedagogy to which the new curriculum aspired, so that future teachers have applicable content knowledge as well as critical thinking skills from within the disciplines. Lampert's (2007) work on critical thinking dispositions in the arts provided a further example for how this project sought to establish a curriculum that asks future teachers to be creative, to produce and perform works rather than simply consume them. Lampert's work recognizes that problem-solving and higher order thinking is not the unique domain of science, math, logic and philosophy.

The communication- and collaboration-intensive aspects of the rubric reinforced a key value of twenty-first-century education. The Project rubric emphasized the appropriate and substantive use of technology to reinforce several educational objectives: (a) enabling active students individual discovery and construction of knowledge; (b) facilitating the production, performance and/or presentation of what they have learned, thus setting the stage for self-reflective evaluation of their own work and that of peers; (c) communication and sharing of their work with peers to facilitate collaborative editing and production; and (d) finally, the habit of staying current with technology and the new kinds of learning that it may in future enable.

Thus the Teaching Foundations Project rubric constructed the nature of the twenty-first century learner and the kinds of coursework that the leadership collectively believed would prepare teachers for twenty-first century classrooms. Multiple aspects of the rubric are particularly significant for the development of the social studies courses. Hawley, Crowe, and Brooks (2012), suggest that connected learning is critical in a time when students are so often unmoved by, and unlikely to recall, the isolated facts and figures that more typically characterize their education in the core fields within social studies. Darling-Hammond's (2006) analysis of exemplary curricula encourages teachers to develop their students' abilities to solve real-world problems in their concrete richness and cultivate critical thinking in each subject area. And it almost goes without saying that it is essential for twenty-first century teachers to be comfortable with technologies that enable collaboration and communication. These technologies facilitate sharing beyond the walls of the classroom and make students aware of the larger world and facilitate their engagement with it. In addition, for the

social sciences, educational technologies, such as mapping applications and applications that enable data collection, analysis, and presentation would be essential.

Ultimately the Teaching Foundation Project's rubric may appear to be more of a laundry list than a prescription. It was certainly a document that promoted dialogue and collaborative meaning-making far better than it enforced compliance. The Project leadership feared that it would be possible to spend the entire grant period squabbling over terminology, and so chose a different path, one which one leader quipped was evidence that the group was at the early developmental stage of "parallel play." The decision was to move forward with an inclusive rubric where the descriptors could help curriculum designers to each feel a sense of purpose and responsibility to the education of future teachers. The Project had been funded for only one academic semester when the rubric needed to be utilized for summer course design. The available dollars would not wait, nor would the academic calendar and institutional deadlines.

Course Construction

The content of what would become the two required social studies courses—Arizona and United States Social Studies (AZ&US) and World Social Studies (WORLD)—emerged from an ongoing dialogue among the instructors of social studies methods courses. Individuals from across Arizona¹ developed the AZ&US and WORLD course material through the filter of the Project rubric. Leaders and the developers they recruited knew that students typically brought very little basic content knowledge of economics, geography, government, or history to their methods courses. The challenge was to reflect the core disciplines of economics, geography, government, and history in the very limited available course hours.

The course developers were contracted to create instructional content and materials that could be delivered either wholly on-line, hybrid on-line, or in a 15-week face-to-face traditional model. The courses were to describe in detail the instructional activities necessary for "good learning" (the rubric) rather requiring specific texts (a textbook could be recommended) or being dependent on proprietary software platforms or functions that might not be available to all. The Project established an online platform using Moodle (as Learning Management Software) for the courses in order to facilitate course format consistency, interdisciplinary feedback and the formative evaluation process.

¹ Teaching Foundations Project leaders from the Maricopa Community Colleges (Dr. Nora Reyes) and Arizona State University (Dorn) assembled a team that included the Mesa Community College political scientist Brian Dille, ASU historians Jeffrey Bass and Heidi Osselaer, ASU geographers Elizabeth Larson and Ron Dorn, and Arizona Geographic Alliance teacher consultants Diane Godfrey and Gale Ekiss.

Box 8.1 URLs for online lectures for the United States and Arizona, and World Social Studies courses

All Teaching Foundations Project courses are available in the ASU Professional Learning Library: <https://pll.asu.edu>

The lectures associated with the Social Studies Courses discussed in this chapter can be found at this URL: https://pll.asu.edu/p/content/public_page/Social_Studies_Consortium_Resources_-Service_Teachers

Transcripts of all the lectures are available at this URL: <https://www.asu.edu/courses/gcu600/GCU113/113LectureTranscripts/>

The Project leadership recognized that both new courses would have to be teachable by a wide variety of faculty—many serving as adjunct professors and likely bringing varying expertise in history, government, geography, and economics. The course-development team realized that part-time instructors, many experienced K-12 social studies teachers with advanced degrees, would likely end up teaching the vast majority of the students as faculty associates at ASU and as adjuncts in the community colleges. The courses had to have enough flexibility to allow various instructors to mold and modify the content to be able to highlight their individual areas of expertise.

The selected solution became the creation of the two as "flipped classroom" courses, where all instructors would have access to extensive content lectures in the various disciplines of social studies, as well as technology- and writing-rich assignments on which to build. Thus, the team made a decision to develop the other courses for which they had funding as shells that were repositories for a bank of online lectures (Box 8.1; Figs. 8.2 and 8.3): these provided extensive content for required and recommended subjects within the two fully developed courses. The use of the recorded lectures could vary based on the expertise of the instructor.

In the courses (AZ&US and WORLD), the online lectures bank enabled the courses to be delivered online or in a hybrid format. In addition, the original PowerPoint files for these lectures are available to instructors who teach the class face-to-face and wish to use them as a basis for refinement and personalization. The bank of lectures far exceeds the 45-h requirement for content delivery, giving instructors a range of options and giving the aspiring teachers a future resource for when they student teach and then enter professional service. A wealth of materials and classroom activities are available for instructors to adapt and adopt.

Arizona Statement of Rights

Preamble - We the people of the State of Arizona, grateful to Almighty God for our liberties, do ordain this Constitution.

- Constitution is long, easily amended
- Article 2 is Statement of Rights
- 35 sections

Module 11: Arizona Statehood and Constitution
 Brian Dille
 Mesa Community College
 Contact

Outline	Thumb	Notes	Search
Slide Title			Duration
Territoriality and the D...			00:52
Pre-Territoriality			01:18
Spanish Era			01:22
Mexican Era			00:43
Mexican American War			06:36
Territorial Era			03:29
Enabling Act			01:39
Progressive Era Influe...			04:04
Constitution Enacted			01:54
Arizona Statement of ...			02:18
AZ Constitution			02:13
Amending the Constitu...			01:55
Amending the Constitu...			01:40

17 Minutes 29 Seconds Remaining

Thematic Maps

9

Standard 1 - Maps and Other Geographic Representations
 Elizabeth Larson
 Lecturer
 Bio

Outline	Thumb	Notes	Search
Slide Title			Duration
Standard 1: Maps & O...			01:36
Slide 2			01:49
MAPS & OTHER GEOG...			01:53
Slide 4			01:33
EVERY GEOGRAPHIC R...			02:55
The Stories Maps Tell			01:34
More ways to display g...			01:51
Slide 8			01:52
Slide 9			01:46
Maps' limitations & pro...			02:12
Maps' limitations & pro...			01:33

13 Minutes 28 Seconds Remaining

Fig. 8.2 Screenshots of Adobe Presenter lectures from history, Arizona constitution, and geography for the AZ & US class

New Course Content

Ritter (2012) and Sullivan (2011) help to describe the kinds of integrative, value-based social studies curriculum and instruction to which the courses aspire. The AZ&US course development team created materials to both comply with the Teaching Foundation Project rubric and to establish an assignment sequence that would support a theme selected by the instructor. The theme chosen by the course

Ethnic Groups in Afghanistan



Slide 9 / 23 | Stopped 00:00 / 04:38

Central Asia

Elizabeth Lars
Senior Lecturer
Bio

Outline Thumb

Slide Title

- Central Asia
- PowerPoint Presentatio...
- PowerPoint Presentatio...
- PowerPoint Presentatio...
- PowerPoint Presentatio...
- Afghanistan
- Climate of Afghanistan
- PowerPoint Presentatio...
- Ethnic Groups in Afgha...
- Food Insecurity in Afg...

49 Minutes 30 Seconds R

Surrender of Japan



Slide 30 / 33 | Stopped 00:00 / 01:38

Greatest Generation

Jeffrey Bass
History Faculty,
State University
Bio

Outline Thumb Notes

Slide Title

- U.S. War Effort in Europe 0
- Dwight Eisenhower 0
- Invasion of Normandy 0
- Collapse of Nazi Germ... 1
- U.S. War Effort in the P... 0
- Battle of Midway 0
- Fall of Iwo Jima 0
- Use of Atomic Bomb 0
- Surrender of Japan 0
- Homefront 0
- End of World War II 0
- Recommended Primary... 0

6 Minutes 15 Seconds R

Fig. 8.3 Screenshots of Adobe Presenter lectures from geography and history for the WORLD class

development team as a model was immigration and the U.S. Mexico border. History assignments involve primary source readings on the history of the borderlands. Geography assignments task students to map of borderlands utilizing online programs to make a mental map, analyze the region of the U.S./Mexico borderlands, make a population geography map of the borderlands using U.S. Census data, comment on videos of labor issues along the border, chronicle

the history of border changes, identify environmental issues along the border, and view historical maps of the border.

These assignments task students with employing computer-based skills to dig deeper into learning the material. For example, geography standards include developing a basic knowledge of physical geography. Rather than simply teach recognition of basic landforms like straits, one assignment, for example, links physical geography to history through children's books and Google Earth. Then, students are assigned to use Google Earth to find specific landforms, craft an aerial view (as a bird would see the setting), take a screenshot of their creation, and label the image.

The course development team for the WORLD class developed a sequence of assignments that includes analyzing Arizona social studies standards for material taught in grades K-8, and students highlight events/phenomena/regions of little familiarity to them. These shape class assignments and discussions. Recorded lectures for the WORLD class are a mixture of geography, history, world government, and basic economics. The sequence explores different world regions. For example, the geography of Europe naturally fits with lectures on the World Wars, the European Union and NATO, as well as on different types of economic systems.

The culminating assignment requires students to develop a webpage (using <http://www.weebly.com/>) on a country of their choice (Fig. 8.5). This is followed by tasking the students to read *This Fleeting World* by David Christian, and asking students to note information that relates to the region of their selected country.

The rest of the semester design links geography, economics, and world government lectures on different regions to a series of intensive assignments that help build a better understanding of global cultures. Each of the assignments mixes readings on different world cultures, tasks that involve use of data analysis online programs like Gapminder (<http://gapminder.org/>), and ends with students focusing on their identified country's website (Fig. 8.4). Dentith (2011) identifies the significant value of such interdisciplinary work in a course when it arises from the meshing of local focus and global context. Bencze (2010) advocates that teacher educators should focus on helping future elementary teachers develop expertise and motivation to utilize technology in their classrooms with children.

Student use of data analysis and graphic-generator sites like Gapminder often takes significant time and mentoring. Many first-year college students are proficient at basic searching but are not experienced in such tasks as taking screenshots and annotating the imagery. Such basic computer tasks are valuable skills for any teacher. Students in this course use these skills further when they analyze data related to women's health issues on their selected country and compare their data with that of other countries in the region and the globe (Figs. 8.5 and 8.6).

Weaving together lectures and assignments, students complete the culminating assignment by developing a webpage on the social studies (economics, geography, government, history) of their selected country. As a stage in the creation of the

A Tour of Poland

INTRODUCTION POPULATION AND SETTLEMENT CULTURE AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC
GEOGRAPHY AND ENVIRONMENT HISTORY BLOG



A Slideshow Overviewing the Cultural Universals of Poland

Below is a slideshow of pictures to represent the various aspects of the Polish culture and allow for insight into the traditions, religion, cuisine, etc. of the country of Poland.

The Societal Role of Men and Women in the Polish Culture

The role of men and women in the Polish culture almost appear to be very similar to that of the roles of men and women in American society. While women have led substantial societal roles in government and the work industry, beginning heavily in the 1970s, they have been subjective to discrimination amongst the workplace. Value had been placed on how a woman is able to raise her children or take care of her family much like that of our society as well. Males are given more power in Poland and therefore limited the opportunities for women. During the reign of communism, women had to not only provide nurturing for their families but also provide of incomes. Nowadays since the end of communism for Poland, women were seen as being the primary providers and caretakers of the family and therefore their roles should return to the status of wife and mother. (Curtis, 1992).

Map of Poland amidst the rest of European Russia in 1913

Fig. 8.4 Screenshot of a student's website

pages, students share their work with peers in groups of four or five, and evaluate the webpages using a grading rubric. This also fosters a spirit of cooperation, with the stronger students mentoring and guiding weaker ones. This experience is intended to send a warning shot across the bow of less dedicated students by providing exemplars for their websites.

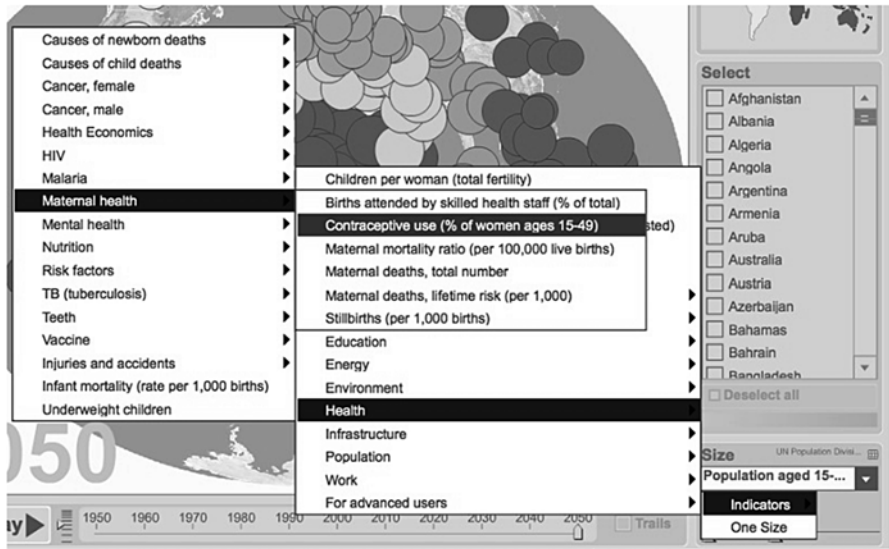


Fig. 8.5 Screenshot of instructions for one of the components of the Gapminder assignment on women’s issues

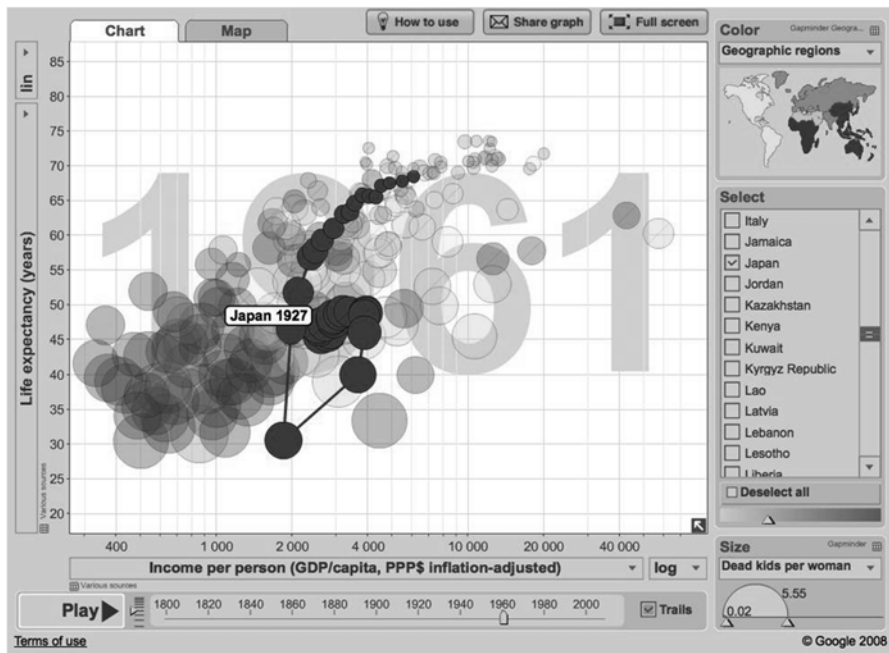


Fig. 8.6 A student work product, where the student’s selected country of Japan is tracked over time for the gruesome numbers of children who have died per each woman

Evaluating Course Quality: External Evaluation, Piloting, and On-going Course Reconstruction

The course development process proved tricky and labor-intensive to manage. There were useful discussions about what even constituted a “course”: what components an instructor had a right to expect, and what supports or explanations needed to accompany materials in order for them to be taught effectively by someone other than the course developer. Significant concerns arose about the notion of an “adjunct-ready” course, especially if the instructor did not bring both content-area expertise and some sensitivity or awareness of the needs of future teachers. These questions led to important discussions about the scope and sequence of the overall curriculum under design, but such issues were frequently beyond the purview of the Project.

External Evaluation

As the course materials were being prepared for piloting—being scrutinized by institutional committees and reviewed by potential instructors—they received external evaluation from content-area teacher preparation experts and teacher-leaders from across the country. The external evaluators were recruited from teacher colleges and education departments, and the TFP also invited outstanding K-12 educators from the Teacher Leaders Network² to join in this critical conversation and add more perspectives from K-12 education.

The external evaluation process opened up for scrutiny the assumptions the Project leadership and course developers were making about how the courses would be translated from design to delivery. In the case of veteran faculty who were re-visioning familiar curriculum, it was necessary and taxing for them to be transparent in some of their intentions and explicit in their instructional designs.

Using the established TFP rubric, the reviewers commented on evidence of quality in terms of content rigor; communication- and collaboration-intensive assignments, inquiry-based activities promoting critical thinking, technology use, and how well each course reflected national standards for pre-K-8 education. There was a plan for accountability in having course development carried out “in a fish-bowl,” but course developers were not always comfortable with the scrutiny of their instructional planning. In the case of the social studies courses, the hours and hours of recorded lectures were found to be accurate if not always compelling in their performances; the assignments were praised for their interdisciplinary rigor

²Established in 1999 by what is now the Center for Teaching Quality (Carrboro, NC), this group began as a listserv for highly accomplished and nationally recognized teachers. The purpose of the network continues to be elevating the voices of expert teachers on issues of education policy and practice. The CTQ Collaboratory networks thousands of teachers in a teacher leadership “**action tank**.” <http://www.teachingquality.org/collaboratory>

and intellectual demands, even as the planned options for delivery of the course proved complicated to explain.

The process of external evaluation of the social studies courses led to substantial changes in terms of the identification of additional resources, alternative ways to assess students in online versus face-to-face formats, and a different way of thinking about social studies instruction. These external evaluations came to the course development team about the same time as initial insights from the piloting instructors.

Pilot Instruction

For six academic semesters, the Teaching Foundations Project paid supplemental stipends to more than 100 instructors (of some 3500 students at 15 different higher education institutions) to pilot the course materials developed by the five consortia. For social studies, nine different pilot instructors taught the AZ&US course in both online and face-to-face formats; four different instructors taught the WORLD course also in these varying formats. The AZ&US and WORLD courses were immediately popular with students from many disciplines seeking to meet the general education requirements, and instructors had full enrollment in all offered sections. But as a further example of the challenges of navigating the institutional approval processes, 2012–2013 was the first year that the revised and reformed courses were *required* of students in the BAE program at Arizona State and fully articulated with the community colleges. As a result, Teaching Foundations Project pilot courses were only then populated with future elementary teachers in the later years of the grant.

The Project's pilot instructors utilized an online Professional Learning Library, described further below, to distribute project research information to all students, access all course materials (transferring them as necessary to other learning management systems, such as Blackboard), and to review professional development and related supporting materials for understanding the course materials as part of the Teaching Foundations Project. Pilot instructors reported on their progress with teaching the curriculum, described modifications and adaptations, and posted examples of assignments or other additions to the course, along with their perceptions of impact on student understanding.

A differently envisioned project might have spent more of its resources on professional development for using the course materials. In this case the Project rubric that informed the curriculum design was intended to also guide instructors to make autonomous and arguably accountable decisions about their teaching strategies. It is fair to characterize the Project's message as this: *we know that you, individual pilot instructor and veteran teacher of this material, are already doing a wonderful job. But help us fix the curriculum so that others using these materials will get results that are as good.*

Ongoing Modification

Pilot instructors made modifications to the courses in order to fit their own backgrounds (e.g. experienced elementary school teacher, experienced high school teacher, professor of geography, history or political science). Each semester assignments were tweaked and readings changed. However, the basic structure and concept remains true: the course meets the designated graduation requirements faithfully and also provides a rich content base of knowledge for the aspiring teachers.

The online instructors made the fewest modifications to the material. This is easy to understand, because of the greater reliance on the bank of lectures (Table 8.1) and the online assignments. These courses also utilize a grading program (<http://www.gradeify.com/>) that facilitates student creation of, for instance, annotated imagery modified by free online photo editing software (e.g. making maps, Gapminder products). The Gradeify program also stores feedback to students, so that lengthy explanations on how to correct typical undergraduate writing issues can be re-used. Newly modified feedback can be stored as variations in a rich bank of comments, and instructors can even embed imagery in their feedback.

The greatest modifications to the courses have occurred with the face-to-face instructors, where faculty eschew the online lectures and present the material in their own style, sometimes using the provided PowerPoints and other times developing their presentations. Most have chosen to emphasize their particular discipline: historians focusing more on historical thinking, geographers emphasizing spatial thinking, and political scientists emphasizing critical analysis of governmental issues. In-class work and dynamic discussions may substitute for more mundane online assignments. However, even the face-to-face instructors still utilize the Gradeify program, because it facilitates evaluation of student digital products and greatly increases grading efficiency.

A further example of a modified AZ&US course was a section offered as a freshman cluster, combined with other courses and especially for future educators. As co-taught by two highly experienced elementary educators, the students in this hybrid version of the AZ&US viewed the lectures online, and class time was used to enhance the online learning with activities that increased relevance and understanding of the weekly material. Because the students were aspiring teachers, the in-class instruction focused on learning social studies information (content) in an engaging and meaningful way.

In these hybrid class face-to-face meetings, topics included:

- Discussing particular primary and secondary sources using the strategy of close reading.
- Reading children's literature and discussing the integration of literacy skills with social studies content, noting how good pieces of literature are great springboards to a social studies lesson.
- Sharing the resources found at various social studies websites such as American Memories at the Library of Congress, iCivics.org, National Geographic for Educators, KAET Channel 8 Arizona Stories, and Arizona Geographic Alliance.

- Demonstrating and practicing using technology tools (Google Earth, TimeToast, Glogster, screen shots) on their own electronic devices.
- Providing additional power points, maps and other visuals to convey information about the social studies content.
- Viewing a CD on border issues, *Crossing Arizona*, to give the students access to oral and visual information that was current and pertinent to the immigration issues in Arizona.
- Using K-8 lessons to teach social studies content, thus having the AZ&US students participate in the lessons with their classmates, and modeling exemplary lessons to help them envision the components of a good lesson for when they are eventually exposed to pedagogy in their social studies methods classes.

The Professional Learning Library (PLL)

Each semester, and with the inclusion of various new faculty, the courses continue to evolve wherever they are taught. The Teaching Foundations Project courses are publicly available in the ASU Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College Professional Learning Library (<https://pll.asu.edu>). Developed under the same federal funding, the PLL is an online interactive space, and the Teachers College has since absorbed much of the costs into its budget, so that it is sustainable even as it continues to court grant funding for further innovation.

Each Teaching Foundations Project course includes all the explanations/supporting materials needed for a qualified adjunct to be able to teach with no other professional development and within a short timeframe. Users can find and access learning resources, participate in informal and formal professional learning, connect with other educators locally and across the globe in interest-based communities, and share ideas and learning resources all in one venue. The PLL is a rich resource for the potential or veteran instructors of a content-area course populated by future teachers. In addition, K-8 teacher candidates and veteran teachers can search easily for materials that support learning in the content areas. Access to the PLL supports Arizona teacher certification test preparation, content-area reviews, and school-based curriculum building. Each course is searchable using the Project rubric terms and national (CCSS) and AZ standards.

Impact on Social Studies Methods Courses and Beyond

Thus far, institutional cooperation within ASU has resulted in the courses being cross-listed in history and geography—allowing both disciplines to receive students who will then complete professional studies in the Teachers College. In contrast, cooperation between ASU and the community colleges on these two courses has not been widespread. This is not for a lack of trying amongst the disciplinary areas of

geography, history, and political science—where faculty have put the AZ&US course on the books and teach the class. The problem with systemic adoption rests with the community college advisors who have yet to relinquish the typical or traditional courses that they recommend. There is no incentive for them to vary what they have always done in recommending courses that meet the articulation agreements, even if these still do not teach the core knowledge areas of economics, history, geography, or government. The differences in lower-division course work have intensified the disparity in core knowledge amongst transfer students and ASU students in their social studies methods course.

The methods instructors in the Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College, fortunately, have the bank of online lectures in the PLL. Thus, when a less knowledgeable student is to develop a lesson on a topic, the online lecture and associated readings and activities exist as a ready resource.

The students taking the courses are fully aware of the online lectures that they can and do access during student teaching. Anecdotal e-mails sent by former AZ&US and WORLD students undergoing student teaching indicate the value of the full set of lectures, as they prepare to teach this material. Their mentor teachers have also written e-mails asking permission to share particular lectures with colleagues in districts, and they are told that full access exists in the PLL. Some of the mentor teachers have noted that they let their students watch these lectures as enrichment activities at home. Teaching Foundations Project course materials may enable veteran teachers to rejuvenate their content-area knowledge as well as support new teachers who may have identified content-area knowledge areas that need reinforcement.

Evidence of Impact on K-8 Schools: Directions for Further Research

All the work of the Teaching Foundations Project was intended to make a substantial and measurable contribution to the Arizona teacher pipeline, but as a grant-funded entity, the TFP has come to an end. Because the TQE grant included investment in teacher and student data-tracking infrastructure for the University (which provides at least one third of the teachers in the state) and Arizona's Department of Education, the Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College is beginning to follow future teachers who complete the reformed courses and measure their impact on students in the state.

Teaching Foundations Project leadership believe the goal of coursework creating “great learners” is possible. As one student wrote about an AZ&US course assignment, *“as I got the hang of it, the use of Google Earth became a fun way to learn. I enjoyed trying to find the different pictures and manipulate them to the correct viewpoint. It allows for the students to witness and view the cool beauty of the Earth, while learning, and without ever actually having been there.”*

Another student was similarly impressed by the opportunity to take future students on virtual field trips: “I really enjoyed this assignment. I had used Google Earth once before, just to look my house up. But I had never used it to look up landforms and streams. It was fun to put in the location and then zoom in a really get a good idea of what the stream or landform looked like. I think this is an effective tool that can be used in a classroom to show kids what landforms look like without having to travel there. It’s like going on a field trip without actually leaving the classroom!”

Further research is needed to demonstrate the quality of each Teaching Foundations Project course and its impact on undergraduates, but the courses are available and created materials are being accessed globally. Further research efforts should be able to demonstrate that future teachers benefit from the activities and materials in the courses, both in terms of their disciplinary understanding as well as in their ability to explicate knowledge for their own (eventual) K-8 students. Project leadership continues to advocate for strong undergraduate content-area preparation of future teachers through community college partnerships and outreach to Arizona schools and beyond.

The Teaching Foundations Project illustrates the opportunities and challenges in aligning different institutions in shared commitments to teacher preparation. In this case of promoting social studies content knowledge for future teachers, it is clear that taking responsibility for better teacher preparation requires giving up some autonomy and cooperating with diverse faculty and programs. The case further suggests that having federal resources as a lever for change is a blessing, but also a constraint, particularly in terms of the pace of change that accepting the funding requires. Institutional commitments (including ones that promote collaboration) are the only way that changes spurred by funding can be sustained. Finally, the identification and operationalization of theories about the content and learning experiences needed by future elementary teachers is necessary and complex work.

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Chapter 9

Overcoming Problems of Marginalization by Reimagining Elementary Social Studies Programs

Annie McMahon Whitlock, Kristy A. Brugar, and Anne-Lise Halvorsen

Scholars agree that one of the most significant challenges facing elementary social studies education is its marginalization in the elementary school schedule, especially following the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (e.g., Fitchett & Heafner, 2010; Passe, 2006; VanFossen, 2005). The marginalization of elementary social studies also has implications for social studies teacher education because elementary teacher candidates see few examples of curriculum design, instruction, and assessment in social studies. Much of what teacher candidates learn about teaching elementary social studies is confined to their teacher preparation programs, which can be limiting in its application (Passe, 2006). As such, teachers are often not well-prepared to teach social studies education. Like other social studies educators, we bemoan the marginalization of social studies education, however, rather than dwell on these problems, we sought to circumvent them by redesigning social studies methods courses to refocus educators' commitments to social studies education.

This chapter describes two approaches for undergraduate social studies methods courses in our elementary teacher preparation programs. We first situate our program redesign approaches in the literature on elementary social studies education, social studies teacher education, and the teacher preparation (i.e., college of university coursework)-field connection. We then describe two ways of creatively reimagining

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social studies methods courses: (1) a school-based course in elementary social studies methods and (2) a year-long block of social studies and literacy methods taught with an instructor looping with students. We have found these approaches to be successful, in different ways, in foregrounding skills and knowledge for citizenship in meaningful ways. Both emphasize the benefits of integrating social studies in authentic ways and engaging teacher candidates in twenty-first century skills for citizenship such as critical thinking, collaborating, cross-disciplinary thinking, accessing information and evaluating its credibility, and communicating—skills that teacher candidates can then teach their future students. We have also found the approaches to be effective in making a strong connection to the world of practice and to the realities of fitting social studies into a crowded elementary school day. In these descriptions, we also explain challenges instructors and students have faced. We conclude with lessons learned, areas for further research, and suggestions for others who wish to implement either of these approaches or some variation of them in their teacher preparation programs.

In this era in which teacher education is under attack, these two approaches to social studies respond to some of the criticisms in practical ways. While they are not panaceas for the marginalization of elementary social studies, these approaches work within the existing elementary school day structure to offer possibilities for creatively and effectively bringing much needed attention to elementary social studies. In the near future, elementary social studies will not likely increase its share of the elementary school day (in fact, it may continue to decrease), so educators need to seek opportunities to find alternative pathways to infuse knowledge, skills, and values for democratic citizenship into the curriculum outside of social studies instruction.

Literature Review

We draw on three research streams to inform our analysis of the two approaches: elementary social studies education, particularly integrative approaches; social studies teacher education; and the relationship between teacher preparation coursework and the field.

Elementary Social Studies Education

Of the four academic areas taught in the elementary school, social studies receives the least amount of instructional time (Fitchett & Heafner, 2010; VanFossen, 2005). Moreover, the research on elementary social studies is limited: while studies exist that examine students' understandings of social concepts (e.g., Brophy & Alleman, 2006), studies on curricular effectiveness of elementary social studies programs are scant (Brophy & Alleman, 2008; Halvorsen, 2013). We do not have a clear understanding of what approaches best teach social education concepts or prepare students for civic readiness.

However, we do know that integrative approaches to social studies education are becoming more widely used in elementary classrooms and have potential (Alleman & Brophy, 2010). When done well, integration has the power to teach social studies and other subjects, particularly literacy, effectively (Halvorsen, Alleman, & Brugar, 2013). Moreover, the integration of history/social studies is recommended by the English Language Arts Common Core State Standards (ELA CCSS) (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices [NGA] & Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO], 2010), which emphasizes the teaching of literacy in conjunction with history/social studies and other subjects. Additionally, the National Council for the Social Studies' College, Career, and Civic Readiness (C3) Framework (National Council for Social Studies [NCSS], 2013), a guide for states to use in developing social studies standards, emphasizes both connections to the ELA CCSS and the value of integrating literacy and social studies.

We do know that effective integration with social studies is not easy; often the goals of social studies are de-emphasized or masked. However, when done well, integration has the potential to teach both subjects effectively as well as meaningfully and authentically (Alleman & Brophy, 2010; Halvorsen et al., 2013). Although research on the relationship between integrated social studies and student achievement is limited, there is a great deal of scholarship on the effectiveness of curricular integration, particularly with literacy and science, demonstrating positive outcomes (e.g., Goldschmidt, 2009; Vitale & Romance, 2011). One study on integrated social studies demonstrates the potential for integration to raise student achievement in both social studies and literacy (Halvorsen et al., 2012). Given social studies' marginalized place in the elementary curriculum, integration is often the primary means by which social studies is taught, pointing to another reason to explore the possibilities of and potential for curricular integration.

Social Studies Teacher Education

Like elementary social studies education, social studies teacher preparation can be neglected or overlooked, particularly compared to literacy or mathematics teacher preparation. Often, methods courses are not taught by social studies educators (Passe, 2006). In some cases, they are taught by education generalists or by social science professors, the latter particularly at small colleges. While both generalists and social science professors bring areas of expertise to these courses, generalists may not have specialized knowledge in social science knowledge and skills and social science professors may not have pedagogical content knowledge or knowledge of developmental psychology, both of which are necessary for teaching elementary subjects. In these cases, teacher candidates may not receive adequate training to teach elementary social studies (Passe, 2006).

Unfortunately, social studies teacher education, like social studies education more generally, is not well-researched. In particular, we know little about approaches that are effective in building teacher candidates' pedagogical content knowledge.

Scholarship that exists tends to be action-based or self-study, which do not allow generalizations to be drawn about the effectiveness of approaches or practices (Adler, 2008). However, these studies shed light on what teacher education looks like and how teacher candidates respond to it, which are important for understand what works according to instructors and their students. For example, in one study about teacher candidates' responses to the learning about a science, technology, society (STS) project in their science and social studies methods courses, Milson and King (2001) found that while the teachers candidates saw the value of an integrated approach, they were less likely to design lessons focused on topics from the STS project because they deemed the topics too controversial and because they had difficulty with scientific inquiry and civic decision-making. Studies like this affirm the importance of providing teacher candidates the opportunities to implement the approaches they learn in their classrooms in classroom settings to see, first-hand, both their affordances and constraints.

What we know from the research base on teacher education more generally is that when teacher candidates make connections across courses, their learning of pedagogical content knowledge is deeper (Feiman-Nemser, 2012). Unfortunately, most teacher preparation programs offer little coherence across courses. "Separate courses taught by individual faculty in different departments rarely build on or connect to one another, nor do they add up as a coherent preparation for teaching" (Feiman-Nemser, 2012, p. 112).

Relationship between Teacher Preparation Coursework and the Field

The problem of coherence extends beyond teacher preparation courses. Additionally (and some would argue even more problematically), most teacher preparation programs struggle to build connections between the content and skills taught in teacher preparation courses and teacher candidates' experiences in the classroom. Often, teacher candidates devalue the work in their teacher preparation courses in favor of the practical, hands-on learning offered in their field placements (Levine, 2006). As Feiman-Nemser argues, "The weak relationship between courses and field experiences is further evidence of the overall lack of coherence" (Feiman-Nemser, 2012, p. 112). Despite recognizing that this lack of coherence is a problem, many teacher preparation programs continue to struggle with making meaningful connections between the coursework and the field.

To help bridge the connection between the university and the field, Kenneth Zeichner (2009) promotes the use of a "third space," in which participants reject the notion that knowledge and understandings are confined to single spaces and instead embrace meaningful integration across them. Third spaces in teacher education involve hybrid spaces located between the university and the field. Several models attempting to bridge these connections exist, such as bringing classroom teachers

into university classes (as teacher residents), using Web-based representations of classroom practice in methods courses and holding methods courses in a professional development school (Zeichner, 2009). Creating this third space requires shifting a focus away from academic knowledge as the sole or privileged source of authority and instead to valuing clinical and academic knowledge equally (Zeichner, 2009, p. 95).

Recently, teacher educators in one institution successfully relocated a secondary social studies methods course to a middle school (Aponte-Martinez & Kenyon, 2014). This relocation in a “third space” conferred a number of benefits including helping the course instructor be more attuned to the realities of schools (e.g., the role of high-stakes testing), a constant grounding of theory in practice in the methods course, the use of innovative pedagogical approaches such as lesson study, and a stronger sense of community and deeper relationships among students, the instructor, and the mentor teacher (Aponte-Martinez & Kenyon).

The two approaches we describe next address some of the challenges facing elementary social studies teacher education programs by reimagining the relationship between the teacher preparation coursework and the field.

Kristy’s Approach: A Site-Based Methods Course

Description

Teacher candidates often have few opportunities to observe social studies instruction in action as part of their pre-student teaching or student teaching experiences, and the instruction they see can tend to be textbook-based (Brophy & Alleman, 2008). These observations of current practice mirror teacher candidates’ experiences with social studies education as elementary students. When I asked my students to recall and reflect on their memories of social studies, they say, “I had to memorize the states and capitals” or “We re-enacted the first Thanksgiving” or “I don’t think we did social studies.” The teacher candidates’ lack of opportunities to see high-quality instruction and their disappointing recollections led me to introduce videos of high-quality instruction (e.g., *Social Studies in Action*, WGBH Educational Foundation (Producer), 2003). From this collection of videos, the teacher candidates selected an elementary social studies lesson of interest to them. I asked the them to respond to the following questions while watching the videos: (1) What are the students learning? (2) What evidence do you have that the students are learning? (3) What is the teacher doing to facilitate learning? (4) What surprised/concerned you about the lesson you watched? After watching the videos, the teacher candidates engaged in conversations about the breadth of social studies content and the types of tasks young children were being asked to do. Even with this opportunity for conversation, they had questions. They wanted to know “who are these students?” and “are their social studies lessons always like this?”

These questions and teacher candidates' interest in better understanding instructional moves and decisions, student learning, and the classroom context motivated me to design a new model for a methods course that would provide opportunities for teacher candidates to see social studies in action and to be able to get answers to the questions they asked while viewing the videos. In this model, an elementary social studies methods course was held in a local elementary school. It was designed to facilitate teacher candidates' development of twenty-first century skills including, critical thinking, collaborating, and communicating. The purpose of offering this site-based course was to provide the teacher candidates the opportunity to (1) see high-quality social studies in action; (2) engage with students and teachers in authentic learning spaces; and (3) develop new perspectives on the relationship between literacy and social studies.

Context

The model was adopted in the sole required (three-credit) social studies methods class in the teacher educator program for elementary education majors at a large university in an urban center in the Midwest. Teacher candidates enrolled in the program are both traditional (full-time, recent high school graduates) as well as non-traditional students (part time and/or career change students). The brief catalogue description for this course reads: "Social studies program in elementary and middle schools emphasizing intellectual, social and affective development. Designing programs based on social priorities, modern socioeconomic, cultural, ethnic, and political concepts."

There is no required sequence of courses in the program, so students may enroll in this course in their first semester in the college of education, their last (just prior to student teaching), or anywhere in between. The students who selected this site-based methods course represented this span and included several students who had not yet been admitted to the college of education (those students received a special waiver). The teacher candidates reported a variety of reasons for enrolling in this section including, but not limited to: gaining experience working with children, spending more time in schools, receiving encouragement from their academic advisor, and attending classes located closer to their homes. Twenty-three teacher candidates enrolled in this section.

For this site-based course, a majority of the class sessions were held at Key Elementary School, a K-5 school enrolling about 500 students and located about 15 miles from campus. The school's student population generally reflects the state's racial diversity (63 % white, 23 % African American, and 8 % Hispanic) (Michigan Department of Education, 2012–2013). At Key, 72 % of the students at Key are eligible for free or reduced lunch program, considerably higher than the state average of 48 %. I selected Key Elementary as the site for this course because of my research relationship with the school and because I knew social studies was consistently taught in all classrooms.

Course Organization/Set-Up

The course met for 13 sessions in the semester (approximately 3-h sessions). For this adaption of the course, 2 sessions (the first and the last) were held at the university, 10 were held at Key Elementary, and 1 was held at a local history museum during an elementary school break. As part of the 10 sessions taught at Key, each teacher candidate (often in groups of five or fewer) spent approximately 40 min in K-5 classrooms. Because this course is not identified as a formal “field experience” as defined by the college/university, I had flexibility with how I used the course time. For the first several weeks at Key Elementary, each teacher candidate was assigned to a different classroom each week so that they had exposure to and experience with the different grade levels, teaching styles, social studies content, and student abilities. In the later part of the semester, teacher candidates were assigned to one classroom (kindergarten, third grade, or fifth grade) in order to establish relationships with students, implement and design instructional opportunities, and to have exposure to observing students’ growth over a short period of time. This variety of classroom experiences has the potential to engage teacher candidates in more student-centered and research-based practices (Slekar, 1998).

How the Approach Worked and What Teacher Candidates Gained

Social Studies in Action

In each session held at Key Elementary, teacher candidates were sent into various classrooms to observe social studies in action. These observations included identifying and describing social studies materials, observing whole class instruction, and participating in or assisting with whole group instruction.

Early in semester, I wanted students to become familiar with the social studies materials available for students and teachers in Key Elementary. During initial classroom observations, the teacher candidates surveyed the materials in the school hallways and classrooms. I assigned the students to offer some observations and interpretations about social studies education using their surveys of materials. For example, one teacher candidate noted biography projects displayed and hypothesized that an individual’s contributions to community may be an important part of life at Key Elementary. Another teacher candidate identified student rules that differed among classrooms. She wondered that individual rights may be important for both students and teachers. A third teacher candidate observed a variety of maps displayed around the building and wondered if the ability for the elementary students to get from place to place independently was important.

Teacher candidates had many opportunities to observe whole-class instruction. In order to help them focus these observations, I asked teacher candidate to think

about (1) the organization of the classroom; (2) what the students were learning and how they know the students learned it; (3) the ways in which the classroom teacher promoted the development of skills and the acquisition of content; and (4) the questions they would ask the teacher about the lesson (time permitting).

As the semester progressed, I encouraged teacher candidates to take a more active role in classroom instruction. Their involvement varied based on the classroom teachers' expectations and prompting as well as the kinds of instructional activities taught in the class. For example, a fifth-grade teacher assigned the teacher candidates to different areas of the classroom and gave them specific tasks. During one session, the teacher candidates partnered with small groups of students and drafted poems to commemorate Black History Month. A third-grade teacher encouraged the teacher candidates to sit among her students and take part in the lesson and assist students with whom they were sitting. A first-grade teacher allowed the teacher candidates to move freely around the classroom during the lesson and ask students questions and helping where and when they felt they could.

Engaging in Authentic Learning Spaces

In addition to observations in a variety of classrooms, teacher candidates were also provided with extended opportunities in one classroom (four class sessions). Teacher candidates were equally distributed among three classrooms: kindergarten, third, and fifth-grade, and two were placed in a third/fourth-split-grade classroom. In the latter part of the semester, they taught two social studies lessons: one lesson designed by me (the university instructor) and one lesson they designed (or co-designed with classmates) based on a topic assigned by the classroom teacher to which the teacher candidate had been assigned in the latter part of the semester.

Instructor-Created Lessons

I created two lessons (one for third-grade and one for fifth-grade) based on both the classroom teachers' curricular needs and the elementary social studies methods course goals. With these curricular needs in mind, I designed lessons using children's literature to promote the introduction and use of social studies skills. Thus I planned a third-grade lesson around *Mapping Penny's World* (Leedy, 2003) and map components. *Mapping Penny's World* (Leedy, 2003) is realistic fiction using a narrative informational structure. The fifth-grade lesson focused on comparing time periods using *Wagons Ho!* (Hallowell, Holub, & Avril, 2011). This book is both realistic and historical fiction and uses a compare and contrast structure. Both texts are National Council for the Social Studies Notable Trade Books.

The teacher candidates were asked to bring a copy of the children's book (course-required reading) and were given a copy of the lesson plan for the grade level in which they were doing their extended observations. This lesson was the first lesson

(social studies or otherwise) many of the teacher candidates were asked to teach so it was important to scaffold the experience for them. Thus prior to teaching the lesson, the teacher candidates were told to independently read through the lesson plan provided and to note any questions or concerns. Next, teacher candidates were paired and prompted to “teach” the lesson and provide feedback to one another. For example after listening to one teacher candidate read *Mapping Penny’s World*, her partner noted that she enjoyed the teacher candidate’s voices used to portray the different characters but felt she read too fast. She suggested that the teacher candidate slow down when reading to the third-graders and consider asking students some questions during reading. *Wagons Ho!* tells two stories simultaneously, moving between 1846 Oregon and the present using comparative cartoon frames. One teacher candidate read the story page by page (e.g. all family members travelling in 1846 and then all family members travelling in the present) while her partner read the story frame by frame (e.g. Jenny, 1846 compared to Katie in the present; Mama, 1846 compared to Mom in the present). They discussed the merits of each approach and ultimately, each teacher candidate blended the approach when they taught their group of fifth-graders.

Then, the teacher candidates taught the lesson to a group of five to eight students who were selected by the classroom teacher. Finally, teacher candidates returned to the methods class to de-brief about their experiences. Overall, the teacher candidates had positive experiences: they were excited to work more closely with students and reported that the students responded enthusiastically to the lessons. One notable challenge was space. Because several teacher candidates were placed in each classroom, they taught small groups of students simultaneously. So teacher candidates conducted their lessons at the students’ desks but others had to conduct their lessons on the floor in the classroom, libraries, and hallways.

Teacher Candidate-Created Lessons

After the teacher candidates taught the instructor-created lesson, I assigned them to design and teach a lesson on a topic assigned by the classroom teacher in which they were doing multiple observations. Teacher candidates were distributed evenly to kindergarten, third-grade, and fifth-grade classrooms. The topics were as follows: an economics lesson on trade (kindergarten), a history lesson on pioneers of Michigan (third grade) and a history lesson on the debates for independence during the American Revolution (fifth grade). Each teacher candidate drafted a lesson, received written feedback from peers and me, practiced teaching the lesson with a small group of peers and received verbal feedback, and finally taught the lesson to a small group of elementary students (five to eight).

For the teacher candidates teaching the kindergarten lesson, the only guidance the classroom teacher gave them was to teach a lesson on trade. The teacher candidates had observed previous lessons in the classroom and were aware of other social studies and economic concepts with which the kindergarteners were familiar, (e.g. barter, goods, services). Across the board, the teacher candidates grounded their

lessons in the kindergarteners' prior knowledge of economics concepts. In addition, a majority of the lessons incorporated children's literature in which the concept of trade (or barter) was featured. Prior to developing their lesson, two teacher candidates reviewed the district curricular materials that I had introduced in the methods class and had been mentioned by several of the classroom teachers during the teacher candidates' observations. As they explored these materials, the teacher candidates came across a recommended realistic fiction text entitled, *Was It a Good Trade?* (De Regniers, 2002). Based on the description, the teacher candidates were excited to read and share this with their group of kindergarten students. However once they identified this text, they had a difficult time finding it. The book was out-of-print, no copies were available in the Key Elementary library, and it was not part of the school-wide teacher resources. After more than a week of searching, they were able to find a copy of the text through an inter-library loan and successfully used it in their lesson. In reflection of their lesson, these teacher candidates focused on the challenges of finding resources in order to create engaging social studies experiences for elementary students.

The teacher candidates working in third grade had observed their students learning about the early migration to Michigan by Europeans. In contrast to their counterparts teaching kindergarten, these teacher candidates drew on students' prior knowledge on migration to Michigan and "pioneers." Having recently taken a required course on the state of Michigan, many teacher candidates in this course felt comfortable with their own knowledge and understanding of present-day Michigan (in terms of its geography and economics), they expressed less confidence in their understanding of nineteenth-century Michigan. As result, several teacher candidates used this as a learning opportunity: they identified that there was a need to build their content knowledge on this subject and sought out grade-level narrative informational text to do so. Three teacher candidates found and used *Settling in Michigan* (Deur & Ellens, 1992). One teacher candidate used this text to build her content knowledge in order to develop her lesson; a second teacher candidate used the text as a read-aloud for her lesson and vocabulary builder; and a third teacher candidate, Sarah, used the text as a "jumping off point" in her lesson. Sarah introduced the topic and text to her "class" (five to eight students) to the text by reading a short passage. Then she noted that the passages she read included comments by real people who travelled to Michigan in the nineteenth century. She went on to explain that historians are people who study the past and this is an example of a primary source." Through the lesson, Sarah's students were able to read short primary sources about a variety of people and their motivations for travelling to Michigan. In this lesson, Sarah used what she had learned in the earlier in this methods course (e.g. working with primary and secondary sources, presenting different points of view, aspects of the inquiry arc) (NCSS, 2013; NGA & CCSSO, 2010) and reflected on these more student-centered practices which did not reflect her elementary school experiences.

To create the fifth-grade lesson on the debates for American independence, the teacher candidates were encouraged by the classroom teacher to investigate the current chapter in the textbook, *History Alive! America's Past* (Bower, 2003). After

reading the chapter, I encouraged the teacher candidates to explore some of the online resources available to supplement the text. Across the seven lessons created, all the teacher candidates sought to have students take sides (for or against independence from Great Britain) and engage students in conversation. One teacher candidate assigned each of her students a particular point of view to argue. Another teacher candidate asked her students to complete a t-chart of the reasons for and against independence followed by a conversation about using evidence when making an argument.

New Perspectives on Literacy/Social Studies

Through these lessons, the teacher candidates were able to engage with students and teachers around elementary social studies instruction, in particular social studies instruction that integrated literacy. Over the course of the semester, the teacher candidates were able to observe and enact multiple examples of literacy being integrated into social studies instruction (e.g. the Black History Month poem, reading children's literature as part of a social studies lesson). I placed an emphasis on finding and using texts that included accurate social studies content, skills, and ideas. The teacher candidates were introduced to many different texts (e.g. genres, structures, levels) as part of the university course and were able to experience various texts with elementary students. They gained an appreciation for the thoughtful integration of these materials to enhance their social studies instruction.

Challenges to the Approach

Two challenges arose with this site-based elementary social studies methods course: scheduling and quality control. Scheduling is a constant challenge for all teachers (from pre-K to the university level). I found that scheduling for site-based experiences required a great deal of flexibility (on my part and the part of teacher candidates). Although social studies was taught in all classrooms at Key Elementary, not all teachers taught social studies at the same time. As a result, I planned my course activities around when the teacher candidates were able to be the elementary classrooms observing and/or participating in social studies instruction. I needed to plan to present information in a variety of ways, and occasionally multiple times, in order for students to walk away from class with similar experiences.

A second challenge I encountered was the consistent quality of the classroom experiences for the teacher candidates. As I mentioned earlier, I selected Key Elementary for this site-based course because I had a previous research experience there. I had an opportunity to be in several classrooms, observe many teachers, and I was confident my teacher candidates would have positive experiences there. However some of the classroom teachers' lessons that teacher candidates observed

did not reflect many (or any) of the qualities of powerful social studies: meaningful, integrative, value-based, challenging, and active (National Council for Social Studies [NCSS], 2008). As a result, I needed to frame post-observations conversation to not simply criticize the practices the teacher candidates observed but to push the teacher candidates to think about why each classroom teacher made the curricular and pedagogical decisions for the lesson. Because I was at on-site with my teacher candidates, I was able to observe portions of lessons with them. Thus in post-observation conversation, I was able to provide some insight based on my experiences as a former classroom teacher, teacher educator, and researcher in several of these classrooms.

Lessons Learned

As a result of these experiences, teacher candidates learned a variety of skills and content knowledge in different ways than they would in a university-based methods course.

- *Gain an “insider view” of social studies instruction*

In this course, teacher candidates learned to critically reflect on social studies teaching and learning in ways that are different from a classroom on a university campus. They observed and questioned the classroom teachers’ instructional moves (e.g. use of student groups; student independence in the classroom). In this school context, teacher candidates were able to grapple with the overt and covert social studies instruction they observe through teacher-student and student-student interaction and the school environment print (e.g. posters, student work and displays).

- *Better understand the range of elementary students*

In my experience, many teacher candidates enter into their social studies methods course with firm feelings about particular grade level or age they wish to teach. These feelings are often based on a singular university field experience, brief stint of substitute teaching, or experiences working with children in an informal educational setting (e.g. summer camp, one-to-one tutoring). The variety of observations and participatory experiences the teacher candidates had as part of this site-based course enabled them to more critically evaluate their interests and contributions in an elementary school, and to broaden the range of grades they would consider teaching.

- *Better understand the capabilities of elementary students*

During participatory observations, the teacher candidates witnessed young children working independently and asking and answering higher-order questions. Several teacher candidates noted that these experiences impacted their ideas of what elementary-aged students are capable of doing and the expectations they will have for their future students.

Annie's Approach: Looping with a Cohort of Teacher Candidates

In the elementary classroom, integrating social studies and literacy content can be powerful for enhancing instruction in both subjects (Alleman & Brophy, 2010; Halvorsen et al., 2013). We also know that integrating these subjects is not an easy task for teachers to do effectively (Alleman & Brophy, 2010). Given both its importance and its challenges, integration, and particularly models of effective integration, should be highlighted in methods courses. In this section I describe how I taught both a social studies and a literacy methods course to the same cohort of teacher candidates—"looping" with them in two consecutive semesters. In addition to building and strengthening trust and rapport between students and the instructor, this looping approach allowed for the teacher candidates to practice twenty-first century skills by collaborating with each other over the course of an academic year and engaging in cross-disciplinary thinking. We believe the looping approach helped teacher candidates be better prepared for integrating social studies and literacy in their future classrooms because they were able to see how the instructor integrated the subjects in these two courses, as well as learning strategies for their future classrooms.

Context

The methods courses I taught were part of a 5-year teacher education program at a large Midwestern university in an urban setting. In this program, teacher candidates spent the fourth year in their program taking their methods courses in a structured schedule: social studies and science in the fall semester, and literacy and math in the winter semester. Teacher candidates took each course with the same classmates in a cohort structure. They spent 4 h per week in the field all year, and each methods course had field-based assignments. After the fourth year in the program, the teacher candidates graduated with a degree in elementary education. To obtain teacher certification, they spent a fifth year in a student teaching internship to complete their teacher education program.

Course Organization

Typically different instructors teach the methods courses so the teacher candidates have four instructors over the course of the year. The methods courses met once a week for a 3-h session 15 times over the semester. Additionally, they completed 40 required hours in their field placement. Each course had one or more assignments that are designed to be completed in the field. In the social studies course, the teacher candidates planned and delivered a social studies lesson. In the literacy course, they

planned and facilitated a discussion around a piece of literature. I looped with one cohort of teacher candidates, teaching social studies methods in the fall and literacy methods in the winter.

How the Approach Worked and What Teacher Candidates Gained

Taking a whole school year to explore how the subjects of social studies and literacy can complement each other allows more time to scaffold this concept for teacher candidates. Keeping the teacher candidates together in two consecutive semesters allowed me opportunities to “bleed” the subjects across the courses, teaching some social studies content in the literacy course and vice versa, when it was appropriate. This allowed the teacher candidates to (1) see how both social studies and literacy skills can be highlighted in their future classrooms and (2) learn an integrated approach to teaching both subjects. By teaching both courses, I was able to show the teacher candidates how to blur the lines of what “counts” as social studies and what “counts” as literacy. This included modeling skills for the teacher candidates that are both literacy and social studies skills, highlighting literature that can be used to teach both subjects, and explicitly modeling strategies for integrating subject areas.

Highlighting Social Studies and Literacy

One example of “blurring the lines” between social studies and literacy was teaching how to facilitate classroom discussions, either about a public issue or about a piece of literature. Participating in discussions is a skill emphasized for K-12 students in the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) for English-Language Arts (NGA & CCSSO, 2010) as well as in the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for social studies (NCSS, 2013). Teaching the skill of facilitating discussion began in the fall social studies course as the teacher candidates read a story “Stealing North” (Lockwood & Harris, 1985) and engaged in an instructor-facilitated discussion about a moral dilemma within the story, made more complex by the historical context of Reconstruction-era segregation. “Stealing North” (Lockwood & Harris, 1985) was the teacher candidates’ first exposure to the importance of choosing material that lends itself well to discussion, whether it be an article on a public issue or a story that brings up complex emotions and requires students to grapple with morals or values.

Also, during the social studies course, groups of teacher candidates planned microteaching lessons focused on social studies strategies. For this assignment, groups of five to six teacher candidates planned and delivered lessons to their peers, who acted as elementary-aged students. After the lesson, the class discussed how it went and what they learned, providing the teaching group with feedback on their presentation of the social studies strategy. The group video recorded the lesson,

watched the recording, and reflected on their own teaching, incorporating the feedback from their peers (Halvorsen, 2009).

One group planned a discussion-based lesson debating a school rule and taught it to their classmates. This assignment provided some of the teacher candidates (the ones doing the teaching) practice designing a discussion lesson with the help of a group, and provided the rest of the class the chance to see another example of an enacted discussion lesson. The microteaching assignment in the fall semester was an important scaffolding opportunity for teacher candidates because it provided them the opportunity co-teach with their classmates before independently designing and teaching a discussion lesson in the literacy course field placement.

The discussion lesson in the literacy course was centered on a piece of children's literature of any genre. Most students chose fiction stories or poetry. Because the teacher candidates had seen examples of the elements of an effective discussion in the social studies methods course the previous semester, we now could focus on how to take those elements and apply them to a literature discussion. For example, I was able to show how designing higher-order thinking questions with literature is similar to designing a good question debating a public policy issue (Stevens, Wineburg, Herrenkohl, & Bell, 2005). The literacy course was the first time the teacher candidates attempted to write their own discussion questions and they quickly realized the difficulty of the task. However, they had ample time to draft their lesson plan, get feedback from me, teach the lesson, and reflect on their experience teaching. Starting from the beginning of the year, the process of learning how to facilitate a discussion became a model for teaching new skills to their future elementary students. It began with me and their peers modeling discussions ("Stealing North" and microteaching), which led to the teacher candidates planning their own lessons with my feedback to help them independently facilitate a discussion in their field placements, to reflecting on what they learned and what they still need to know. Having an entire year to work on the skill of planning and delivering a discussion-based lesson gave the teacher candidates the time they needed to learn how to plan discussion opportunities effectively.

In addition to learning how literacy and social studies skills complement each other, the teacher candidates observed how historical fiction can be an important part of social studies as well as literacy (Alleman & Brophy, 2010; Halvorsen et al., 2013). In the social studies course, we read historical fiction, such as *Chains* (2008) by Laurie Halse Anderson, and teacher candidates learned how historical fiction can be used to enhance learning content. The teacher candidates also read novels and picture books featuring diverse characters, contexts, families, and environments to show the importance of showing these books to students to broaden their global awareness. In the literacy course, the teacher candidates chose literature for their discussion lessons that introduced critical issues to their own students in the field placement, such as *Freedom Summer* (2001) by Deborah Wiles (segregation) and *Baseball Saved Us* (1995) by Ken Mochizuki (Japanese internment). They were not required to choose a book with a social studies theme for their literature discussion lesson, but the fact that many of them did shows that they were beginning to see how the two subjects could be integrated in meaningful ways.

Teaching an Integrated Approach

During both the social studies and literacy courses, I introduced the teacher candidates to teaching these subjects through “big ideas” and overarching themes, as opposed to small, trivial facts or details (Brophy, Alleman, & Halvorsen, 2012). Organizing subjects around issues or themes is an essential part of curriculum integration (Lintner, 2013). It was important to show teacher candidates how to develop big ideas and themes that are engaging to students and allows for purposeful integration of social studies and literacy. In social studies, they planned lessons centered on big ideas they came up with such as “The United States has a wide variety of physical characteristics” and “The Native American tribes of Michigan left their mark on our present culture through the names they gave towns, rivers, and landmarks.” Showing the teacher candidates that their lessons belonged to a larger mosaic of social studies instruction allowed them to better understand how to integrate literacy skills in social studies instruction. The teacher candidates addressed the CCSS into their lessons as well as social studies state standards, and also featured children’s literature in their social studies lessons that contributed to students’ understandings of the big ideas.

The focus on big ideas continued in the literacy course as I showed teacher candidates how organizing literature book clubs around a big idea or theme can help the teacher candidates plan how to include social studies content. They participated in a literature circle, where different groups read a novel with a human rights theme, some of which were historical fiction like *Number the Stars* (Lowry, 1989), and some were contemporary fiction such as *Maniac Magee* (Spinelli, 1990). In their groups, they discussed the content of the book and how to incorporate social studies content into novel studies (like the Holocaust with *Number the Stars*) or how to engage students in discussions about human rights, even when groups read different books.

After learning social studies and literacy methods through this big ideas approach the entire year, near the end of the literacy course, the teacher candidates examined scripted reading programs that are mandated by many schools districts, including ones in which they may teach in the future. The teacher candidates critically examined the focus on small skills and trivial knowledge that scripted programs often feature in contrast to the focus on big ideas that they learned over the year. The class discussed how scripted reading programs might inhibit integrating literacy and social studies, and generated possible suggestions for what to do when they might be mandated to teach with such a program in their future school districts. The class discussed supplementing scripted programs with literature and the importance of making these programs applicable to their future students.

Challenges

Although looping with the teacher candidates in the social studies and literacy course had many benefits, including an opportunity for me to teach both subjects with an integrated, big picture approach, there were also challenges. These challenges had

less to do with the looping structure and more to do with the instructional approach the looping afforded. The teacher candidates attended methods courses in social studies and literacy 3 h a week for the school year. Also during that year, they were in a year-long field placement in an elementary classroom for roughly 4 h a week. The teacher candidates were expected to teach their social studies lesson and their literacy discussion lesson in these field placement classrooms under the supervision of their mentor teacher. Due to time constraints, I did not have the capability to visit the teacher candidates in the field and observe any lessons or classroom instruction. Each of my 30 students scheduled their own visits to the classroom based on their class schedule and the classroom schedule of their mentor teacher, and my 30 students were placed in 7–10 different schools. It was too difficult to fit observations or visits for that many students into my own teaching schedule.

The courses were designed to complement the field by requiring the teacher candidates to teach lessons to the elementary students in their placement. However, many teacher candidates reported that they never observed instruction that integrated social studies and literacy in their field placements, making it difficult for them to fit in these lessons into their classroom teacher's schedule. Although the teacher candidates were learning how to teach both subjects with big ideas, they weren't observing the teaching of big ideas being modeled in practice with elementary students. Not surprisingly, district-wide mandates of scripted reading programs and statewide standardized testing focused only on reading comprehension and mathematics often prohibited mentor teachers from integrating subjects and planning instruction the way these pre-service teachers were taught. This disconnect (in addition to the time constraints of me not being able to visit the classrooms) may have contributed to the teacher candidates reporting feeling that the courses were detached from the field experience. In a reflection after the course was over, one student wrote, "Our lessons that we had to produce did not come from the scripted programs that the students were learning from. So, it was a challenge to integrate that and sometimes even a stretch if we got it to work." Some of them felt that integrating social studies and literacy to serve both subjects was unrealistic in practice. "Combining social studies and literacy really demanded higher cognitive thought processes from us as students. The students in my placement however, always seemed to be stuck in a one dimensional activity and we're not able to apply what they learned to a greater picture or real life situations."

While it may not be surprising that the field placement schools didn't teach social studies at the elementary level, it was more surprising that literacy instruction was also becoming marginalized. For example, it was increasingly difficult for the teacher candidates to schedule a time in their field placement classrooms to read a book out loud to students and have a discussion about the book, even for a short amount of time. Many teacher candidates expressed that their mentor teachers prohibited them from choosing books outside of their scripted reading program. As a result, the teacher candidates had to choose from the story selections in the program, which often were excerpts rather than complete stories, for the sake of teaching comprehension skills. These excerpts did not work well for facilitating a rich discussion. During another class session on writing in the content areas, I asked the

teacher candidates to bring in a writing sample of any genre from their elementary students. Many of them were unable to do this task because their field placement classrooms no longer have time for sustained writing beyond writing sentences for a worksheet. As such, teacher candidates were unable to complete course assignments as they were designed, causing frustration for both them and for me.

Lessons Learned

Modeled Scaffolding

Looping with the students in consecutive semesters closely followed the rhythms of an elementary classroom. Teaching the same students for a full year allowed me to weave social studies and literacy methods instruction together as a model for the integration of social studies and literacy in a K-8 classroom. The teacher candidates had many opportunities to practice teaching skills in both subjects with scaffolding and support from me, as I was aware of what had been taught previous and what will be taught later.

Enhanced Classroom Community

It is possible that two instructors can have the same cohort of teacher candidates and just plan the two courses closely together. However, I learned that staying with the same group all year added to a feeling of classroom community. I feel like I developed a close, trusting relationship with the group. In their post-course reflections, many students described how they valued the trust formed with the group as essential to their learning. “Sometimes [students can] be unwilling to branch out and get to know others right away in our courses. Soon, we were all comfortable speaking our minds in front of each other and able to give honest feedback during discussions and group work.” I believe that consistent feedback from classmates and an instructor that they trust may have allowed the teacher candidates to have the opportunity to take more risks and try new strategies with their lesson planning. One student reflected specifically on the looping experience, saying: “Staying in the same group of students for the entire year builds such a strong rapport and sense of trust within the group. Having the instructor looping with the class was even more beneficial, as we could hit the ground running right away and keeping a similar framework made it easier for us to already know exactly what to expect.” As the instructor, I found that observing a group of future teachers grow over the course of a year and helping them develop a long-lasting supportive relationship that will hopefully be sustained through their student teaching experiences and first teaching jobs was highly rewarding.

Considerations of Field Placement and Logistics

I learned that some personnel and scheduling issues are important for effective looping with students. First, looping requires an instructor with experience in teaching and/or conducting research in multiple subjects. A smaller college or university may not have the resources to find an instructor with these qualifications, and also may not be able to place the teacher candidates in a cohort, due to students' schedules. Second, looping that has a required field component may enhance the teacher candidates' learning, but finding classrooms that integrate social studies and literacy are becoming increasingly difficult. If it is not possible to find classrooms like these for our teacher candidates to see in person, it may be necessary to connect with classrooms virtually through video chat or recorded lessons. Third, looping with social studies and literacy requires empowering teacher candidates try to teach using the ideas they learned in their methods courses despite not having observed their mentor teachers teach in this way.

Despite the possible logistical challenges with scheduling and the field component, the experience of studying social studies and literacy through a year-long cohort program led to meaningful talking, thinking, reading, and risk-taking.

Conclusion

In today's educational climate, in which both K-12 education and teacher education programs are under intense scrutiny and often under attack, one response is to reimagine programs and courses within traditional teacher education programs that respond to frequently cited problems. This chapter describes two approaches that maintain the rigor and disciplinary integrity of traditional elementary social studies methods courses but also make the knowledge, skills, and values taught within them more relevant and meaningful to the practice of teachers. One approach situates learning methods courses in school-based setting, whereby teacher candidates can see social studies teaching in action and learn from practicing teachers who can make their decisions and moves visible. The other approach reimagines the relationship between literacy and social studies from one that can often be contentious (since social studies is often marginalized to make room for literacy) to a collaborative one, in which social studies can be taught in the service of literacy and vice versa, in authentic, meaningful ways. Both approaches put social studies education and twenty-first century skills for citizenship at the forefront of pre-service teachers' learning. We hope other social studies educators build on these approaches to create innovative and effective social studies methods courses. We also hope that social studies educators continue to study the effectiveness of their approaches in building teacher candidates' skills, and by extension their students' knowledge and skills, so that we know what works, for whom, and in what contexts.

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Chapter 10

Collaboration in Social Studies Teacher Education: Crossing the (Disciplinary) Line

Margaret P. Weiss and Anthony Pellegrino

One of the foremost challenges for teachers is to provide relevant learning experiences for their students in an environment of increasing accountability and student diversity while maintaining the idea of the classroom as a place of engagement, possibility, and creativity (Palmer, 2003). Directives of recent educational policy at the federal and state levels have increased the necessity for teachers to be prepared to educate in classrooms of neuro- and ethnically-diverse learners (Cruz & Thornton, 2013; Imig & Imig, 2008). In fact, “educational reform and changing student demographics are dramatically altering the instructional context for education professionals” (Hardman, 2008, p. 583). In the 2009–2010 school year, for example, 60.5 % of students with disabilities received more than 80 % of their instruction in general education classrooms (U.S. Department of Education & National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2012); a dramatic increase from the 31.7 % served in these environments just two decades earlier (U. S. Department of Education & Office of Special Education Programs [OSEP], 2012).

The challenge of an increasingly diverse student body, of course, affects history/social studies (H/SS) teachers who may be additionally encumbered by their discipline, which includes many abstract concepts and discrete facts that often make up standardized assessments—assessments that nearly all students are expected to pass, and by which teachers are evaluated. Teacher collaboration, commonly, special educators and general educators working together to create accessible instruction, has been viewed as a critical component of the equation to help meet the needs

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of a wide range of students (Arthaud, Aram, Breck, Doelling, & Bushrow, 2007; Friend & Cook, 2012). When teachers come together to develop and deliver high-quality curricula attentive to the diverse learning needs in their classrooms, student achievement, in some cases, increases (Goddard, Goddard, & Tschannen-Moran, 2007). The power of teachers teaming to harness their particular areas of expertise, while valuing each other's, holds the potential for students to learn in ways that are more innovative and tailored to individual learning needs.

In light of the promise of teacher collaboration to meet the needs of diverse learners, it is important to recognize that teacher candidates, including those preparing to teach H/SS, may not be prepared to work with the multiplicity of students in their classrooms through traditional course and clinical work alone (Scruggs, Mastropieri, & McDuffie, 2007) nor do they typically experience working with other teacher candidates outside of their disciplines (Friend & Cook, 2012; Goddard et al., 2007). They may not have been challenged to effectively collaborate with peers or other professionals, particularly special educators, to explore and address the needs of their students in ways that take advantage of special educators' distinct training. We contend, however, that there is a unique opportunity for collaborative experiences offered in conjunction with best practices in social studies. Aligning frameworks and specific skills associated with historical thinking, for example, may provide a platform from which to build systematic collaboration between H/SS and special educators (Pellegrino, Weiss, Regan, & Mann, 2014). Likewise, the potential relevancy of social studies courses including civics and geography can allow all students to draw upon their own experiences to construct new learning (Cushman, 2012; Noddings, 2013). For those reasons, we undertook an effort to bring together H/SS teacher candidates to work with prospective and in-service special educators for the explicit purposes of learning about teacher collaboration and how teachers can collaborate effectively.

In this chapter, we, two teacher educators from history/social studies and special education respectively, describe our collaborative approach to preparing H/SS teachers and teacher candidates to work with special educators in the delivery of accessible instruction to students with special needs. We provide an analysis of the development of our faculty co-teaching relationship, the course we jointly developed, and the student outcomes from two course offerings.

Current Practice in Teacher Education

As we became involved in this process, we came to further appreciate the extraordinarily complex endeavor that is collaboration. Collaboration, of course, always involves people working and learning together in some capacity. As such, myriad variables affect the interactions among those involved and the outcomes of the efforts. Most of us have had both positive and negative collaborative experiences, but we may not have delved into the details of what was involved in the process; what made it work, or what doomed it to failure.

In a school setting, the complexities and idiosyncrasies that affect collaboration are certainly present. Teachers may, for example, collaborate in developing curricula with grade level teams; conferencing on student cases; working with paraprofessionals and parents; identifying, referring, and assessing data to develop Individualized Educational Programs (IEPs); and co-teaching. While we know that collaboration between educators is becoming more common in schools (Appleby, Adler, & Flihan, 2007; Nevin, Thousand, & Villa, 2009; Pratt, 2014; Pugach, Blanton, & Correa, 2011), we must also recognize that the skills to become an effective collaborator are not at all intuitive (Arthaud et al., 2007; Friend, 2000). The skills to do such work must be, at least in part, cultivated within teacher development coursework and clinical experiences (Friend & Cook, 2012; Levine, 2006). Harvey, Yssel, Bauserman, and Merbler (2010) emphasized that, “(t)eacher training institutions...have a *responsibility* to ensure that all teacher educators, especially preservice teachers, are well prepared to meet the challenges of inclusion in the face of NCLB and IDEA requirements” (p. 25, emphasis added). Pugach and Blanton (2009) further presented that the field of teacher education is in a critical and unique position to introduce and facilitate best pedagogical practices for diverse learners through enabling general and special pre-service and practicing educators to collaboratively investigate, define, and create a transformative learning environment suitable for every child. However, activities for teachers and teacher candidates to gain an authentic understanding of effective collaboration have been infrequent (Scruggs et al., 2007) and anachronistic (Pugach et al., 2011).

In a recent national survey of elementary and secondary teacher preparation programs, Harvey et al. (2010) asked faculty to describe their perceptions of inclusive education programming and expectations within their programs. While most faculty agreed that an introductory special education course was part of the students’ program and there were opportunities to collaborate across disciplines, fewer programs required a course in collaboration and few faculty co-taught any courses within the programs. McHatton and Daniel (2008) reported further evidence of this. In their program, general educators and special educators were placed in field experiences together that required co-teaching. Faculty gave seminars in special education and co-teaching and the students were in classrooms with mentor teachers but neither group had had experience or training in collaboration. Results indicated that both groups learned a tremendous amount about diverse students and instruction; however, faculty also reported difficulties when the two groups worked together to develop unit plans and teach. In their conclusions, the authors stated that they would change their course and reflected that, “Emphasis will be placed on building one learning community in which each colleague is valued....We are planning more extensively, together...and prioritizing our content to orchestrate activities and learning experiences to maximize student learning...not merely sharing the teaching load of different content” (McHatton & Daniel, 2008, p. 130).

This concept of modeling and teaching the “messiness” of collaboration in teacher education programs was described in a review by Nevin et al. (2009) who concluded, “We argue that how professors perceive each other and interact with one another is a neglected aspect of university life and should not be ignored” (p. 572).

In addition, Pugach and Blanton (2009) suggested that understanding how faculty collaborate and what they do when they work together is a critical part of the development of collaborative teacher education programs. They asserted that, without a coherent view of faculty collaboration, it would be impossible to develop the curricular reason necessary to appropriately prepare teachers. We would argue, as did Arthaud et al. (2007) and Friend (2000), that skills for effective collaboration must be taught and practiced, not just discussed. This realization led to our development of a co-taught course for H/SS candidates and special educators.

Co-teaching in Teacher Preparation: Developing and Implementing a Combined Course

Our experience, journey really, began serendipitously when we both were working in teacher preparation programs at George Mason University in Fairfax, Virginia. Anthony focused largely on preparing secondary social studies teachers and Peggy developing pre- and inservice special educators. The students in their programs never took courses together and faculty members were connected only within the larger college structure, which consisted of more than two-dozen of programs and 3,000 students.

Anthony's role in the secondary education program included teaching methods courses and supervising student teachers. It was a result of an experience in the latter role that teacher collaboration became an issue he found important to address. In spring 2011, Anthony was assigned to supervise one particular student teacher at a nearby high school. The teacher candidate, Steven (pseudonym), was assigned to teach at this school in a co-taught classroom for ninth and tenth grade world history. Steven was assigned a mentor teacher who had worked with a special educator for 3 years. Soon after his independent teaching commenced, it became evident that Steven was not collaborating well with his co-teacher. He seemed ill-prepared to do so, and when he did work with the special educator, she felt as though she was treated as his instructional aide rather than an educational expert with years of experience. Reflections on these challenges came back to Steven's preparation, or lack thereof, in regards to working with other teachers in a collaborative or co-teaching environment. Little in Steven's preparation was focused on collaboration or co-teaching.

At the same time, Peggy was a faculty member in the special education program at George Mason. One of her first teaching assignments was a course entitled, *Collaboration and Consultation*. This course was required for all special educators and was taught by special education faculty. There was no similar course in any other teacher preparation program in the College and no one other than special educators took the course. It did not take long for Peggy and her students to realize that they were working on collaborating only with themselves! In fact, this generated a tremendous amount of discussion related to the value of this course structure for teachers, students with disabilities and the realities of the

classroom. In every version of the course that Peggy has taught since then, students have raised similar questions; “Why are we only collaborating with ourselves? What do the general educators learn about working with us?” And “How can we better prepare for working with general educators?” Our experiences came together to provide the impetus for developing a co-taught course inclusive of general and special educators focused on the means to and challenges of collaboration in secondary schools.

As we developed and implemented the course, we documented and analyzed our own process, as well as outcomes of the students. With a graduate researcher and faculty colleague, we collected data from four sources: (a) instructor communications and meeting notes, (b) course materials and products, (c) individual interviews and (d) classroom observations. Additionally, we collected pre- and post-questionnaire data from Course One students and pre- and post-course concept maps from Course Two students. Together with the graduate and faculty researchers, we used the processes of Grounded Theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to analyze the data related to our faculty collaboration and the open-ended responses of our Course One participants.

Given the conceptual changes of collaboration in Course One, for Course Two, we asked students to create concept maps at the beginning and end of the course as a means for us to understand these changes in more detail. This data collection method has been used previously in studies of student/teacher change (see Miller et al., 2009). Concept maps can be analyzed in two ways: quantitatively and qualitatively. First, as described by Miller et al., we counted all of the unique nodes in each map, which gave us a general sense of the breadth of the understanding of collaboration by students. Then, we counted all of the linkages between nodes to provide a general sense of the complexity of understanding. As a final method of analysis, we counted the levels out from the central idea to give a general sense of the depth of understanding. For the qualitative analysis, we looked for repetition of concepts or categories across maps to develop themes of student understanding.

Dealing with Logistics

Though it is important to understand how the collaborative interaction developed, it could not have been successful without a clear set of shared goals and attention to the logistics of making it happen. Initial conversations between Anthony and Peggy came as a result of a federally funded project to improve teacher education. This grant was intended to analyze the scope and sequence of the preparation program for teachers of students with mild disabilities and to consider approaches to curriculum re-design that may involve inter-disciplinary partnerships.

A shared recognition for the need of the course was coupled with a sense of heightened commitment to making certain the course would be developed and offered. Anthony stated that the early commitment to the project as a new curricular

Table 10.1 Course topics and assignments

Course One		Course Two	
Topics	Assignments	Topics	Assignments
Understanding social studies/ understanding special education	Journals	Getting to know the other group	Participation
Understanding students with special needs	Interview and synthesis	Communication	Interview assignment
Collaboration/communication skills	Group project (web site or portfolio of lesson plans)	Problem solving	PLC assignment
Co-teaching	IEP (or IEP meeting participation)	Co-teaching	IEP assignment
Strategies to meet the needs of diverse learners		IEPs	Lesson plan portfolio
IEP meetings role play/presentation of final assignments		Strategies to meet the needs of diverse learners	

arrangement was a lesson in “learning to let go of...boundaries” (Interview 1). Peggy embraced how the course development purposely lacked many preconceived parameters, adding, “Why not?” (Interview 1). Both instructors reported a sense of ownership to the project as a result of these broad realizations.

This emergent commitment and defined purpose of the course, which manifested in early meetings, allowed for the instructors to collaboratively develop shared course objectives. And these shared objectives served as an anchor for negotiating the course design.

In order to develop this course, there were several institutional barriers that needed to be overcome including approval from the institution’s Curriculum Committee and Graduate Council. Once the syllabus was approved, we decided to collaboratively plan out the details of assignments, activities and class sessions systematically. Unlike in a traditional single instructor course, collaborative planning took coordination and considerable additional time. In an interview conducted for the project, Anthony commented, “so, we typically meet weekly...upwards of an hour and...we do everything from even sort of scripting out what we are going to say” (Interview 2). Peggy stated that weekly conversations provided them opportunities to “rationalize and talk through what we have done, and to keep coming back to, well, what was our original objective...” As documented by meeting notes, these sessions also involved ongoing assessment of the course and student progress based on classroom observations, journal readings, and other student assessments. In addition to weekly meeting notes, we exchanged nearly 300 emails throughout development and Course One implementation—communication became central to our relationship. See Table 10.1 for topics and assignments in Courses One and Two.

The Nature of the Collaboration and Its Impact on Faculty

Analysis of meeting notes, instructor communications, and interviews helped us to discover that we were really involved in three distinct phases in our faculty collaboration.

Phase One: Blind Date

In the “Blind Date” phase, there was an initial risk that was taken simply by entering a possible relationship together. Analogous to “boxers entering a ring” (Peggy, Interview 1) there was a sizing up of what the other instructor was like and wondering “if this relationship is going to work for me” (Anthony, Interview 1). This phase played out in initial weekly planning meetings. We stated that taking the time for the initial phase was essential to the process. This phase involved going beyond traditional pleasantries and sharing experiences, philosophies, and individual goals. For example, in meeting notes, Peggy wrote “Great meeting! Same page on big ideas: need for collaboration, real world ideas. We agree on the three major parts to the course: understanding students, collaboration skills, working together on instruction.”

As exhibited in this written exchange, the “Blind Date” phase may include a sense of celebration given the excitement of working with a colleague, the creation of a productive, professional relationship, and the concept of shared classroom responsibilities. However, as with many novel activities, this was short-lived. Different disciplinary backgrounds and training manifested in differing perspectives on the same ideas, such as specific methods for teaching and broader emphasis on content and skills. This was a process of defining roles and navigating interactions (Stryker, 1987). As this happened we entered what was ultimately considered to be the most crucial phase of collaboration—“Pushing Through.”

Phase Two: Pushing Through

“The Pushing Through” phase is one of challenge, and potential tension, as well as opportunity. In this phase, we suggested that getting to a place of co-construction and collaboration to reach the phased we dubbed “Authentic Partnership” often required “pushing through” challenges and frustrations. This phase meant that once the broad ideas and goals were agreed upon, the manner in which we interpreted those ideas and goals was greatly influenced by our disciplinary perspectives. In one instance, identified through weekly meeting notes, we discussed how the ideas of historical thinking were bound in inquiry-based learning whereas much of special education instruction focused on strategic and direct instruction. The resulting conversation allowed us to brainstorm how strategic instruction could support a learner

to think historically. This is one example of how we were intent on “not trying to change either side, but rather trying to work on working together” (Peggy, meeting notes). In meetings held during and after the course, we noted that these types of tensions moved us out of our comfort zones. Meeting notes included our feeling refreshingly challenged in our respective areas of expertise.

Experiencing this type of negotiation and tension in a collaborative relationship of our own helped us to recognize when the same event was happening for students in Course One. For example, during two early class sessions, both class groups collaboratively prepared and presented their teaching perspectives to their peers. The purpose of this activity was to allow opportunities for both groups to articulate ideas they value from their varied perspectives and ask questions of each other as they begin collaborative work. Students then reflected on these experiences in individual journal entries.

In reading their journal reflections and listening to their conversations, we realized that the students were functioning with the same idea of success for all students but that both groups had very different perspectives on how learning should and would unfold. Neither side presented a perspective with consideration of the other. For example, the H/SS students presented state standards, coursework they were required to complete, and repeatedly stated that they knew others did not like history. They used discipline-specific terms and concepts, such as historical thinking and presentism, without defining or explaining them, making the assumption that their peers in special education knew what these terms meant. The special educators’ efforts unfolded much the same way. Their presentation included terms and acronyms with little explanation or context, assumptions that the H/SS students thought of special education as “watering down” their material, and an overall sense that special educators were not necessarily part of a collaborative team who worked with general educators on content and instruction. Overall, the presentations were pedantic and, most importantly, a continuation of the siloed mentality that often derails collaborative efforts. In order to facilitate “Pushing Through” this challenge, we designed the subsequent class activity as one where all students in the class were able to experience learning social studies in ways that are engaging and more cognitively demanding than traditional teacher-centered instruction, yet attentive to the strategic instruction necessary. This activity, borrowed from the Wineburg, Martin and Monte-Sano text, *Reading Like a Historian* (2011), focused on addressing the historical query “Was Lincoln a racist?” and allowed students to review a variety of primary source documents. Specific to this activity was attention to the skills related to primary sources such as close reading, corroboration and interpretation of evidence. As Anthony helped students through the activity, Peggy simultaneously approached the exercise with focus on these difficult processes, asking questions including: “Is this what you mean?,” “How might students react to reading this statement?” and “What processes are similar from this example that could be used when students are asked to use these processes again?” This experience, perhaps more than most others, illustrated pushing through challenges of collaboration.

This example also epitomizes the impact that collaboration had had on us. Because we experienced “pushing through,” we had developed the ability to see tension, embrace it, and negotiate solutions to it.

Phase Three: Authentic Partnership

In interviews, journals and debriefing notes, we consistently articulated that collaboration requires teachers to come to a place where value for the expertise that partners bring to the classroom is understood and wholly evident. Peggy reflected:

It’s not about, ‘you have to become me’, or ‘I have to become you’. It’s about how these areas of expertise can pull together and move to the next stage of...not try[ing] to change each other, [but]...try[ing] to blend what we’ve got! (Interview 2)

During this phase, we experienced a strong sense of collaboration. In interview two, Anthony discussed collaboration in terms of the scholarly work performed by Friend and Cook (2012) stating, “collaboration is a style in which there is a strong interpersonal relationship and an exchange of ideas that is based on equality” (p. 6). The exchange of ideas in a collaborative relationship requires not only being open to different perspectives, but additionally, allowing one’s own views to be questioned on a professional level. Anthony had come to value that expertise. Peggy added:

True collaboration ...is the presentation of an idea... the breaking down of that idea, and the ability to question each other as equals....The ability to question one another, to learn more, and not to be offended by that and not be ... ‘oh well, I have to establish myself as the... how can you question me? I’m the content authority of ... (Interview 2)

We believe that this type of critical, professional dialogue allowed us to develop an understanding without questioning each other’s expertise. We referred to communication at this level as Authentic Partnership, or the final phase. In this phase:

...nobody feels threatened by questioning. It’s just a constant questioning and how does this work, and what can we do, and why is this important and how is this not. It’s not combative. It’s not nit picky. It’s towards a common objective. (Peggy, Interview 2)

Anthony emphasized that while the common goal of collaboration is important, the quality of the interpersonal relationship is critical. He expressed:

People who are involved in the collaboration, and how we treat each other, and how we respect each other’s ideas – that to me has been even more important than the fact that we... generally share these same sort of objectives. (Interview 2)

This partnership played out in the classroom as well. As one observation noted,

Note—given Peggy’s instruction—all students are responsive. Does not seem to be a sense when Peggy leads or when Anthony leads that ‘This is not my teacher so I don’t need to listen as closely or participate as much.’ Change of instructor does not alter student behavior. (Observer field notes, April 2)

The debriefing session notes revealed that, as a result of the collaborative partnership, we had fundamentally changed our views of education and professional dispositions to include more explicit consideration of other perspectives even in situations that did not involve direct collaboration. This broad realization manifested in very specific ways as both of us candidly discussed the outcomes of the course. Anthony stated:

We MUST (emphasis in original) focus more on assessment of collaboration in future courses and if we are to do so, then we need to have the confidence to tell students that their vision of collaboration (in that moment, in that experience) is wrong. (meeting notes, May 28)

The debriefing notes also included many references to how much we had learned from each other and had transferred that learning to courses we taught independently. For example, Peggy stated, “The experience reframed my other teaching; the professional growth of seeing another perspective.” Anthony concluded, “...getting a chance to talk about a course after teaching it (with one who knows exactly how it went) is invaluable and very different from my experiences” (meeting notes, May 28). We also felt that the collaboration was powerful for the students in the course, and we discussed ways to get other faculty involved and to assess student outcomes in their own classrooms.

Course One

In the first administration of the course, we had a total of 25 students. Fifteen candidates were from the Special Education Program, 12 female and 3 male. Seven candidates were provisionally licensed and teaching students with disabilities or working in schools in a related capacity full time, one was an instructional assistant, one was a speech/language pathologist, and six were just beginning graduate coursework. Four of the 15 had previous experience with some form of co-teaching.

Ten candidates were enrolled from the H/SS Program, six male and four female. Of these participants, two were already licensed and working full time in secondary education settings. One was just beginning the licensure portion of the program, four were in their final semester before internship, and three had recently completed the internship.

Overall, from the pre- and post-course questionnaire data, we found that candidates' ideas about co-teaching and collaboration shifted subtly but importantly from the beginning to the end of the course. We assert that the collaborative experiences these teacher candidates had in the class provided opportunities for them to apply their learning of course content. And, by the end of the course, the candidates had progressed from exuberance with little understanding of the processes and details of collaboration to valuing collaboration and co-teaching with a cautious respect and a deeper appreciation of the complexity involved in making it work.

Reactions to Receiving a Co-teaching Assignment

The first open-ended prompt from the questionnaire included the scenario of finding a “dream” teaching job and being told that they must now collaborate with either a special or general educator, depending on their own specialty area. Pre-course responses from special education teacher candidates focused on emotion and eagerness to meet their co-teacher, such as “Great!” “Nervous and anxious; not what I expected,” and “I’m a little nervous.” Social studies candidates responded similarly with, “am up for the challenge” “I would be excited and curious about my co-teacher,” “I am pleased,” “Phew,” “Awesome,” and “Less than enthusiastic.” We expected these types of responses, given the fact that the current educational climate is typically positive about collaboration and co-teaching.

In post-course responses, candidates again included emotionally-laden statements, but they also showed concern about an equal share of responsibility and matching teaching styles. For example, a special educator who originally stated, “I hope he/she is nice” had a post-course response of “Will he/she have a similar teaching style to my own?” Another special educator wrote, “I hope my co-teacher is open to this collaboration and is willing to put in the same effort as I am.” In a pre-course response, a social studies candidate stated she was, “Less than enthusiastic considering the role of teacher will be split/shared and I am less knowledgeable about special education.” In her post-course, she claimed to “...feel prepared to discuss the logistics of the classroom and the goals of our professional relationship and classroom environment.” These shifts were noted in class observations as well. In class activities, which required candidates to simulate co-teaching experiences in lesson planning and instructional strategy implementation, candidates began the course with far more exchanges of pleasantries and less discussion about the topic or assignment. By the third observation, groups were much more inclined to engage in back and forth exchanges that addressed details of the assignment, including how certain activities might align with best practices in their field.

How Will You Share the Teaching Load with Your Co-teacher?

Teacher candidate responses regarding workload and responsibilities on the pre-course questionnaire helped us understand that they initially defined co-teaching as team teaching, only one model of co-teaching described by Friend and Cook (2012). Several special education candidates described responsibilities as, “Alternating the lead teacher role; planning all lessons together” and “Splitting lessons based on strengths” and “Split grading, alternate teaching, both remediate.” Responses from three different social studies candidates included similar statements, “50/50 completely; may take different areas” and “I think it should be 50/50. I think the general [education] teacher should take the time to familiarize him/herself with the disabilities in the class and the sped (sic) teacher should make sure they’re familiar with the

content material” and “Split grading.” However, several of the social studies candidates showed a concern about how the content knowledge of the special educator would affect co-teaching. For example, one social studies candidate wrote, “It depends on the co-teacher. If they are intelligent and capable in the subject area, I’d like to go 50/50. I can definitely use ideas to make classes more diverse and catered to special needs kids.” Another wrote, “If they are comfortable with the content area, I think it’d be great to have a collaborative environment where the students can come to either of us for the same problem.”

In post-course responses on the questionnaire, both groups of candidates focused more on activities that would support the nature of collaboration and the activities of co-teaching. One special educator wrote that she would like to, “Establish weekly meeting time to plan lessons together.” Another advocated, “Planning together, not just making adjustments to the content plans.” Every social studies candidate wrote about planning, including one who favored “Planning lessons, especially activities together; sharing time to catch up on students.” This increased sense of valuing the co-teacher’s time and expertise was also borne out in observations, specifically in activities surrounding co-planning. By the final observation, for example, candidates were attending to the details that enable effective co-teaching including ensuring that sufficient time was allotted to certain activities and the most effective ways that the collaboration would be enacted in class. The social studies candidate who originally stated that all teaching should be shared 50/50 completely, stated post-course that “the teaching load should be shared in a rational manner, even if that means one teacher does more work than another.” In these responses, we found more awareness that co-teaching required negotiation, planning, and adaptation.

What Makes Collaboration Work?

Perhaps the area that we saw the most change involved understanding the complexity of collaboration and the roles, responsibilities and functions that make collaboration work. In the pre-course questionnaire, candidates believed that communication, in a broad sense, and their own ability to be persistent and flexible would make collaboration work. For example, one special educator responded, “I think that my ability to be patient and open” would facilitate collaboration. Another cited, “communication and accountability” as two features of an effective collaborative relationship. A social studies candidate identified, “open-mindedness, shared sense of duty, availability and accountability to each other” as keys to effective collaboration. In journal responses, a social studies candidate shared that, “Ultimately, I think a conversation needs to take place between the two parties to lay out what each others roles will be.” Another wrote, “Teachers who share goals for their classroom and communicate openly about their methods, lessons, and students would produce an effective collaborative classroom.”

At the end of the course, candidates still indicated that communication would make collaboration work but they added more specific descriptors such as “open

and honest,” “value” and “strong” to identify qualities that best enable effective collaboration. In addition, every candidate identified some aspect of respect. They used terms such as “mutual respect,” “trust and respect,” “value what they have to say and try to empathize,” and “respecting each other’s ideas.” In journal responses, it was clear that candidates grew to recognize the value and complexity of communication and building trust and respect. Near the end of the course, two social studies candidates wrote about their experience trying to reach consensus with a group member who had a different cultural background. One candidate wrote, “I was also aware of our different cultural perspectives and found that I needed to listen closely to really hear what she was communicating to me; we don’t necessarily have the same ‘language’ in common.” Another social studies candidate wrote, “It is imperative to take time to listen actively to each other, with a check-up that restates to each other what they heard said and conveyed; this, moreover, must be coupled with patience and respect when there are confusions and miscommunications.” Clearly, candidates had figured out that effective communication in a professional collaboration is a complex undertaking that requires consistent attention coupled with specific skills and techniques.

Course Two

Feedback from candidates and significant formal reflection after Course One helped us understand that, though we discussed and modeled collaboration a great deal, we did not have the candidates practice it and be evaluated on its effectiveness as much as we should have. Their comments on course evaluations and from informal feedback made us realize that, though they gained a great deal from watching us work together, they needed help to practice and experience collaboration in more authentic ways within the course and be evaluated on the skills they learned. In order to address this, we significantly revised two elements of the second iteration of the course. First, rather than solely relying on instructors to assess their learning, we required candidates to develop a self/group collaboration evaluation instrument to monitor their learning and activities related to the collaborative process. The instruments were unique to each group and allowed candidate input into the core components of effective collaboration. Second, during the times candidates were practicing specific collaboration skills such as active listening or brainstorming, we invited school counselor candidates, who were studying effective group process practices, to observe, evaluate, and provide feedback to our groups. This process provided an outside perspective on the students’ collaborative process. Each session with the counseling candidates culminated in a debriefing exercise.

Other substantial changes to the course focused on IEPs. In Course One, H/SS candidates only participated in a mock IEP meeting, while the special educators separately developed the plan itself. In Course Two, all candidates participated fully in the development, writing, and presentation of the IEP. This allowed H/SS candidates to experience this critical process while engaging special educators as true

experts in teaching and learning students with disabilities. Finally, when learning strategies for groups of diverse students, we structured class sessions so that Anthony and Peggy would deliver direct instruction on the strategies and the H/SS and special education candidates would then develop lesson plans to teach the strategy to students in a co-taught setting.

Course Two included 20 students, 12 H/SS students and eight special education students. Of the H/SS students, only one was currently a classroom teacher. The others were in or near their final semester before student teaching. Of the special education students, two were currently teaching in classrooms (though provisionally licensed) and the rest were in various stages of their licensure programs.

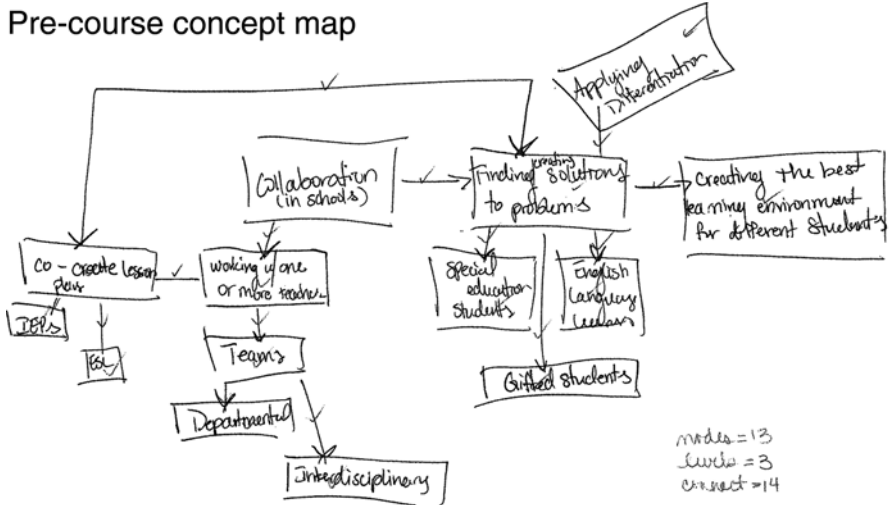
We chose to evaluate conceptual change using concept maps, as described above. The sample concept maps (see Fig. 10.1) for one candidate is representative of changes in the complexity and comprehensiveness of the understanding of collaboration we encountered. At the pre-course concept map activity, candidates averaged 14.05 nodes or unique items. By the end of the course, the average moved to 31.56 nodes; a statistically significant difference ($p = .00$). Additionally, the linkages students used to connect nodes in their concept maps averaged 14.9 at pre-test and 33.0 at post-test, also a statistically significant difference ($p = .006$). The levels out from the central concept averaged 2.6 at pre-test and 3.8 at post-test, another statistically significant difference ($p = .000$). Together, these results indicate that our students' understanding of collaboration had changed significantly in terms of breadth, depth, and complexity.

As for the qualitative analysis, we examined the changes from pre-course to post-course concept maps and found several themes and concepts that resembled changes in Course One and refined our understanding of these changes. First, there were many examples of the students' perspectives changing from what we called being outsiders to being teachers. For example, one student's pre-course map included the concepts of content teacher, special education teacher, subjects, assignments, and "knowing the students." In her post-course map, this same student had shifted to identifying and detailing the activities of each teacher and student, including differentiation, lesson planning, accommodations/adaptations, IEPs, meetings, communication, and benefits to the student. It was apparent that she now understood much more about the activities required in collaborative arrangements.

Relatedly, most of the students included in their post-course concept maps the fact that collaboration and their ideas about it were iterative and constantly evolving. This was evident by the inclusion of items such as self-reflection, constant communication for problem solving, increased self-awareness, and open to new ideas. We also noted that several of the students with little in-school experience developed initial concept maps that were bounded by their previous experience as students. In essence, they were telling us about what they knew, focused completely on curriculum, discipline, and teacher responsibilities. In these post-course maps, students incorporated most of the topics and ideas from the course, including communication, special education, IEPs, and an expanded variety of stakeholders.

Finally, from all students, we found that the post-course concept maps included many more of what we called "intangibles." These were items related to

Pre-course concept map



Post-course Map

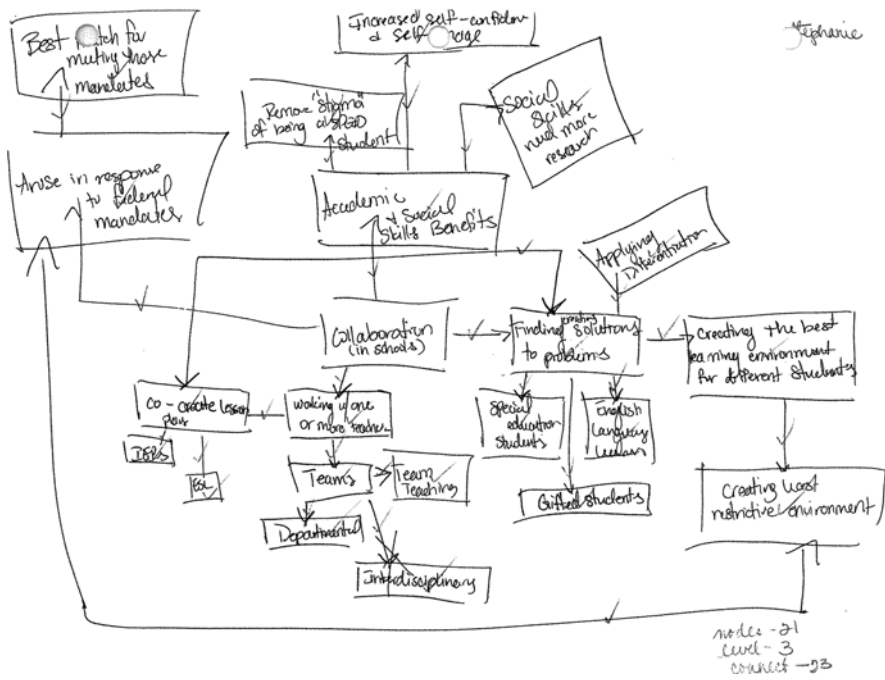


Fig. 10.1 Sample concept map

communication styles, empathy, respect, working with others, and being prepared. These concepts became very prominent in the post-course maps of all students whereas they were not included with any level of detail in the pre-course maps and several students did not include them at all. It was also interesting for us to see that most of the H/SS candidates included many more special education terms in their post-course concept maps than in their pre-course maps but the special educators did not include any more H/SS terms or concepts.

Conclusions and Future Directions

We continue to support scholars such as Friend and Cook (2012) and Nevin et al. (2009) who view collaboration between general and special educators as fundamental to effective instruction of diverse learners. Likewise, we follow that the knowledge and skills of collaboration must be deeply embedded into teacher education programs (Pugach & Blanton, 2009; Scruggs et al., 2007), mindful of specific resources and activities to foster collaboration skills including time for collaborators to develop interpersonal connections and efforts to deliberate on a vision of teaching and learning (Pratt, 2014). To that end, we conclude that this laudable project served to impact the education of these teacher candidates while furthering the nascent field of collaborative education.

Based on these experiences, we assert that faculty who may embark on similar co-teaching models will want to establish clear objectives and consider how they will approach assessment of teacher candidate performance and how they will address challenging collaborative experiences that may develop in the course among the teacher candidates. Our courses required candidates to move out of their comfort zones in both control over outcomes and in working with “others” who had differing perspectives. Before this particular course, special education candidates were only participating in classes with other special education candidates and vice versa for the H/SS candidates. In course evaluations, it was clear that candidates felt uncomfortable with notions of cross-disciplinary collaboration. They were worried about candidates from another program, with whom they were not familiar, having an impact on their grades in a graduate school course.

Relatedly, though the course was structured very differently from a standard graduate course, candidates expected many things to be similar to their previous course experiences. They stated that the hands-on experiences kept them engaged, that the course should be required for all disciplines, and that the co-teaching by faculty was a valuable model for their understanding of collaboration. However, candidates from both groups also wanted more direct instruction from faculty on strategies for students with diverse needs and more time spent on the IEP process—seen, particularly by general educators, as a critical and often confusing component of special education. They wanted an individual component to the grades and more structured guidance on their active learning experiences. We interpret this to mean that we, as instructors, must do a better job of articulating the goals and methods for

the course, as well as providing more appropriate scaffolding for the group process.

And in that light, we acknowledge that one semester-long course is more likely seen as a beginning rather than a sole means to help teacher candidates identify what is needed to establish authentic partnerships that recognize and employ the strengths of both educators in order to address the needs of diverse learners. To explore these challenges, we look forward to revising the course from candidate feedback, collecting additional data on candidates, and following these candidates into their K-12 classrooms to discern the extent to which effective collaborative practices are utilized in practice. The latter allusion to future research is perhaps particularly significant as teacher education programs continually seek ways to provide relevant pedagogical experiences to prospective teachers who will face an increasingly diverse population of students and look to do so in ways that promote achievement for all learners.

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Chapter 11

“As long as I See You on Facebook I Know You Are Safe”: Social Media Experiences as Humanizing Pedagogy

Daniel G. Krutka and Kenneth T. Carano

Introduction

Amani: The bombing is so close to my house, Ya rab be with us and protect us:(

Kenneth: That is horrible. Is there anywhere you can go to be safe?

Amani: No place is safe Kenneth Carano every place is so targeted here. I am terrified.

Kenneth: I am worried for you and your family. I wish there was more that I could do

Amani: It is fine dear Kenneth Carano; Let us hope that me and my family get out of all of this safe not dead :(

Kenneth: As long as I see you on facebook I know you are safe, so that makes me feel a little better...

The above conversation illustrates part of one instant message exchange that took place between two university instructors in drastically different situations. As bombs dropped around my colleague in Gaza City, I looked out the window of a train headed north towards Seattle. I could see the Pacific Northwest mountains and autumn leaves peacefully passing by as I sat glued to my computer with a surreal feeling and a lump in my throat. I awaited updates of Amani Inshasi's safety. I tried to find the appropriate words to say to my terrified Gaza counterpart tens of thousands of miles away as bombs crashed around her.

The problems of our globalized world are increasingly interconnected, but our experiences and understandings of others can often be astoundingly disconnected. Paulo Freire (1970) contended that the “problem of humanization has always... been humankind's central problem” (p. 43). Regrettably, the task of creating spaces for humanizing dialogue between peoples and cultures often separated by temporal,

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spatial, and linguistic boundaries can be daunting. Social studies educators are particularly responsible for bridging these gaps. This case study explores this challenge via social media interactions that took place on Skype and Facebook between 16 students enrolled in Kenneth's middle/high school social studies pedagogy course at a Pacific northwest university and their 16 counterparts taking English language courses through a Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) in the Gaza Strip. We used "I" in this chapter when discussing Kenneth's experiences as the teacher of the course, but the theoretical, analytical, and descriptive processes were an equal collaboration and "we" is used otherwise. We hope our experiences and analysis might provide insights to other educators interested in leveraging new media to help create a more just world.

Theoretical Lens and Literature

Encounters with information in the medieval age primarily took place in the context of localized communities where knowledge was shared and holistic. Consciousness, now considered the purview of individuality, once referred to what was known collectively (Briggs & Peat, 1999). The turning point, and what Postman (1992) argued was the proper starting point for the "Information Age," was the invention and proliferation of the printing press. The spread of books, and subsequent technologies like radios, televisions, computers, and the internet, rendered information increasingly available, but also decontextualized. This glut of information has resulted in various efforts to control it, including the standardization of books (e.g., page numbers, indexing), the specialization and separation of knowledges and disciplines, and the creation of school curricula (Beniger, 1986). The modern media landscape is more complex than ever before and the various sources of information can leave citizens of a globalized world with information that is incomplete, inaccurate, misleading, or decontextualized. Such separation of information from purpose and context has resulted in mechanistic and reductionist understandings inadequate for the complex problems or humanized understandings of our interdependent world and its peoples (Capra, 1996). Particular to this chapter, social studies curricula in schools often tend to privilege a modernist rational-logical ethos that concentrates on facts about cultures and histories, but often lacks the context, depth of perspectives, or experiences to nurture meaningful understandings of others.

Rise of Social Media

On its face, the rise of social media over the last decade would only seem to add to the excess of decontextualized information. However, we agree with numerous theorists who have argued that social media is distinct from previous iterations of

the internet as recent technological innovations hold the potential to afford opportunities for a paradigm shift to more complex, situated, emergent, and evolving realities (Starkey, 2012). Web 2.0 and social media sites began to emerge over a decade ago and offer platforms for active creation and participation distinct from top-down mediums that only provided voice to elites. Social media is not easily defined, but generally refers to online platforms that allow users to create, share, and interact around various types of content. Social media can consist of collaborative projects (e.g., Wikipedia), blogs or microblogs (e.g., Kidblog.org, Twitter), and social networking sites (e.g., Facebook) among others (Kaplan & Haenlein 2010). For the purposes of this paper, we define social media broadly to include both mediums used in Kenneth’s collaborative project. The social networking service (SNS) Facebook allowed for asynchronous group interactions and the videoconferencing service Skype provided a means for synchronous dialogues.

Social media users rely upon the collective intelligence of groups to address issues of common interest (Gee, 2004; Jenkins, 2006). Simply put, social media platforms “have lowered the costs of production and circulation, decreasing the investment of skills and money required to meaningfully shape our culture, and thus have paved the way for more voices to be heard” (Clinton, Jenkins, & McWilliams, 2013, p. 8). The affordances of social media have even propped up democratic efforts, most notably during Arab Spring. It is therefore imperative that our society takes seriously what it means to be a “netizen” because, as Howard Rheingold (2012) argued, social media are still new enough that we can still “influence the way those media end up being used and misused for decades to come” (p. 1).

Social studies educators are the professed leaders of democratic citizenship education, but the field has long been dogged by traditional practices that do little to encourage student interaction with people outside the classroom walls (Evans, 2004). Furthermore, despite the rise of social media technologies that make local and global interactions easier, the literature offers few examples of experimentation in this area. The National Council for the Social Studies (2009) did contend in their “Position Statement on Media Literacy” that social studies educators should cultivate within students “the awareness and abilities to critically question and create new media and technology, and the digital, democratic experiences necessary to become active participants in the shaping of democracy” (p. 187). Jenkins (2009) even argued that the use of social media by youth cultures could be redirected to “geek out for democracy.” However, Mason and Metzger (2012) warned social studies educators to avoid “ubiquitous consumption of media technology,” but instead aim to use new media when they serve pragmatic educational purposes (p. 439). This is prudent counsel considering that the education field has a long history of technological promises unfulfilled (Cuban, 1986, 2001). Roberts and Butler (2014) contended that Web 2.0 technologies might break this cycle particularly because new media can position students as active producers, not simply passive consumers. The few scholarly examples of social media use in the social studies can shed some light on the possibilities and challenges in this area.

Use of Social Media in the Social Studies

While the pedagogical use of social networking services (SNS) with social studies students and pre-service teachers does not seem to be widespread (Carpenter & Krutka, 2014), there has been some exploration in various uses of social media within the field. While not considered formal research, two classroom-tested lessons utilized Twitter as a means to encourage students to engage in historical perspective-taking (Krutka & Milton, 2013) and reenactment (Lee et al., 2012). O'Brien and colleagues have conducted a series of studies where middle school students engaged in prolonged, substantive dialogues about public policy issues with peers from other schools using closed social media networks (e.g., O'Brien et al., 2014). Journell, Ayers, and Beeson (2013) studied the use of Twitter as a medium for political engagement in a Civics class and found that while there was potential, more instructor guidance was necessary to encourage meaningful political dialogue. Reich, Levinson, and Johnston (2011) sought to grow a community of learners by requiring 22 pre-service social studies teachers to engage with fellow pre-service teachers, classroom teachers, and others in an online social network for social studies educators. Maguth and Yamaguchi (2013) analyzed social media posts in the aftermath of the devastating 2011 earthquake in Japan to better understand both the role social media played in such events and how understanding multiple perspectives might further global citizenship. Working with the students and teacher in a high school geography course, Carano and Stuckart (2013) showed that blogging with Malaysian counterparts and Peace Corps volunteers increased cross cultural awareness and student engagement. While these initial explorations show some pedagogical promise for various uses of social media, social studies educators should continue to explore how we can educate students to use social media to cultivate democratic, dialogical, and humanizing mediated experiences.

Lan's Framework for Democratic Media Literacy

Lan's (2013) framework for democratic media literacy (see Table 11.1) offers one possible way to rethink what it means to do social studies after the rise of social media. Lan utilized Barton and Levstik's (2004) three conceptions of democratic citizenship to categorize various notions of media and new media literacies (Aufderheide, 1993; Hobbs, 2010; Jenkins et al., 2006) with the intent of helping "social studies educators effectively prepare deliberative, pluralistic, and participatory citizens in the new media world" (p. 60). For example, while deliberative citizenship can be addressed through the democratic discourse, suspension of judgment, and informed decision-making present in quality issues-centered education, these characteristics take on new forms in new media environments.

Table 11.1 Lan’s (2013) Democratic Media Literacy Skills

Democratic Citizenship (Barton & Levstik, 2004)	Corresponding Democratic Media Literacy Conceptions
<i>Deliberative Citizenship</i> (e.g., issue-centered discussion, democratic discourse)	Transmedia Judgment: The ability to evaluate the reliability and credibility of different information carried through various forms of media texts (adapted from Jenkins et al., 2006) Online Discussion: The ability to communicate one’s views online with people from diverse backgrounds New Media Expression: The ability to make defensible decisions on social issues and to communicate these articulated ideas through various media formats
<i>Pluralistic Citizenship</i> (e.g., multicultural education, affirmation of diversity and diverse perspectives, democratic experiences)	Virtual Communities Navigation: The openness to visit diverse virtual communities and networks that represent various perspectives Mediated Identity Reflection: The ability to examine one’s own social and cultural positioning and assumptions in various new media environments, such as virtual worlds
<i>Participatory Citizenship</i> (e.g., engagement in community and political affairs, justice-oriented action)	Social Group Networking: The capacity to maintain membership in social groups and networks via new media environments and tools Social Action With/Through New Media: The ability to use new media and technologies to coordinate and organize civic projects and to advocate for social justice

Transmedia judgment demands that students assess the credibility and reliability of information they might encounter on and across news sites, YouTube videos, Twitter, and Wikipedia. That social media provides platforms where more people can create media both democratizes and complicates reliability and access to information. Stories can travel much faster across more mediums than ever before and educators must consider how various media formats influence students’ understandings of others.

We believe that social media might offer a means to connect with people of diverse, global cultures and engage in dialogic experiences that humanize others. While we cannot return to a time when information is understood within local contexts, new possibilities for participation, collaboration, and curation via social media offer new possibilities (and challenges) for a social studies education that often suffers from the study of decontextualized historical information long removed from purpose. In this chapter we analyze a case study through the lens of Lan’s (2013) democratic media literacy framework with the hope of providing insights for fostering humanizing experiences in a media-saturated world. As Mason and Metzger (2012) pointed out, much of the promise of social media’s educational potential is largely unrealized. We will detail what it might take to realize the potential of social media in the field and possibly awaken, as Martorella (1997) put it regarding technology, the “sleeping giant in the social studies curriculum” (p. 511).

Methods

Bucking traditional conceptions of research, we followed the ethic of Cochran-Smith and Lytle's (1993) interpretivist Teacher Research (TR) that honors the deep knowledge and intentionality of educators within particular contexts. TR can be an effective means of addressing the day-to-day questions of educators who see "discrepancies between what is intended and what occurs" (p. 14) and we sought to provide a "rich classroom case" that might offer other educators insights for their situations (p. 20). Data for this chapter derived from social media interactions, interpretations of students' journals concerning their correspondence, insights derived from close observation of class activities, in-depth reflection during and after course experiences, multiple readings of Facebook conversations, and students' evaluations of our activities.

The continual dialogue before and during the writing process helped us re-think and re-assess what happened in Kenneth's class and enhance understandings. For example, one particular discussion about the class activities led Dan to suggest Lan's framework (2013) as a lens through which analysis might gain depth and offer new insights into what happened and what did not. Even the writing process offered another "method of inquiry, a way of finding out about yourself and your topic" (Richardson, 1994, p. 516). We aimed for this chapter to flow as a narrative without the types of categorizations that are often characteristic of academic research. Therefore, we italicized themes from Lan's framework (see Table 11.1) within the narrative instead of organizing it by those themes. Kenneth's voice is integral to the narrative because we believe it is important to highlight intentions, thoughts, and perceptions so other teachers can wrestle with the pedagogical questions along with us. Findings, recommendations, and ideas within this chapter are not meant to be generalizable, but we hope these methods and writing style offer our readers a more holistic sense of how and why class activities unfolded as they did so and thus consider implications in their own situations.

Case Study

Setting the Stage

The activities we describe in this chapter were conceived months prior to the course when I (Kenneth) met with Amani Ishashi, a Gaza teacher visiting the United States through the sponsorship of a local NGO. Amani was teaching English as a Second Language course to university students at a Gaza NGO. Amani and I agreed that in the forthcoming fall term her 16 students and my 16 social studies pedagogy students would participate in a social media exchange. I knew my pre-service social studies teachers would benefit from interacting with university students whose cultural experiences and histories dramatically departed from their own, but I was

unsure what they might take from such interactions or how to structure the activities. During our face-to-face class time, I sought for my students to learn how social media activities might help both build cross-cultural awareness and new media literacies that could potentially be applied in their future secondary classrooms. I envisioned my students would develop insights and methods for social media wise practices in their future classrooms.

During our in-class social studies pedagogy dialogues, I planned to facilitate discussions centered around how online communication tools might help my pre-service teachers and their future students grow as democratic citizens and develop cross-cultural awareness. I anticipated that ongoing dialogues with citizens from another country would provide my students with cultural experts who possessed information and insights that were contextual and personal. As the social media dialogue began, I prodded my pre-service teachers to ask questions about the daily lives of their Gaza counterparts and in turn ask themselves introspective questions concerning their preconceived beliefs about their Gaza contemporaries. An aspect of the reflective discussions in our pedagogy class focused on how these questions might compel my students to confront personal stereotypes that limited their understandings of different cultures and peoples. I hoped these experiences would help my pre-service teachers develop prompt ideas for holding similar dialogues in their future classes.

Preparing for this activity I reflected upon my experiences with social media as a secondary social studies instructor. I had enjoyed success utilizing social media with my own high school students using blogs with cross-cultural peers, but video-conferencing and using Facebook presented new opportunities and challenges. The cross-cultural correspondence and reflections my high school students had experienced had raised their global and cultural awareness. Furthermore, their blogging experiences extended understandings beyond academic content. As students' dialogues became more intimate with their peers our class discussion similarly addressed deeper and more contextualized issues. However, in my teacher education classes, I worried that these more interactive formats might allow for more to go wrong. Both my pre-service teachers and I had less control over the interactions because writing a blog is less spontaneous and predictable than the instantaneous interactions in which my pre-service teachers were about to engage. I hoped that by using Skype for synchronous conversations and Facebook for asynchronous interactions, my pre-service teachers would experience similar growth.

Initial Concerns

Making contact with Amani provided an opportunity to explore how social media might be utilized pedagogically. While I was excited to provide an authentic social media experience for my university students, I had some concerns as the term began. My greatest trepidations concerned the (in)abilities of Amani's and my students to engage in political discussions about the often volatile issues concerning

Palestinian-Israeli relations that can easily be colored by cultural or media biases. I feared that my students, and possibly the Gaza students, would see each other as the stereotypes that are too often portrayed in mainstream media. As previously mentioned, I had utilized social media as a secondary teacher, but the cultural groups with which my high school students had interacted did not hold the same level of cultural controversy in the U.S. that issues surrounding Gaza might. I was even concerned that some pre-service teachers, and university administrators, might misinterpret my intention with these activities to advocate anti-Semitic or anti-Israeli positions, which of course was not the case. Regrettably, I did not have the connections to also bring in Israeli students into the activity.

Logistics of Social Media Activities

The social media activities students participated in during this project included synchronous Skype sessions and a private synchronous or asynchronous Facebook page shared between the U.S. and Gaza students. Amani and I facilitated two group Skype sessions with both our classes. The initial session allowed for introductions and offered an opportunity for initial conversations and questions. The second group session was at the end of the term and was utilized to close the course project and offer participants an opportunity to share their experiences, comments, and questions. In between group sessions, each U.S. and Gaza student was paired with a minimum of two students from the other class and they were required to engage in multiple two hour Skype videoconference discussions.

A closed Facebook group page was also established as a community space where students and professors could engage in dialogue with each other to follow up, and build upon, Skype discussions. This forum allowed themes from the conversations to emerge and be expanded upon. Additionally, each week during face-to-face class sessions I reserved time for a dialogue with my students that led us to reflect upon the Skype and Facebook interactions. Discussions often centered around emerging themes, wise social media practices, and how these mediums could be best utilized in my pre-service teachers' future classrooms. While I suggested certain topics for Skype sessions (e.g., culture, stereotypes, education), the activities were specifically established as a flexible, authentic learning experiences. Pre-determined learning guidelines were limited so students could pursue their interests and questions.

Narrative of Social Media Activities

Many of my concerns and trepidations were quickly relieved as I introduced the project with the opening Skype session and my pre-service teachers began to interact with their Gaza counterparts. Early dialogue was respectful and a sense of curiosity seemed to fill the air. My students genuinely wanted to learn more about the experiences of

our new Gazan friends who were quick to share. While I had provided my students subjects to help guide discussions and focus on the types of issues that seemed pertinent to social studies classrooms, questions and curiosities about daily living led to authentic exchanges. These conversations laid the groundwork for the type of mutual respect that would be necessary for *online discussions* that touch on the types of controversial and political topics that *deliberative citizens* must address.

Initial dialogue with the Gaza students caused many of my pre-service teachers to realize that they had embedded stereotypes of Gazan peoples and cultures and, as the result of this discourse, they started to question some of these assumptions. For example, many were surprised to learn that a large number of the Gazans, who were predominantly Muslim, had Christian and Jewish friends. This *mediated identity reflection* allowed for them to grow as *pluralistic citizens* who could better appreciate diversity. However, in confronting their own fears and biases, some pre-service teachers were concerned with their ability to clearly communicate, without misinterpretation, with their Gaza partners. The following e-mail exchange between a pre-service teacher and me illustrated this point:

Student email:

I have a few concerns. It seemed that our conversation did get a little political today, which is fine, but I definitely dont [sic] feel comfortable about the possibility that our individual conversations may have much more of the same. I love meeting new people and the whole class seemed like they were very sweet individuals, but it seems that this may be somewhat of an inevitability during our one on one chats? I could be off base. anyways I just wanted to voice my concern with the possibility of that, which is something I dont feel comfortable happening. I dont know what suggestions or options I have here (Harris, personal communication, October 1, 2012).

I responded with the following email:

When I have utilized social networking with other cultures in past classes (at the high school level), the conversations have predominantly focused on culture and daily living. In fact, in one blog activity I did with high school students and Peace Corps Volunteers in Swaziland, the agreement between the Swaziland Peace Corps director and me before Peace Corps would agree to participate was that politics was off limits. Despite that, the students had wonderful conversations and wanted the activity to last longer. My point being, feel free to be upfront and state you don't want to talk politics. I believe you will still find the experience to be enriching and beneficial for your future social studies classroom. Here are some sample talking points you could focus on in your one-on-one Skype sessions. Most of these can keep you steered away from politics, culture, daily lives, family life, social life, education, job opportunities, stereotypes/misconceptions Americans have of Gaza and vice-versa, portrayal of Gaza residents in media versus reality, portrayal of Americans in media versus reality, geography of Gaza, history of Gaza, refugees, Israeli relations, future collaboration ideas (Carano, personal communication, October 1, 2012).

Student email:

Awesome, thats [sic] very helpful. Thank. I just dont want to offend anybody and not knowing much about the region I was a little concerned I would do so inadvertently. I will use these talking points (Harris, personal communication, October 2, 2012).

After this student's initial Skype session with his Gaza counterpart, he excitedly shared the details of his Skype session in class and reflectively shared with the class

how this activity had heightened his awareness of how his actions may be interpreted by others. This *mediated identity reflection* prompted him to question his identity and culture in ways that allowed him to embrace the diversity of his Gaza peer. The student addressed this theme by stating the following:

I had never thought of my role as a cultural representative before this. Representing my culture to another person made me reflect more deeply on my own. After starting to talk with my partner, my thoughts started to change about what I used to think. It made me reevaluate my assumptions about them and made me more aware of the words I used when talking to someone else. I hate the stereotypes we have of people in the Middle East. That I had of them. Talking to real people has helped me see my shortcoming in this. I feel like I now have friends in Gaza. We need to critically analyze our own positions. (Harris, personal communication, October 17, 2012)

The disequilibrium caused by the new and unexpected information provided to my pre-service teachers by the Gaza students about their experiences and beliefs naturally led to growth in their *transmedia judgments*. My students gained a deeper understanding of Gaza by being exposed to perspectives concerning the Israeli-Palestinian conflict that were not often common to American mainstream media. During the social media exchanges, an eight day Israeli-Palestinian conflict erupted. The Gaza students disclosed personal information about their family members and friends' homes being destroyed. One Gaza student even shared the tragic news and sorrow of a loved one being killed in an Israeli airstrike. Students were dumbfounded that these intense feelings of pain and loss did not seem to correlate with the tone of new reports of mainstream press about the ongoing conflict. Students acted as *deliberative citizens* as they engaged in ensuing class dialogues about the reliability and credibility of various media sources.

Such critical deliberation was not limited to my students as I also became more keen in my evaluation of information about the Israeli-Palestinian conflict. One morning, prior to class, I listened to National Public Radio (NPR) news pundits discuss this current conflict. One analyst stated that the most significant aspect of the conflict was that the world would see how much influence the Egyptian president had in the Middle East region. When I discussed this story with my pre-service teachers we contrasted the humanizing effects of our mediated social media experiences with what now seemed to be the dehumanizing news coverage by the national media. My pre-service teachers generally agreed that the intimate details of their Gazan partners' lives seemed much more significant than the broad themes often outlined in the press.

We all seemed to recognize that our social media experiences with our Gazan partners had a humanizing effect that contrasted with popular news media. Students commented that issues in Gaza no longer felt like foreign issues because these conflicts now involved people who were now near and dear to their heart. For example, one pre-service teacher mentioned that her partner was "always was talking about the bombs and how they were so loud and he could not sleep, this really made this topic personal. I was surprised by how realistic the situation was, like I just woke up from my dream of their living situation" (Wilcox, personal communication, November 28, 2012).

Our cross-cultural collaboration led my pre-service teachers to be more critical in their examination of the possible biases and perspectives of traditional media. They railed against how mainstream reporting tended to contextualize stories impersonally, oversimplify complex issues, and politicize or sensationalize stories. Another student, when comparing what he had read and seen in the media about the conflict with his conversations on Skype and Facebook stated about the social media exchange, “I did get to understand the human element more and having a human element enhanced my emotional connection to the subject” (Robinson, personal communication, November, 28, 2012). These discussion points led our class to consider other media options while also highlighting the importance of media literacy in school curricula.

These early focuses on *mediated identity reflection* and *transmedia judgment* caused me to probe further into issues regarding media literacy. After the first week’s Skype and Facebook discussions, I asked my pre-service teachers to use the questions embedded in the NCSS position statement on media literacy to further analyze the media sources we encountered:

1. What social, cultural, historical, and political contexts are shaping the message and the meaning I am making of it?
2. How and why was the message constructed?
3. How could different people understand this information differently?
4. Whose perspective, values and ideology are represented and whose are missing?
5. Who or what group benefits and/or is hurt by this message? (National Council for the Social Studies, 2009)

These questions only heightened our collective critical consciousness as a class. For example, my pre-service teachers deconstructed the following instant message exchange using the questions as a guide to arrive at a critical analysis of how the media reports news and how this method of reporting represented and influenced dominant values in American culture:

[9:39:41 AM] US participant: what are some of the misconceptions that you in Gaza think we Americans have of gaza...what do your students think?

[9:40:08 AM] Gaza participant: that we are terrorists (sic)

[9:40:45 AM] Gaza participant: I once was told by a Canadian that Gaza is a place where all terrorists gather

[9:41:13 AM] US participant: why do you think that Americans have those misconceptions?

[9:41:26 AM] Gaza participant: because of the media

[9:41:46 AM] US participant: why do you think the American (sic) media portrays you that way?

[9:41:51 AM] Gaza participant: your government owns the media and they let u see what they want

Course reflections on these dialogues and the differing perspectives U.S. students received from the news media versus their social media cultural counterparts also provided my pre-service teachers’ insights about ways they could impel their students to evaluate the reliability and credibility of various media texts. We also

discussed other types of media resources they could use to teach these skills (e.g., Newseum.org front pages of newspapers worldwide; Twitter news sources).

Another example of *mediated identity reflection* was demonstrated during one of the social media reflections during my class. A number of students voiced their frustration that their Gaza counterparts were spending the majority of the videoconference time talking about themselves and not affording the U.S. participants time to share. During this reflection, a couple of other students came to the defense of the Gazans pointing out the feelings of marginalization Gazans must have felt, which may have heightened the desire to tell their personal story. They continued that this activity had given these Gazans an outlet to share their voice with people from a culture they perceived as potentially influential in aiding their plight. As this was pointed out, I noticed a shift in perspective as many of my students moved from frustration to empathy and understanding. For example, one student later stated:

I hadn't thought about that. Now that I think about it. They can't have mail delivered to them, hardly ever have their story told in the news, and aren't even allowed to travel. No wonder they want to talk about themselves so much. They finally feel like they have an outlet and somebody cares! I feel bad now that I was complaining. (Johnson, personal communication, November, 7, 2012)

As this discussion ensued, my social studies pedagogy students also started discussing how similar exposure and teacher facilitated reflection about student stereotypes and assumptions could also help secondary students' *reflect* on their *mediated identity* by considering their cultural positioning.

Part of being a *deliberative citizen* is being able to make defensible decisions concerning social issues via numerous media formats, or engage in *new media expression*. While many of the pre-service teachers were admittedly still navigating this more cumulative component of democratic media literacy, they showed promise in the development of mini-lessons. As an extension of our social media activities, my pre-service teachers developed digital mini-lessons that focused on a social issue and addressed the NCSS media literacy questions. Three students reported teaching the mini-lessons in the classrooms in which they were student-teaching. One of the pre-service teachers led a class dialogue via Skype with her Gaza counterpart and then asked her high school students to create digital videos about the Israeli-Palestinian conflict. One resulting student documentary in which a Gazan participated included various perspectives concerning the conflict. Additionally, interviews in the film included the perspectives of students and adults from the community. Students then followed each segment by providing critical analysis of the viewpoints utilizing NCSS media literacy questions with an eye on how perspectives may have been influenced. While the video could have been shared more widely, it represented an admirable attempt at the type of *social action with/through new media* necessary for *participatory citizenship*.

My pre-service teachers also demonstrated *social action with/through new media*. During the eight day Israeli-Palestinian conflict, many Gazan students posted photos and videos of the destruction taking place on their private Facebook pages. In turn, many of my students shared these posts as resources with students in their classes. Three of my students became actively involved in raising awareness of

the Gazan residents’ plight through Skype sessions with their counterparts in their middle and high school classes. Additionally, some of my students reported sharing the posts with their personal Facebook friends, thus helping the messages of the Gazan students reach a wider audience. For many of the social studies pedagogy students, the interactions with their Gaza colleagues were humanizing and caused them to want to humanize others too. By helping to provide voice to the stories and feelings of their Gazan peers, they naturally became concerned with their marginalization and sought to teach for social action and justice.

Through these social media activities, and without a linear curriculum design, the pre-service teachers displayed successful growth in various aspects of democratic media literacy. While my students practiced at least some level of *virtual communities navigation* and *online discussion* just by virtue of participating in social media activities, other literacies were teased out over the course of our semester. These activities helped them, and me, consider what it means to be a deliberative, pluralistic, and participatory citizen in a media saturated world. Even more so, my pre-service teachers showed the ability to humanize their Gazan counterparts and wrestle with critical questions concerning media literacy. Several pre-service teachers found the experience helpful as they tried to “incorporate something like this into a classroom.” However, other students found the activities “rewarding on so many levels” that helped learn about both those “that live in the region as well as my own bias in understanding their culture and the people that live there...” (Huit, personal communication, December 12, 2012). One student clearly articulated how these social media activities drove deeper than much of our school curricula:

Besides logistics of facilitation, I feel that increased the depth of my knowledge concerning Palestine and the issues there. The feelings and personal connections I made to the people will be a great benefit to my future students as I want to impress upon them that life is more than studying about culture and people, but it is about experiencing it (Buckmaster, personal communication, December 5, 2012).

It has now been nearly two academic years since this activity first took place between my university students and the Gazan NGO English language learners. Several of my students have since acted as *participatory citizens* by maintaining membership in *social group networks*. Facebook discussions are still taking place between some Gazans and my former pre-service teachers who now have jobs as middle or high school teachers. In fact, some of these former students have reported to me that their Gaza counterparts Skype or blog with their current secondary students. For many of my students, these activities were more than just a lesson for class, but an on-going way of living.

Conclusions

If “understanding one classroom can help educators understand better all classrooms” then we hope this case might help other social studies educators rethink how social media can be used to expand the notion of classroom and curriculum

(Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993, p. 15). Knowing others through personal exchanges can offer fundamentally different conceptions of social studies knowledge than the traditional study of distant peoples, events, and places. In this case, Kenneth's pre-service social studies teachers did not simply aim to learn information about people and cultures with which they were largely unfamiliar, but they instead participated in mediated experiences that allowed them to look into the eyes and respond to the words of their Gaza counterparts. His students were able to ask specific questions when they were confused or curious. They did not merely learn about the historical and contemporary context of Gaza, they cared about people who lived there. Social media offers a way into many of the contexts that make up our complex and interconnected world. With mediums like Skype and Facebook, it seems no longer sufficient to limit our students to decontextualized experiences that only take place within the temporal and geographical boundaries of the classroom.

As globalization alters the knowledge and skills young people need to become effective citizens, social studies teachers should learn to embrace new approaches for promoting skills for working with others in an increasingly interconnected world. Teacher candidates should have multiple opportunities to take part in cross-cultural exchanges using new technologies while at the same time having an opportunity to hone the pedagogical skills to teach students in an increasingly interconnected world. Democratic media literacy skills can help pre-service teachers and their future students actively and mindfully participate in the new media landscape deliberately and pluralistically. Social media can help flatten our world and move beyond impersonal academic discourses to more humanized understandings of others.

Like his students, Kenneth was profoundly affected by these experiences. He can still remember the helplessness and alarm he felt as he finished instant messaging with his Gaza counterpart.

Amani: They may cut the electricity soon dear Kenneth Carano. If it is a long lasting war, they will cut the electricity during the whole operation :(

Kenneth: I am sorry. I will do what I can here. Unfortunately, that will not help right now

Amani: Thank you very much dear Kenneth Carano; I appreciate everything you do for us :)

Kenneth: It is not enough if you and others still have to sometimes live in fear

Amani: I hope all of this will pass so soon :)

Unlike watching media reports of Gaza or reading textbook accounts of the history of the region, Kenneth could not simply change the channel or shut the book. While the events of that day were a blip on the national radar for many Americans, interacting with Amani and her students humanized the events. In short, social media can help us re-imagine social studies pedagogy, in the words of one of Kenneth's pre-service teachers, as "more than studying about culture and people, but it is about experiencing it."

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Part IV

Rethinking School Relationships

Field experiences in social studies teacher education are spaces designed to cultivate teacher candidates' professional identities and pedagogical repertoires. However, in order to maximize the potential for teacher learning, these spaces must align with the goals and values of a teacher education program. This kind of alignment occurs most frequently when teacher education programs develop intentional relationships with schools. Such intentionality often leads to a reciprocity that yields advantages for both teacher and student learners. The chapters in this section highlight the nature of reciprocity between programs and schools, and the promise that rethinking school relationships hold for social studies teacher education.

Beaton and Mayo begin this section by chronicling the shift of a secondary social studies methods course from the university campus to the classrooms of a struggling urban high school in Minneapolis, Minnesota. This partnership has evolved into a strong collaboration between the faculties of these two sites for social studies teacher learning. Ultimately, Beaton and Mayo report that this school partnership has helped pre-service teachers deepen their understanding of culture, context, and the enactment of culturally relevant and student-centered teaching practices. Utilizing case study methods, Munte and Castro explore the a field-based program in an alternative high school in Columbia, Missouri that requires prospective social studies teachers to work together with social studies students on a global social issues project. The findings from this study illustrate how the construction of quality school experiences can facilitate the civic engagement of school and university students alike. Focusing on the notion of a design-minded approach to social studies teacher education, Hostetler uses data from a residency program in social studies education at Vanderbilt University to unpack three pertinent issues to partnership design and implementation: (1) how resources can be leveraged to help solve problem among and between university and school partners; (2) how to create stronger and more explicit connections between practice and social studies teacher education; and (3) how learning in practice can be supported by other program experiences.

Taken together, the three chapters in this section cast a vision of powerful social studies teacher education being dependent on quality school partnerships. As these chapters illustrate, in order for field experiences to animate the campus-based curriculum of social studies teacher education, the ecology of the field experience must be carefully considered. Who are the school and program actors involved supporting field experiences? What expectations exist for schools and programs? When is the most opportune time during the curriculum of teacher education to accentuate practice? What vision of social studies teaching binds the school and program together? Answering these kinds of questions and the innumerable others that emerge from partnerships are critical to mutually beneficial partnerships that advance the goals of both schools and social studies teacher education programs. It is our hope that these chapters provide insight into possible ways to rethink field experiences in your program.

Chapter 12

Reciprocity and Relationship: Urban Teacher Preparation Through Partnership

Jehanne Beaton and J.B. Mayo Jr.

Nearly five years ago, a social studies teacher candidate named Archie,¹ spent his student teaching experience in an urban, public middle school, closely located to a large research-intensive university. A teacher candidate of color – one of three in a cohort of 25 – Archie requested placement in a diverse urban school. That year, the licensure program had difficulty finding spots for its candidates, and as many as a third of its spring student teaching placements were with cooperating teachers new to the faculty and program. Such was the case with Archie’s cooperating teacher, Mr. Jones: the program faculty knew little of his practice, only that Mr. Jones’s school principal had approved the placement. Through observations conducted by his supervisor and Archie’s reflections of discouragement and disillusion that dominated his journal entries and in-class discussion, the university faculty came to know Mr. Jones’s teaching. Mr. Jones taught 6th grade ancient history by lecture and outline. Students sat in silent rows. Every day, the classroom lights dimmed and the document camera beamed a new outline for students to copy. Mr. Jones expected his students to copy his words on their papers, one line uncovered at a time on the projector screen, and he moved up and down the aisles, describing the aqueducts of the Roman Empire or the construction of the pyramids at Giza or the definition of civilization. On the days when Archie attempted – and failed – to implement student-centered, authentic, and culturally relevant pedagogies in Mr. Jones’s classroom, Mr. Jones explained to Archie that his students, predominantly students of color and students living in poverty “couldn’t handle that kind of teaching.” They needed structure, direction, and more “hand-holding” because they “didn’t know anything.” At some point in his student teaching experience, Archie resigned himself to imitate Mr. Jones’s pedagogy. Archie’s university supervisor observed Archie as he stood at the document projector, uncovering the outline to be copied, one

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bullet point at a time, working hard to maintain student silence and classroom control. Midway through his student teaching experience, Archie told his supervisor that he didn't want to teach in a city school. Program faculty later learned from a teacher leader in the school that Mr. Jones had been permitted to host a teacher candidate in the hope that, according to his principal, his students might learn something, if only for a few weeks, under Archie's inexperienced instruction.

Archie's experience is not unique. For decades, researchers have told stories of teacher candidates who learn to teach in urban classrooms that embody Haberman's (1991) pedagogy of poverty: classrooms that emphasize control over curiosity and content over critical thinking. These classrooms are dominated by teacher-centered, direct instruction where students, many of whom are students of color, see no connection between the curriculum and their lives (Haberman, 1991). While maybe commonplace (Zeichner & Tabachnik, 1981), Archie's story was personal. Archie was a promising social studies teacher candidate in our licensure program. His experience (and those similar, shared by other teacher candidates in our program) struck a nerve with faculty members of a licensure program and a college of education grounded in the tenets of authentic pedagogy, student-centered, constructivist and cooperative learning, and culturally relevant teaching.

Thus, roughly three years ago, the University of Minnesota Social Studies initial licensure program took a leap of faith and shifted one of its secondary methods courses off-campus and to a third floor classroom in a struggling city high school, one we will call Southeast Tech (STHS). Representative of other urban schools and districts, STHS is rife with "a variety of complicated and interrelated issues with implications for aspiring teachers" (Matsko & Hammerness, 2014). Precariously located on the cusp of turnaround status at the time, STHS sits in a large, bureaucratic, city district and is host to a diverse student body, with 90 % of its students identifying as people of color, 65 % as bilingual, and 90 % qualifying for free- or reduced-lunch. The methods instructor, Jehanne Beaton, a doctoral student in Social Studies Education and former teacher at STHS, simultaneously stepped into a new role, that of partnership liaison. In this role, Beaton facilitated the placement of four teacher candidates at STHS, thereby launching the partnership between the university teacher education programs and the school.

In this chapter, we will describe the partnership model initiated between the social studies ILP and STHS. We will discuss the role of the partnership liaison and the multidimensional impacts on teacher preparation of locating someone in the space between an urban high school and a university. The effects of the partnership have rippled, influencing multiple aspects of the teacher preparation process: cooperating teachers and teacher candidates, recruitment and induction. We will also describe the ways in which the partnership has influenced the social studies program overall, specifically addressing how and where we make placements and, more importantly, the emphasis on reciprocity and relationship in our interactions with schools where our teacher candidates learn to teach.

Before the Partnership with STHS

Prior to the partnership with STHS, the structure of the teacher education program at the University of Minnesota mirrored that of other fifth-year, post-baccalaureate teacher licensure programs (Darling-Hammond, Chung, & Frelow, 2002, p. 287). Program entrance requirements included having earned a bachelor's degree, with a major in a social science, and completing 100 h of volunteer service with p-12 students in educational settings. Once admitted, teacher candidates underwent intensive coursework on campus during their summer term, learning about teaching and social studies education.

In the fall, teacher candidates experienced a shortened practicum experience, where they spent 6–8 weeks in a school. For a month of that time, teacher candidates devoted roughly four hours, daily, to their practicum settings, observing at first, and then shouldering the teaching responsibilities for at least one class period per day. Student teachers left their schools by noon to return to the university for evenings filled with continued coursework. Program requirements called upon teacher candidates to write daily lesson plans and journals to reflect on their experiences during practicum. These written assessments aimed to bridge theory and practice, academic and field settings. Supervisors and methods instructors assessed teacher candidates on their ability to apply what they had learned in their coursework to a classroom setting, regardless of context.

The final element of the program placed teacher candidates back into the schools for an extended (10-week) student teaching experience. During this time, teacher candidates were instructed to spend minimal time observing their cooperating teachers (roughly one or two weeks). From there, the teacher candidate took on as much of the teaching as possible. This included the instructional facets of the job (writing lesson plans, grading student work, crafting assessments) as well as the more technical features of teaching (managing student behavior, participating in parent teacher conferences, taking attendance, and attending staff and department meetings). Teacher candidates were limited to teaching two social studies 'preps', or subject areas, and were not permitted to lead classes that required additional training, such as advanced placement or AVID² courses. Additionally, teacher candidates were expected to be on campus twice weekly for evening course work. These courses emphasized the integration of experience and theory through extended reflective work and analysis of what was observed and lived in the classroom. Upon completion of the program, graduates earned a teacher's license in secondary social studies (grades 5–12) and a Master of Education degree in social studies as well.

²AVID is a program that aims to "increase the number of students who enroll in, and persist in, four-year colleges" (AVID.org). At STHS, the AVID program targets students who fall just below standard for what the school deems as 'college ready'. This determination is made through review of student grades, behavior referrals, standardized test scores, and teacher recommendations.

The Partnership Liaison Role at STHS

Much of the work of teacher education requires the crossing of boundaries between the university and schools. Given this, much of the literature on field experiences, student teaching, professional development schools, and practice-based teacher preparation centers on the work of teacher educators who traverse these borders (Cornbleth & Ellsworth, 1994; Dailey-Dickinson, 2000; Hersi & Shirley, 2008; Lampert & Solomon, 2013; Lindquist Wong & Glass, 2009; Peterman, 2013). The partnership between the university teacher education programs and STHS began with the creation of the partnership liaison position, a role that inhabited the borderlands (Anzaldúa, 1987) between school- and campus-based teacher education. Though ill-defined initially, the purpose of the partnership liaison, a co-funded and co-located position,³ was to facilitate and support bridge building between the 'real world' knowledge of STHS teachers and staff and the 'academic' and 'theoretical' knowledge of campus-based teacher education courses and faculty. In the case of STHS, the partnership liaison role mirrors that of a clinical teacher educator, a role central to the Boston Urban Teacher Residency. There, clinical teacher educators bridge coursework and fieldwork in ways that are specific to the school contexts where teacher residents work as they complete their residency program (Lampert & Solomon, 2013). The University of Minnesota/ STHS partnership liaison, with a foot on either side of the school/university divide, served as the primary boundary crosser for STHS and the social studies ILP, carrying knowledge, practices, and perspectives to be communicated until relationships were strong enough to do so without liaison support. Unlike

the often reluctant PDS liaison who must separate herself from her native culture (public school or university), undergo an initiation under fire (struggle to gain the trust and respect of either the public school or university faculty), and then return to their home culture with new-found insights (Breault, 2010, p. 401),

the liaison role between STHS and the university instead hearkens toward Murrell's description of a community teacher. Murrell (2001) writes,

Community teachers draw on richly contextualized knowledge of culture, community and identity in their professional work with children and families in diverse urban communities. Their competence is evidenced by effective pedagogy in diverse community settings, student achievement, and community affirmation and acknowledgement of their performance (p. 4).

Further, community teachers are seen as being someone of the community, if not necessarily from the community, familiar with the contextualized cultural practices necessary to teach successfully within the community (Murrell, 2001; Zeichner & Payne, 2013, p. 11). As our initial hire for the liaison position, Beaton was of the

³For the first three years, the partnership liaison was co-funded by a grant received by the College of Education and by the STHS school budget. The position combined a .25 graduate assistantship with a .2 FTE Teacher On Special Assignment contract. The liaison was afforded office space both at the university and at STHS.

school community (a former social studies teacher at STHS) and of the *university* community (a doctoral student). Accruing a decade of successful teaching at various schools within the district, Beaton had demonstrated her ability to enact culturally relevant and authentic teaching practices. Additionally, she was connected to a network of educators within the district who espoused similar pedagogical practices.

Subject to internal expectations and external pressures to revisit, redesign, or replace teacher education (NCATE, 2010; U.S. Department of Education, 2011; Zeichner, 2012a, 2012b), the social studies initial licensure program supported the partnership liaison at STHS and tapped the role to pilot initiatives that would alter field experiences for social studies teacher candidates. Both faculty members in the social studies program believed that field experiences could (and should) be more effective than they were at the time. Simultaneously, a college-wide initiative was underway that aimed to redesign the implementation of the teacher licensure programs. Social Studies Education faculty members saw the partnership liaison as part of the overall redesign, potentially enhancing the field experiences of the social studies teacher candidates.

Placement

Prior to the partnership with STHS, the social studies initial licensure program found it difficult to place its teacher candidates in high quality urban classrooms where pedagogy paralleled the theoretical pillars of the program. For years, the social studies ILP has grounded its methods courses in Authentic Intellectual Work (AIW), as prescribed by Newmann, King & Carmichael (2007). The AIW Framework promotes student work and assessment that allows for students' construction of knowledge, inquiry based in discipline-specific concepts, and connections to the world beyond the classroom. Students engaged in authentic intellectual work participate in higher order thinking, deep knowledge, and substantive conversation about ideas that are relevant and meaningful beyond the school walls. Teacher education programs expect cooperating teachers to model their teaching practices to their teacher candidates, and view that practice as a fundamental element of mentoring for cooperating teachers (Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Clark, Triggs, & Nielsen, 2013). Yet as Samaras and Gismondi (1998) comment on the perplexing nature of field experience, our program sought to avoid placements that would immerse teacher candidates in "poor teaching models that they might mimic" (Samaras & Gismondi, 1998, p. 729). Unfortunately, we were not always successful in that endeavor.

The tensions caused by serving as a cooperating teacher have been discussed in previous research. As an example, Koerner (1992) identifies multiple 'consequences' to taking on student teachers, including the interruption of established rhythms, schedules and instruction, the displacement of the classroom teacher, a change in the autonomy and control of the classroom teacher, and a distraction from

the primary purpose of the classroom teacher, her students' learning, in order to mentor the teacher candidate (p. 48). These findings reinforce notions of a "cross-purposes pitfall" of student teaching (Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985), suggesting that the goals that underscore the role of cooperating teachers may conflict with those of teaching children (Koerner, 1992, p. 54). Bacharach, Heck & Dahlberg (2010) assert that the added pressures of standardized testing and teacher evaluation further dissuade talented teachers from taking on a teacher candidate, as traditional student teaching placements leave their students in the hands of inexperienced, first-time teachers. Additionally, many social studies teachers in our local schools work under mandated scripted curricula and standardized testing structures that restrict their implementation of student-centered, authentic and culturally relevant pedagogies. Mirroring a nation-wide trend, our local urban schools face high rates of teacher turnover and, consequently, a smaller pool of tenured social studies teachers to tap as cooperating teachers (Ingersoll, 2002; Ronfeldt, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2013; Scherff, 2008). Thus, our field placement coordinator often found herself scrambling to place our teacher candidates in urban classrooms at all, much less in placements that embodied the AIW tenets we espoused. These structural complications, compounded by the resulting indiscriminate placements, contributed to a concern that the urban student teaching classrooms experienced by our teacher candidates had the potential to "perpetuate stereotypes and confirm rather than interrupt deficit thinking" about students of color, students in poverty, and urban schools generally (Anderson & Stillman, 2012, p. 4).

With the creation of the liaison position at STHS, placement became a partnership matter. Securing high quality urban placements became a shared responsibility, reliant on horizontal expertise (Zeichner & Payne, 2013, p. 7) and reflective of reciprocal needs. Placements were no longer determined simply by the quality, interest, and/or availability of the cooperating teacher, but additionally the potential capacity for the teacher candidate to succeed in a high-poverty, diverse setting such as STHS *during his/her field experience and beyond*. Prior to the partnership, the STHS social studies department had sporadically hosted teacher candidates with varied success. Through partnership, STHS cooperating social studies teachers advised the program to place potential teacher candidates only after spending an extended visit on-site first. One cooperating teacher spoke to the importance of choosing a placement based on an in-person interview and visit to the school.

If this person was coming to do an interview with me, and I wasn't in the room... [and] any of my students walked in the room, and they had a question... [is that teacher candidate] willing to engage [...] *any* kid here at [STHS ... no] matter who walks in the room? And maybe the kid's just standing there, not saying anything. [...] Is that teacher candidate] willing to approach them first? [Say], What do you need? [...] Because it's like, with our kids, if you can't engage them and build a little bit of that trust, nothing else really matters (Focus group, 2012).

Through the connective role of the partnership liaison, practical knowledge from our partner teachers could be carried back to the social studies ILP and factored into programmatic changes.

Additionally, STHS cooperating teachers adopted a co-teaching model for student teaching (Bacharach et al., 2010). Rather than turning over the classroom to the teacher candidate just weeks into the student teaching experience, STHS cooperating teachers embarked on a collaborative teaching model, emphasizing relationship-based mentoring, shared and intentional co-teaching strategies, and joint co-planning. Thus, through partnership, placements at STHS took on greater significance and stature. Serving as a cooperating teacher at STHS signaled instructional competence and strength in the classroom. On more than one occasion, STHS teachers approached the liaison and asked, “What do I need to do to get a student teacher?” In collaboration with the STHS social studies department and the social studies ILP faculty, the liaison facilitated opportunities for cooperating teachers and teacher candidates to meet prior to placement. STHS social studies teachers participated in summer microteaching sessions to get an initial look at the social studies ILP pool of candidates and to offer insights into those first lessons crafted and implemented by teacher candidates in front of an audience of their peers. The liaison scheduled visits for ILP students to tour the school and meet with potential cooperating teachers. The pre-placement visits to the school also enabled teacher candidates to spend time in classrooms with STHS students and experience the school culture first-hand before agreeing to an extended placement.

Over the course of the first three years in partnership, these in-person pre-placement interactions have afforded STHS cooperating teachers with a more significant decision-making role in the placement process and elevated the stature of a placement at STHS. Our teacher candidates now view STHS as a “good place to teach *and* be a part of the community” (Personal communication, August 22, 2014). To be selected for a social studies student teaching placement at STHS, a highly diverse, urban school, has become something sought after by a larger number of social studies teacher candidates in the program. According to a recent graduate of the program, “I knew we had a partnership with [STHS] and that we sent a large number of student teachers there.” Even though this particular student was not placed at STHS, he “desire[d] to teach in the district where STHS is located, in part, given the U of M’s relationship there, and [he] thinks we put a lot of topics discussed in courses in the context of [STHS], which was great” (Personal communication, August 22, 2014). The partnership with STHS has increased (some) methods instructors’ emphasis on teaching in an urban environment, and has encouraged our students to seek student teacher placements and future jobs in local urban schools: “I believe [STHS] is where excellent teaching is needed to help make the world a better place. I want to make a difference, and if that difference can also be in the community where I live, that makes it all the better” (Personal communication, August 22, 2014).

Through the liaison position, the UMN Social Studies ILP was able to cultivate social studies placements in strong, well-functioning urban classrooms at STHS. As noted above, STHS social studies teachers had greater input into the selection of teacher candidates for practicum and student teaching placements, and teacher candidates had opportunities to visit real classrooms with real students prior to placement. STHS cooperating teachers participated in focus group conversations,

providing input on placement, lesson plan structure, and the use of a co-teaching model for student teaching experiences.

The Impact of the Partnership on the Social Studies ILP

Embarking on the partnership with STHS has impacted the University of Minnesota's social studies ILP aside from placement and induction, yet still important to mention here. The partnership with STHS has pressed the program to make an epistemological shift, rethinking the ways in which we determine what "counts" as knowledge when it comes to preparing teachers for diverse, urban schools. It has also raised questions about how to support campus-based teacher educators who lack practical experience teaching social studies in diverse, urban settings.

School-university partnerships are frequently criticized for the implicit hierarchy that privileges academic and theoretical knowledge over experiential, practice-based knowledge (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Murrell, 1998; Zeichner, 2010). Cochran-Smith (1991) examined the literature on redesigned student teaching programs over a 10-year period, reporting that in the majority of these programs, practicing teachers are absent from decisions about what teachers need to be able to know and do in order to be successful in the classroom. In the preparation of teachers, cooperating teachers are positioned as subordinate to the university, leaving the ultimate decision of whether or not a teacher candidate becomes a teacher to the university (Clarke et al., 2013, p. 25). Even in partnership and through professional development schools, decisions about the design, curriculum, instructional and assessment practices remain under the domain of university faculty (Zeichner & Payne, 2013), reifying the belief within the field that teacher education faculty possessed a "superior capacity to prepare teachers" in comparison to p-12 practitioners (Cornbleth & Ellsworth, 1994, p. 3). Murrell (1998) further criticizes the PDS model as a means to prepare urban teachers on account of its exclusion of the knowledge brought to urban schools by parents and community members. Thus, initiating the partnership with STHS marked an epistemological shift for the program, as it would require that our program rethink "whose knowledge counts and whose expertise must inform" the processes, courses, field experiences, and how we came to those decisions (Zeichner & Payne, 2013, p. 3).

Researchers emphasize the need for teacher educators to "live their own models" (Samaras & Gismondi, 1998, p. 716), but the situated experiences of graduate student methods instructors curtails that possibility. Zeichner (2010) writes that one of the challenges faced by teacher preparation programs is the employment of graduate/ doctoral students in student teaching supervisor and methods instructor roles. The constant turnover of graduate students, especially as lean economic times have necessitated funding cuts in teacher education programs, means campus-based teacher educators have varied practical experience, disparate knowledge of the research on teacher development, and unreliable levels of familiarity with local schools (Zeichner, 2010, p. 61). Further, the revolving door of graduate/ doctoral

students as supervisors and methods instructions also translates into varied experiences and practical knowledge of what it is to work in diverse school settings with students in need. Intrator and Kunzman (2009) write, “(T)eacher educators teach about a setting they no longer fully inhabit” (p. 512). Ronfeldt and Grossman (2008) describe the impact on the identity development of teacher candidates without such modeling.

When novices do not actually see instructors in practitioner roles, the possible selves they encounter are always partial.... (U)ntested images of what may be possible (are) not enough to prepare novices for new roles, even when these images included specific strategies and ways of interacting with others. It is one thing to have a clear and elaborated vision of a possible self and quite another to actually enact that vision (pp. 47, 49).

When it comes to teaching about the experience of teaching in a diverse, urban classroom with large numbers of high need students, many teacher educators in our program have *never* inhabited such spaces. Thus modeling and attempting to speak with authority and confidence about the urban teaching experience positions teacher educators as imposters.

Early on in the partnership, one supervisor commented that although he had taught for nearly five years in private schools, both locally and abroad, he had no first-hand experience in a school like STHS. He reacted with discomfort and surprise when, during one of his observation visits, the school announced a hall sweep to address tardiness. He watched students sprint for their classes while teachers locked their classroom doors, excluding late students from instruction. The supervisor acknowledged that he was unsure how to advise the teacher candidate on the ethics of the policy or of her options as a teacher candidate in such situations. Similarly, students enrolled in our university-based methods courses have reported a “disconnect” between the teaching experiences of their instructors within the program and the experiences they faced while student teaching at STHS. Lack of first-hand experience in urban settings on the part of doctoral students serving as methods instructors and university supervisors has translated into a lack of confidence in their own abilities to guide teacher candidates placed in high need school contexts like STHS. It further leads these developing teacher educators to overly rely on the expertise of urban cooperating teachers to provide teacher candidates with that guidance, thus leaving the teacher candidate to accept the status quo as what is possible in urban education, potentially reifying educational practices that do not serve diverse student populations.

Conflicts Within the Partnership

Although they may be experts in the teaching of reading or mathematics and have a number of years of successful p-12 teaching experience, they are often not aware of what is known from research about how to support teacher learning and its transfer to the early years of teaching in the context of a university-based teacher education program (Zeichner, 2010, p. 90).

Although the partnership built relationships with STHS social studies practitioners and secured reliable and trusted placements for social studies teacher candidates, these placements were not without conflict. District mandates, such as scripted curriculum, standardized testing, and value-added teacher evaluation, as well as school curricular requirements pressured some STHS social studies teachers to place their instructional emphases elsewhere besides culturally relevant and authentic pedagogy. Some social studies ILP candidates continued to receive mixed messages about the practicality of authentic pedagogy and CRP in contexts such as STHS. In one instance, a teacher candidate designed a curricular unit for a government class around the Dream Act legislation. The teacher candidate sought to link her social studies lessons with her students' lives, as many were undocumented themselves or had friends and family members without immigration papers. Unfortunately, her cooperating teacher refused the curriculum, noting the pressure to cover content and prepare the kids for the AP exams. Additionally, the cooperating teacher thought the curriculum inappropriate, because such a topic was "too emotional" for STHS students (Journal, 2012). While the partnership liaison attempted to counter statements such as these made to social studies teacher candidates as conveying racism, low expectations, and fear, some teacher candidates still did not have the opportunity to witness AIW and CRP in action, nor be coached by a skilled practitioner in the implementation of such lessons.

The partnership between the social studies ILP and STHS has experienced other challenges as well. An extended example from the first year of our partnership highlights this most dramatically. A mismatched pairing of a teacher candidate and cooperating teacher resulted in a near termination of the partnership within the first year. University professors represented the conflict as a problem with a cooperating teacher who was reported to be "*the alpha male*" by the teacher candidate, "*restrictive about what he would allow,*" and openly disrespectful of the expectations of teacher candidates held by the university (Journal 2012). After learning the teacher candidate had requested STHS because it was located on a bus line, the STHS cooperating teacher charged that the university neglected the needs of the school and the quality of teacher candidates assigned. The partnership liaison spent weeks attempting to cobble together a patchwork of truth from various stakeholders. A supervisor refused to speak to the liaison, suggesting that "*shar(ing) information with me ... would put her teacher candidates and their future careers in jeopardy*" (Journal 2012). The teacher candidate involved agreed to share his story once he had completed the placement. A cooperating teacher drew a line in the sand as to her expectations for future candidates: "*I'm not taking a bad teacher candidate any more. I won't take (just) somebody. They have to be good. I'm not gonna be part of something that's not ... good*" (Journal 2012). The professors questioned whether or not to continue partnering with the cooperating teachers at STHS. Ultimately, tensions waned and the partnership continued, but not without loss of trust. Social studies faculty temporarily 'banned' selected cooperating teachers, positioning them as placements only to be taken if other options proved unavailable. Cooperating teachers lengthened the list of 'conditions' by which they would take teacher candidates.

Each of these moves suggested an entrenchment in an *us-them* binary from both university and STHS participants.

Since then, as conflicts arise, commitment to partnership and a growing sense of trust have underscored our work towards resolution. One placement was terminated and replaced after a STHS cooperating teacher refused the teacher candidate upon meeting him, citing a personality conflict. Since then, the liaison has helped the program to make intentional selections in pairing teacher candidates with this particular STHS cooperating teacher, tapping the strengths he has to offer, while professionally confronting him on his biases. In another instance, STHS administrators explicitly told a cooperating teacher, “Don’t let your teacher candidate teach” after they observed him conduct a lesson void of any rigor or relevance to the students. These concerns were immediately communicated to the university supervisor and additional supports were provided to the cooperating teacher/ teacher candidate pair. We recognize that this is only a start. In order for the partnership to deepen, we need to provide and support more frequent opportunities for STHS staff and social studies ILP teacher educators to engage in meaningful conversations about the needs of each institution and the students it serves, what constitutes authentic and culturally relevant social studies practices, and how to best support the development of such practices at STHS.

Reciprocity Through Teacher Recruitment and Induction Support

In the first three years of the partnership with the University of Minnesota, STHS has hosted more than thirty practicum and student teaching placements across multiple subject areas and licensure programs. Many of these teacher candidates have been hired into the district. Thirteen recent graduates have been hired at STHS, most of which have been facilitated by the liaison position and the partnership network. When a position opens up at STHS, the school administration taps connections into the university initial licensure programs through the direct or indirect help of the partnership liaison. The STHS social studies department has hosted the lion’s share of the UMN’s student teaching placements, having welcomed fifteen social studies ILP candidates for practicum or student teaching experiences. Early into the partnership, STHS hired a social studies teacher who had just graduated from the UMN social studies program. Since then, an additional two recent graduates from the social studies ILP have joined the STHS teaching staff. Though each of these new teachers is assigned a district mentor, the liaison position allowed for more in-depth and regular induction support for these new teachers as they transitioned from the licensure program to the school. New STHS teachers who have come out of the social studies ILP have moved through their induction years together, leaning on each other for counsel, support and reinforcement as they navigate the confluence of political and bureaucratic forces of the school and district. By doing so, our

partnership has reinforced a professional culture that works toward equity-minded and student-centered practices at STHS. As a result, this fall, a social studies ILP teacher candidate will be placed in the classroom of a young teacher and graduate of our licensure program, a teacher who espouses and enacts both authentic and culturally relevant pedagogy, and who has just completed his third year of teaching.

A similar process has begun to occur in social studies departments across the district. Within three years, the district has hired another dozen recent graduates of the UMN social studies ILP. These young teachers meet up at district professional development inservices and district departmental meetings and speak from a shared language and foundation in social studies pedagogy, thanks to their preparation in the Social Studies ILP. Due to their numbers, their collective understanding and belief in equity-minded and authentic pedagogies, and their trust in each other, this group of young teachers has become a louder and stronger voice in district decision-making around social studies curriculum and policy. Rather than confronting early teaching years of isolation, loneliness, doubt, and strategic compliance (Flores & Day, 2006; Scherff, 2008), these new social studies teachers at STHS and within our district find confidence and support in each other and know that, together, they 'have each other's backs' (Picower, 2011) as they push for more authentic and culturally relevant practices.

Reciprocity Through Research: Collaboration Across the University-School Divide

One of the unanticipated benefits of the partnership between the university and STHS – and other example of collaboration in reciprocity and relationship – was a research project that centered lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) visibility and lives within the larger school context. The partnership facilitated our joint participation in *Beyond Bullying: Shifting the Discourse of LGBTQ Sexuality and Youth in Schools*, which was funded by the Ford Foundation. This project included activities within public high schools in Minneapolis-Saint Paul, New York City, and San Francisco that spanned over a two-year period. In each city, a public high school was selected to house the project: Based on its location, size, and demographic make-up, STHS qualified as a potential *Beyond Bullying* site in the Twin Cities, but the pre-existing partnership between STHS and the university solidified the final site selection. And because students of color, including African American, Latina/o, and Somali, make up a significant portion of the STHS student population, intersections between race, class, and sexual orientation/gender identity were prioritized by research teams, rather than viewed as an after- thought. This focused intersectional work fully supported the social studies program's desire to make explicit the critical roles played (but often overlooked or unnamed) by race and class within the context of student teacher placements and teacher education

more generally. The significance of cultural context(s) on students' lived experiences within schools was made explicit for teacher-participants at STHS, and they connected their nuanced understanding to a university-led endeavor. Researchers and graduate students from three universities collaborated with STHS faculty, students, and staff during a focused, two-week period that saw participants "collect multimedia stories that reflect the many ways LGBTQ sexuality circulates in a school, shaping students' and teachers' interactions, creating possibilities, and disallowing others" (Fields, Gilbert, Lesko & Mamo, 2012).

This project and all of its logistical entanglements would not have been possible had there not been the pre-established relationship between STHS and the social studies teacher education program at the University of Minnesota. The partnership liaison was instrumental in pulling together teachers, staff, and administrators at STHS for planning meetings before the two-week project was launched. She facilitated introductions among visiting scholar/researchers and key faculty members that successfully created buy-in from STHS teachers in support for the project. In addition, one social studies faculty member served as the research consultant for the project, given his previous research on LGBTQ-focused themes within education, and the social studies in particular. The partnership model that had been established between the university and STHS made this noteworthy, research collaboration possible and is representative of their enduring reciprocal relationship: teachers and students at STHS were granted the opportunity to engage in focused, reflective conversations and activities on where sexuality/gender expression and bullying intersect, while university researchers gained enduring insights about the multiple (and often conflicting) realities of schools situated in urban settings. Further, students, faculty, and staff at STHS will benefit from the ongoing analysis of the *Beyond Bullying* data collected from which anti-bullying materials will be produced for school- and district-wide dissemination at a later date.

The Impact of the Partnership on STHS

Now, three years into the partnership, STHS has received recognition for the "quiet cultural revolution" occurring at the school (Hawkins, 2014). Most notably, community members and district leadership cite significant growth in student enrollment and participation in college-preparatory programs, as well as teacher evaluation scores of STHS cooperating teachers that surpass other teacher leaders elsewhere in the district. While still analyzing data, we have found that by partnering with STHS, we are moving towards a shared dialogue between campus-based supervisors and methods instructors and field-based cooperating teachers about how to enact culturally relevant and authentic social studies practices in diverse classrooms. A number of studies speak to such benefits of university-partnerships to schools (Breault, 2010; Bullough, Kauchak, Crow, Hobbes, & Stokes, 1997; Bullough et al., 1999; Teitel, 1998), yet there is scant evidence in the literature that urban schools reap such benefits by employing the PDS approach (Murrell, 1998, p. 13). While the

partnership between the university and STHS continues to develop, STHS administration has spoken to the early impacts on the school. According to STHS principal, Mr. Reynolds, the partnership has served as a catalyst for changes in teaching practice within the school, and an altered perception of the school, both of community members outside of the school and practicing teachers within the school itself. Principal Reynolds explained,

The partnership did a lot for us to immediately give us momentum around a path to credibility. It allowed me to frame things around best practice in ways that would have been much more difficult if I had just said, “here’s what we’re going to do.” It gave us a tool to develop teacher leadership in an authentic way through the cooperating teacher piece. It gave us legitimacy with our constituencies in a lot of ways. It’s been huge for us.

In and of itself, it hasn’t made us better instructors. That’s more what we did. And it didn’t necessarily bring accountability – that’s something that we brought. But it really worked to accent the culture of teacher leadership. And it provided us with a sense of confidence and a swagger that this school has never had (Interview, 2014).

Implications

Entering into our fourth year of partnership with STHS, we offer suggestions for other programs and schools that look to partnership as a way to rethink social studies education for the twenty-first century.

- Investment in thirdspace teacher educators. The partnership liaison played a critical role in formalizing the partnership. The individual who holds this position must be equally committed to meeting the needs/challenges of both the school and the university, while simultaneously willing to critique any self-serving thinking or actions from either group. By investing in a shared position whose sole objective was to inhabit and span the space between the university and the school, the partnership strengthened communication, commitment, and trust.
- Leadership matters. The partnership between STHS and the UMN social studies ILP relied on a “maverick” leadership style of the STHS principal. We see the early successes of the partnership as a result of a leadership style that allowed for flexibility in role definition of the liaison and a willingness to push against district mandates and scripted curricula.
- Embedding teacher preparation in diverse, urban schools. The UMN teacher education programs have committed to grounding their teacher candidates in extended, deep experiences in partner schools, for the mutual benefit of the candidates’ growth and the schools’ improvement. This requires relocation of method classes to urban classrooms and the prioritizing of field placements and service learning hours where teacher candidates work face-to-face with students who may look and speak differently from them. It is only through these extended and reciprocal relationships that both schools and teacher candidates come away better from the experience.

- Teacher education must invest in practice-based faculty. No matter how deeply steeped or well-versed one is in teacher education research, time away from classrooms causes us all to forget some of the realities and limitations that classroom teachers face daily. Our best lessons lose credibility very quickly when they do not accurately reflect K-12 classroom experiences. Having colleagues who are more closely connected to schools and the everyday lives of teachers and students in classrooms will enhance teacher education programs overall. We call for programs to offer tenure-track, practice-based positions to ensure that professionals who hold such positions are regarded with the same esteem as other tenure-track, research-focused faculty.

Conclusion

An epistemological shift is underway at the University of Minnesota's social studies initial licensure program. Three years into a non-hierarchical partnership with an urban high school, Southeast Tech, the impact of collaboration based in reciprocity and relationship is evident. Practicing social studies teachers at STHS have embraced their roles as clinical teacher educators, mentoring pre-service teachers and teacher candidates through co-teaching, and they have welcomed a more prominent seat at the teacher education table. The partnership has enabled the social studies initial licensure program to strengthen its curricular attention to culture and context and support the development of leadership and mentoring skills, as well as the enactment of culturally relevant and student-centered teaching practices, in novice and veteran social studies teachers at STHS. The establishment of a partnership liaison between STHS and the university teacher education programs has catalyzed change at STHS, supporting improved instruction, the placement, recruitment, and retention of high quality teacher candidates, teachers and teachers of color into the school and district, and the initiation of multiple innovative research studies that better the school and district, and provide insights into urban education writ large. Through its commitment to urban partnership, the social studies initial licensure program has restructured field experiences with students like ours at STHS at the core, aiming to improve STHS student performance as well as to better prepare its teacher candidates for urban teaching contexts. Finally, the partnership has contributed to the re-storying of the school's identity, providing the administration and teacher leaders with access to innovative practices, the school with greater credibility, and the staff and students with human and intellectual resources for instructional support, professional development, and pride in their school.

Not too long ago, Archie met with the STHS partnership liaison for coffee. There was talk of a social studies position opening up at the school. The liaison described the work taking place in the social studies department at STHS: multiple classrooms run by recent graduates of the university teacher preparation program, holding Socratic seminars on controversial issues, students engaged in collaborative critical analyses of relevant, meaningful questions about history and geography, race and

language identity. Archie, secure in a teaching position at a homogenous, affluent, suburban STEM charter school, shook his head at the possibility. Nearly five years into teaching, he believed that his practice had cemented, his student teaching experience indelibly stamped on his understanding of what it is to teach in a city school.

As teacher educators, we have tremendous opportunity to shape and mold the practice of developing teachers before their identities, dispositions, and pedagogies have hardened and they believe their career trajectories are fixed. In order to maximize what is possible from these opportunities – especially as we prepare teachers for increasingly diverse classrooms – our work in teacher education takes on heightened importance. Thus our licensure programs must invest in the classrooms and schools into which we send our teacher candidates for the practice-based learning portions of their teacher preparation. Placements must be intentional, based on knowledge of the school context and of the mentor teachers' and teacher candidates' strengths and challenges, and add value to the school and the students' learning opportunities. We must view the cooperating teachers as our colleagues in teacher education and support their in-practice development in culturally relevant and authentic pedagogies. Our campus-based supervisors, who come to us with varied experiences teaching in diverse settings, must be provided with opportunities to engage in collaborative inquiry and problem-solving with school-based teacher educators about how to best cultivate dispositions and ambitious practices in teacher candidates as they move into urban schools for field placements and student teaching. Finally, we must continue to support the teachers who leave our programs as they develop through their induction years. In collaboration with school partners, we can continue to nurture their professional growth as they move into their own classrooms within the pressurized environment of today's schools. While imperfect, the best way to do this is by committing to long-term, deep partnerships with urban schools and their communities. It is only through partnership that we can collectively pool our understandings of what makes good teaching for diverse classrooms of students and pass that along.

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Chapter 13

Expanding Civic Worldviews: Teaching for Citizenship in an Alternative School Setting

Antonio J. Castro and Kari A. Muenté

Many Americans view the public schools as providing the foundation for preserving our democratic way of life by socializing the next generation of citizens with the skills and knowledge necessary for political and democratic participation. Indeed, John Dewey (1916/2007) imagined schools as democratic spaces in which students not merely prepare for civic life, but actually engage in it. Hence, teachers can create opportunities for civic engagement through activities such as discussion, deliberations, and civic projects (Parker, 2003; Rubin, 2012). Faith in these activities mirror the enduring belief in citizenship education and the role of public schools to serve these noble ends.

However, scholars lament what they see as the failure to realize this civic ideal of public schools, especially as the tapestry of American society becomes diversified and globalized. Researchers demonstrated that schools provided little to no opportunities for citizenship education (Kahne, Rodriguez, Smith, & Thiede, 2000; Levinson, 2012). The civic education provided for students inculcates students in civic spectatorship (Ross, 2000), whereby they are taught that ideal citizens perform only minimal functions of co-existing in communities and embody values of hard-work, responsibility, and respect for authority—values that maintain the status quo (Knight-Abowitz & Harnish, 2006; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). Indeed, Patterson, Doppin and Misco (2012) reported that most of the 155 public school teachers they surveyed equated being a good citizen with having these basic values.

Like practicing teachers, pre-service teachers often lack a deeper understanding of citizenship and teaching for citizenship. Scholars indicate that pre-service teachers generally hold naïve conceptions of citizenship (Castro, 2013; Kickbusch, 1987; Martin, 2008, 2010; Ross & Yeager, 1999; Sunal, Kelley, & Sunal, 2009). For example, across two studies Martin (2008, 2010) found that pre-service teachers

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generally believe that citizenship entails being of good moral character and getting along with others. Such views, unfortunately, often translated into transmission-oriented teaching practices that do little to prepare youth to be active, critical, and culturally competent (Castro, 2013). As societies become more complex, citizens need important skills that will help them transform their civic spaces to be more inclusive and democratic. These skills include the abilities to gather and organize information, convey important ideas to others to promote action, critically examine current issues, practice collective organization and project-planning, and act as activists for major issues affecting the community (Banks, 1997; Boyle-Baise, 2003; Dilworth, 2008; Ochoa-Becker, 2007; Parker, 2003; Wade, 2004, 2007). Preparing teachers to teach for such skills marks an ever-growing need for teacher educators.

In this chapter, we describe an approach to citizenship education in our teacher education program that bridges the vastly different worlds of our middle-class, mostly White pre-service teachers with the mostly lower-income, mainly African-American alternative high school students. In this exchange, pre-service teachers mentor these students through a civic action project aimed at addressing a global or local problem that the student has deemed important to rectify. Through the semester, we address the issues of what citizenship education means and how those meanings are mediated across race and class. As our pre-service teachers teach for citizenship in an alternative setting, we as teacher educators trouble their very notions of civic life and ideal citizenship.

Critical Multicultural Citizenship and Teacher Education

Our work in teacher education strives to promote the aims of critical multicultural citizenship (CMC). Like other forms of critical citizenship (transformative citizenship, social-justice oriented citizenship, cultural citizenship, critical global citizenship), CMC actively works towards social justice. Dilworth (2004) defined the goal of multicultural citizenship as “not just the students’ awareness of, and participation in, the political aspects of democracy, but also the students’ ability to create and live in an ethnically diverse and just community” (pp. 56-57). Expanding on Dilworth’s notion that multicultural citizens act to create just societies, CMC combines aspects of critical theory and critical multicultural education. Critical theory offers tools for identifying “those classroom structures and practices that perpetuate undemocratic life” (Darder, Baltodano, & Torres, 2003, p. 11). Critical theorists challenge and critique ideological and cultural hegemony as they occur within and across societal institutions. On the other hand, critical multicultural education fosters the “decentering” of Western, hegemonic school knowledge found in schools (King, 2004). This form of multicultural education supports activism and efforts at social transformation (Steinberg, 1995).

Generally, critical multicultural citizenship embodies three major ideas: challenging gaps between the rhetoric of democracy and the reality of democracy; pro-

moting critical reflection and consciousness; and encouraging collective action, or activism, as a way to transform institutional barriers to democracy. As classroom practices, these ideals manifest themselves in teaching that incorporates multiple perspectives (Banks, 1997; Ochoa-Becker, 2007), challenges standard curriculum and official school knowledge (Boyle-Baise, 1996; Marri, 2005), and tackles current issues when democracy has yet to be realized (Kincheloe, 1999) – calling attention to the need for activism to transform such injustices. In teaching for CMC, teachers and students act as partners in the quest to critique and challenge political and community structures that perpetuate inequity.

Unfortunately, educators stumble in the preparation of future teachers for critical multicultural citizenship. Generally across the research literature in teacher education, future teachers lack awareness of diversity issues and feel unprepared to teach in multicultural and globally diverse settings (Castro, 2010; Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Sleeter, 2008). Scholars in social studies education have reported similar findings (Barchuk & Harkins, 2010; Bauml, Castro, Field, & Morowski, *in press*; Castro, 2013; Gallavan, 2008; Mathews & Dilworth, 2008; Ritter, 2013; Wade & Raba, 2003). For example, Wade and Raba (2003) reported on a field service experience that provided pre-service social studies teachers with the opportunity to teach in Chicago inner-city schools. Despite the efforts to promote critical reflection, participants still demonstrated stereotypical views of urban children. Likewise, Mathews and Dilworth (2008) struggled to help their pre-service teachers recognize the persistence of racism as being a central problem in today's society, a notion the students largely refused to acknowledge. This tension associated with race discussions and social justice in teacher education has been noted by other scholars (Rubin & Justice, 2005; Sevier, 2005; Wade, 2003) and suggests the need for continued practice and research that will improve the role of teacher education in promoting the ideals of CMC.

While some researchers and educators provide commentary on ways to teach about diversity (Boyle-Baise, 2003; Dilworth, 2008) and social justice (Lewis, 2001; Wade, 2004, 2007) in social studies methods courses, we must continue to explore various methods and approaches to preparing teachers to teach for citizenship in culturally and globally diverse contexts. These methods must consider the powerful roles that pre-service teachers' prior experiences play in forming their ideas about teaching, a concept known as the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975). At the same time, teacher educators must be intentional about their curricular goals and program designs, especially as they relate to multicultural content (Cochran-Smith, Davis, & Fries, 2004). Unfortunately, only a few studies trace the programmatic design of social studies teacher education programs that foster civic education (Castro, Field, Bauml, & Morowski, 2012; Conklin, Hawley, Powell, & Ritter, 2010; Wade, 2003). Together, we argue that teacher educators ought to construct a lexicon of tools and specific vocabulary that pre-service teachers interact with and have opportunities to see modeled in practice (Castro, 2014). The Global Civic Action Project we implemented was constructed to address these varied concerns and to propel pre-service teachers towards educating for civic activism.

Role of Race and Class in Defining Civic Spheres

Parker (2003) identified two central components missing from citizenship education: “first, pluralism, or the social and cultural dimensions of citizenship; second, the central tension of modern society—the tension between unity and diversity” (p. 14). While these components are essential for inclusion in teacher education, pre-service teachers fail to make connections between race, class and personal contexts with the nature of citizenship (Castro, 2013; Mathews & Dilworth, 2008). The civic identities of these individuals are based on their middle class and often privileged experiences. One study explored the ways in which prospective teachers imagined the civic sphere—the political social community in which interactions of democracy occur (Castro, 2013). Some participants discussed processes of democracy as involving either an idealistic exchange of ideas based on an even playing field and participation in communal meetings and voting; other participants saw democracy spaces as places for contention, bargaining and negotiation. According to Schutz (2008), both of these viewpoints represent middle-class oriented assumptions about civic life. These assumptions value discursive practices (debate, voting, negotiation, etc.) as effective and useful means for participating in a democracy. Embedded within such assumptions, these individuals generally regard the status quo codified in political and social institutions as working towards the fulfillment of democracy.

While these discursive practices might appear to work for the benefit of middle-class citizens, working-class individuals find little political power and/or access through these activities. Schutz (2008) defined their brand of citizenship as democratic solidarity, which is aimed at responding to oppression, finding support from others in the same communal group, and combining resources when limited resources exist. The skills, dispositions, and knowledge-base for this second type of citizenship occur in the daily struggles experienced by students and their families. With the growing re-segregation and alienation of low-income and minority students across school communities and even within specific school districts or schools (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Kalogrides & Loeb, 2013), low-income and minority students are less likely to experience quality teachers or curriculum (Achinstein, Ogawa, & Speigman, 2004; Loeb, Darling-Hammond, & Luczak, 2005; Ng, 2007). Indeed, these students are also less likely to receive any instruction in civic education at all (Levinson, 2012).

Instead, Fine and colleagues (2004) found that “poor and working-class youth of color are *reading* these conditions of their schools as evidence of their social disposability and evidence of public betrayal” (p. 2194). Thus, the lived realities of democracy greatly differ across race and class. In a comparative study of youth from middle-class and working-class contexts, Rubin (2007) asked students to compare the ideals found in civic texts, such as the *Declaration of Independence*, the *Bill of Rights*, and the *Pledge of Allegiance* to their own personal experiences in democratic spaces. Low-income students of color consistently reported a disjuncture between these grand ideals. One student explained, “There is NOT liberty and

justice for all. I mean...there are so many examples” (p. 462). This student cited the inequitable incarceration rate of African American males, high poverty rates, and other forms of inequity in society. In the face of these disparities, Rubin concluded that “what has been previously described as ‘disengagement’ in the civic education literature may actually, for marginalized students, be a rational response to the dis-juncture they experience in society that purports equality but delivers injustice” (p. 473–474).

Asking undergraduate pre-service teachers to work with low-income, minority student in an alternative school around issues of citizenship can cause frictions between completely different ways of viewing reality and ideal civic spheres. Indeed, Schutz (2008) warned that “when people from different classes meet together, they often find that they can’t communicate very well, misreading discursive and social cues that seem to natural to one group and so alien to the other” (p. 429). Therefore, as teacher educators, we must constantly interrogate the ways in which we invite pre-service teachers to engage with individuals from different racial and class backgrounds. In preparing our methods students for the Global Civic Action Projects described in this chapter, we were especially attentive to these issues.

The Partnership

Our partnership with Randolph Alternative High School [all names mentioned here are pseudonyms] began in 2012 when Dr. Erica Northwood, the principal contacted us about a teacher, Mr. John Blankenship, who wanted to seek more professional development. Mr. Blankenship had been a social studies teacher at Randolph for nearly 15 years. “I just feel like my teaching is getting stale,” he confided. Because we were not conducting workshops for teachers at the time, we simply invited John to visit my senior social studies methods class in the fall of 2012. He readily accepted the invitation and attended the class on a weekly basis.

Having a practicing teacher share his perspectives on class topics with our pre-service teachers provided an additional enrichment and confirmation about the validity of the course concepts, theories, and practices. In the spring of 2013, John also visited the second level course as well. In our dialogue, we discussed ways to involve pre-service teachers with students at Randolph. Currently, students in our teacher education program were placed in three different field experiences prior to student teaching. In the fall semester of their Junior year, our teacher education candidates assisted in the social studies tutorial center at a local high school, where they tutored students who came in for homework support. In the next two semesters, our teacher education students worked in classrooms with a cooperating teacher, acquiring 24 h of observation and teaching two lessons in each semester. However, that spring of 2013, the high school announced that it was closing the social studies tutorial center. This left us a free semester to consider organizing a field experience at Randolph High School.

When we discussed the idea with Dr. Northwood, she expressed excitement. “This would be a win-win situation for our students and for your university students.” However, as teacher educators, we knew that our students were going to face a new educational setting with students who would have different cultural and economic backgrounds as themselves. Based on the research literature, we also knew that involving students in culturally diverse context without the proper reflection and guidance could reinforce already existing stereotypes (Montecinos & Rios, 1999). In addition, we were skeptical of positioning our mostly White middle-class pre-service teachers as teachers “over” mostly African Americans. Researchers value cross-cultural experiences that stressed equal partnership, shared experience, and mutual learning (Cross, 2005; Sleeter, 2001).

The social studies teacher education program admitted only 22 pre-service teachers out of the 38 that applied for the program. Our limited slots are based on the availability of cooperating teachers in the local school district. Even as our slots for admission have decreased, we have seen the number of applications to the program dramatically increase. Across the board, those accepted into teacher education in social studies averaged a 3.0 grade point average, had prior experiences working with youth in volunteer settings, and were involved in university organizations. The cohort of pre-service teachers consisted of 21 Anglo Americans and one African American. Twenty individuals in the cohort reported having attended a more suburban high school, with two having attended a rural context. None of pre-service teachers in the cohort had worked at Randolph before or with students in an alternative setting. One student in the cohort who grew up in the same city as Randolph and the university stated that the school had a reputation for being a “gangster” school.

Randolph Alternative High School is the only alternative school in the local school district. Students interested in attending the school had to apply and seek recommendations from principals, counselors, or teachers. The school was considered a “transfer option” school and was geared to students who had either experienced difficulty in the traditional high school or who had life experiences that made a smaller and alternative school more appropriate for completing a high school degree. Reasons why students transfer to Randolph vary from having a learning disability, to working various work hours, to having issues with the family unit, and to being pregnant. Generally, students at Randolph had to seek enrollment before being admitted.

In the 2013–2014 academic school year, Randolph enrolled 166 students, with roughly 35 students in one of Mr. Blankenship’s two World History courses. For the demographics, about 60 % of the students were African American and 31 % White. 78 % of the students qualified for free and reduced lunch. Obviously, these demographics differed greatly from those of the university students.

The field experience described in this chapter occurred while teacher candidates were enrolled in their first social studies methods course, in the fall of their Junior year. The pre-service teachers were expected to earn about 24 observation hours from being in the field and made two visits each week lasting roughly 1.5 h of observation per visit. As we discuss later, pre-service teachers worked on a one-to-one

basis with students at Randolph on a global action project. In addition, pre-service teachers also taught team-based lessons about various events in World History. Throughout the semester, they worked most closely with their student on projects.

The Global Civic Action Project: A Plan for Engagement

We drew on the literature for models of civic education that would support the general tenets critical multicultural citizenship and would be an appropriate fit for a world history course taught in an alternative setting. Civic action projects advocated by Banks (2007), Ochoa-Becker (2007) and Rubin (2012) offered ample guidance on leading youth through the various stages of researching about a concern in the community or the world, generating ideas to alleviate that concern, formulating an action plan, and finally instituting that action. Considering the world-oriented focus on the class, we also borrowed from the resources found in Mack and Picower's (2013) *Planning to Change the World: A Plan Book for Social Justice Teachers*. This book contained a long list of global issues ranging from slavery to worker injustice to women's rights. This list, spanning several pages, also listed website resources. In formulating the Global Civic Action Project with Mr. Blankenship, we adopted the goals listed by Rubin (2012) as the goals for the students at Randolph. These included activities that would have students:

- Gain community knowledge
- Act in the world
- Get outside the classroom
- Engage with community issues that concern them
- Come up with suggestions/solutions for the civic problem
- Learn how to make a change
- Learn to gather data/information
- Learn how to be heard
- Expand one's own experiences with civic life
- Engage in discussion, critique, and analysis about the issue
- Increase one's knowledge of the rights and responsibilities of citizens

We shared these goals with the pre-service teachers as we began the field experience.

In organizing the Global Civic Action Project, we envisioned that the university pre-service teachers would be paired, one-to-one, with a student in Mr. Blankenship's class and would act as mentors to the students. As mentors, they would guide the student through a series of tasks that would culminate in the students coming to the university to present their global action plans in the form of a mini-conference to members of the local community. To help facilitate this, Mr. Blankenship allowed a portion of time at the end or beginning of each class session for the mentors and their students to work on project-related tasks. We describe the tasks here.

Identifying the Issues and Resources

First, the mentor would meet with the student to discuss topics of interest to the student. From this process, the mentor and mentee would build rapport. Together mentors and students would review the multiple pages of topics that could be considered global issues or discuss topics that the student was personally interested in. The student would choose a topic and with the help of a mentor begin locating resources to gather information about the topic, including internet sites, text resources, and magazine resources.

Creating Webquest/Identifying Video Resources

This task was for mentors to do while the students were researching their topics. The mentor would create a Webquest that would assist students in learning more about their topics. Also, because the mentors had access to resources at the university that were not available at Randolph, mentors also found videos and documentaries to share with their students.

Presenting the Issue

The students in Mr. Blankenship's class were asked to generate a PowerPoint or Prezi to present their issue to the other students in the classroom. This presentation required a certain number of slides to be completed and a specific format to be used. This format asked students to define the issue or problem, explain why the issue was important, address the history of the issue (relating it back to world history if possible) and present different sides to the issue. Mentors worked with students to construct these presentations.

Creating Action Plans

The next component of the global action project, students brainstormed ways that they could help resolve the problem or improve the situation. With the help of their mentor, they constructed an action plan. Action plans varied from raising awareness about an issue, to fundraising, to creating a forum on a website to discuss solutions.

Creating and Delivering Conference Presentation

After the action plan was created, the mentor would assist the student in creating a PowerPoint, Prezi, or Poster presentation that could be used for a round-table format presentation. The students created speeches for their presentation and practiced delivering their speeches prior to the conference. At the conference, the mentor would sit along-side their student and assist her or him (if needed) on giving the presentation.

In working with Mr. Blankenship, we decided to have students share their issues and action plan in the form of a conference at the university for several reasons. First, we wanted to expose students to the university setting. The trip included eating lunch at a dormitory cafeteria, taking a tour of the university, and speaking with first-generation college students about their experiences and how they navigated applying to college. This exposure to the university setting and conversation with first-generation college students offered students insights about issues of pursuing post-secondary education. Second, this conference provided students a space to communicate with others about topics they were passionate about. Throughout the presentations, students had their mentor sitting beside them, willing to offer any support the student might need to be comfortable. Finally, we chose the conference round-table format as a way to make the Global Action Civic Project more authentic for students, as they shared their ideas with audience members. The audience consisted of professors, university students, and teachers. (See [Appendix A](#) for itinerary and schedule of the Randolph Civic Action Conference).

Our Role as Teacher Educators

Especially with regards to multicultural-centered field experiences, the research literature highlights the importance of curriculum alignment and frequent communication between the field site and the university program (Boyle-Baise & McIntyre, 2008; Boyle-Baise & Sleeter, 2000). In the design of our course, we sought to discuss concepts and ideas that were relevant for our pre-service teachers as they worked with students in Mr. Blankenship's world history class. The overriding theme of the course centered on preparing for multicultural and global citizenship. In fact, the two major required texts were Beth Rubin's (2012) *Making Citizens: Transforming Civic Learning for Diverse Social Studies Classrooms* and Merry Merryfield's and Angene Wilson's (2005) *Social Studies and the World: Teaching Global Perspectives*. Both of these texts present topics related to defining civic learning, engaging students from diverse populations, and helping students make connections between their personal lives and global issues. Merryfield and Wilson, in addition, present sections about global education, cultural identity, multicultural education and cross-cultural knowledge. These books offered practical and important insights for our teacher education students.

In addition, we organized each class session with a debriefing session where we discussed concerns and issues occurring in the field context. Every other week, Mr. Blankenship would visit the class and participate in brainstorming sessions about how to better design the project, what to change, and how to reach certain students. At our very first debriefing session with Mr. Blankenship, we admitted that this experience was not only new for them, but new for us as teacher educators, for Mr. Blankenship, and for the Randolph students. As teacher educators, we had never structured a field experience that placed students in an alternative high school setting. We revealed to students during that first session that we as educators were not sure what to expect from the design or what changes needed to be made. Mr. Blankenship, who worked with us to redesign his course around these global action projects, admitted to the class that he was not sure how the Randolph students would respond to the projects. In end of the first debriefing with the university mentors, we agreed to be flexible, to be willing to communicate with each other to solve problems, and to put the experience of Randolph high school students first and foremost. Future debriefing sessions provided essential opportunities to monitor our progress as educators, solve problems, and reconsider ways to reach out to students. Overall debriefing sessions helped us place the needs of the Randolph high school students as central to our work. How are the students doing? What do they need? How can we reach this student or that student? What is relevant for each student? How do we build meaningful relationships with students? Thus, in our dialogue the teacher, teacher educators, and university mentors all became vested in the learning and success of Randolph high school students.

Another important aspect of the debriefing sessions, as teacher educators we wanted to introduce prospective teachers to the concepts of culturally relevant pedagogy and multicultural democratic education as it applied to social studies teaching (Boyle-Baise, 1996, 2003; Ladson-Billings, 1997). Using these frameworks, we also deliberated about cultural differences in communication (Delpit, 1995). For example, we also spoke about cultural behaviors that could be misconstrued as misbehavior, but were actually cultural patterns (Weiner, 2003). One such cultural pattern involved what are called “gearing up” behaviors, where students do not quickly attend to the task, but instead do a series of smaller activities in preparation to work, such as sharpen a pencil, get out materials, or stretch (Delpit, 1995; Gay, 2000). Other patterns included differences in communication style and collectivist versus individualistic norms (Gay, 2000). Thus, debriefing sessions provided us opportunities to identify strategies to engage students around their interests and how to create relevancy in the work.

Next, we designed the course curriculum around several topics related to citizenship and civic education. These topics included: teaching active social studies, addressing citizenship, planning for project-oriented classrooms, teaching constructivist education, and teaching controversial issues. The readings we assigned for these topic include articles from various scholarly and practitioner journals. (See [Appendix B](#) for a list of these readings.) As the course continued, however, our pre-service teachers would ask for us to teach about issues such as English Language Learning and addressing diverse learning needs.

Finally, we ask our pre-service teachers to reflect about their own ideas concerning citizenship and social studies teaching. They completed a series of journal topics through the semester that asked them to define democracy, discuss what makes an ideal citizen, how they should teach for citizenship, and how they should teach for diverse contexts. The journal topics also asked them to reflect on their experience at Randolph and what they were learning from their mentees. These activities reinforced civic ideas and provided opportunities for university mentors to exchange ideas and reflect from their experiences.

Revelations and Insights

Throughout the field experience and related course, our pre-service teachers communicated gaining several insights, some of them surprising. In the semester that followed, our university students continued to speak about their Randolph experience as a source of inspiration. In fact, 8 of 22 students specifically requested to return to Randolph to work with Mr. Blankenship on civic education. Here we discuss a few of these revelations and insights.

Overcoming Fear and Building Relationships

When we started this project, Dr. Northwood, principal at Randolph, shared her concern that university pre-service teachers would have a stereotypical view of Randolph students, especially since she felt that local media constantly portrayed Randolph in negative ways. Initially, our teacher education students expressed some hesitation about the field experience. However, when they were paired with their mentee, they soon began forming relationships with students. During our debriefing sessions, mentors communicated problems with motivating their students to accomplish different tasks. “You can’t tell them what to do; they won’t listen,” recalled Greg. “You just have to work around what interests them, but if they don’t like you or know you, you can forget about it.” Here, Greg realized both the importance of having relationships with students and of making instruction relevant to their interests. His comments also reveal that being told to complete tasks for the sake of doing them may not motivate Randolph students. Instead, these tasks needed to be viewed as relevant and worth doing by the mentees.

Overall, mentors learned ways to work with their mentees in Mr. Blankenship’s classroom. Teacher education students carried these lessons in later field experiences. For example, in the next semester one of us observed Lindsey teaching in a classroom where one African American student was placed by the cooperating in a desk isolated away from the other students. Lindsey frequently spoke with this student and engaged this student in various tasks. The cooperating teacher noted Lindsey’s skill in working with this student who had given her so much trouble.

When asked about the student, Lindsey replied nonchalantly, “Oh, he’s just like kids at Randolph. They just need someone who listens to them, that’s all.” This openness to all students in the classroom has been a rewarding outcome of the Randolph field experience for our teacher education students.

Awareness of Differing Worldviews

During one of her interviews about the Randolph experience, Amanda commented, “These kids are so *real*.” When asked what “real” meant, Amanda explained, “These kids are going through real issues that are pretty tough. They have seen things and been through things that I could have never imagined when I was their age. So, they just don’t accept anything you tell them.” Our pre-service teachers quickly learned how different the lived realities of Randolph students were compared to their own, echoing the work of Schutz (2008) and Rubin (2007). One example of their different lived experiences with civic life occurred when Tyler tried to help his mentee draft a list of community resources to consider when trying to resolve a civic problem. Tyler asked, “What about the police? They are here to help you out in case there is a problem.” The mentee strongly disagreed, saying the police were racist against African Americans and could not be trusted. Tyler was stunned. He had never experienced this reality before.

Several of our teacher education students felt the experience was “eye-opening.” One commented, “You really have to see them as adults, because in many ways they have adult responsibilities like paying rent.” This interaction with students from a different economic background challenged students to consider their own middle-class privilege and the resources they had available to them while they were in school. These became topics for discussion in our classroom.

The Importance of Relevance

The Randolph Civic Action Conference featured four large tables, each labeled with one of these topics: Human Rights, LGBTQ Issues/Women’s and Family Rights, Political Issues, and Issues in History. At each table, Randolph High School students presented their issues to the audience using their iPads. They discussed the background and significance of their global issues and outlined their action plans. After 30 min of discussion, the moderator (a university teacher educator) declared that it was time for audience members to rotate tables. The dialogue floated about the ballroom.

To an observer, the scene looked and felt like a typical conference. To our university teacher education students, this performance was nothing less than amazing. Just the week before, mentors worried that the students were not taking the project and conference seriously. They were afraid that students would refuse to come or

worse yet stumble so badly during the presentations and leave with a negative experience. However, on the day of the event, the students grew livelier and more expressive as audience members listened intently. Mr. Blankenship also indicated surprise. “I’ve never seen them get this fired up about anything involving school before.” Throughout the event, students became more passionate about their topics.

After the conference had ended, the Randolph students shared their thoughts about the event. Their comments continued to awe not only their mentors and teachers, but ourselves as well. “We need to have more time to work on the project,” one stated. “Yeah, you have to make us work harder,” another commented. These were the same students who the mentors struggled with for weeks to get them to stay on task. “We need to have a practice conference at Randolph before going through the real thing,” another student remarked. While we took notes from the students about their experiences, we also realized just how easy it was to underestimate these students. When asked to find an issue that they found to be relevant, students became more and more invested in serving as advocates for the resolution of that issue. This conference gave students the opportunity to share their action plans about the topic.

The Global Action Civic Projects and the experience at Randolph Alternative High School left us with enduring lessons about expectations, listening across cultures, fostering relationships, and drawing on students’ experiences in the classroom.

Rethinking Teacher Education: Recommendations for Teacher Educators

The field experience at Randolph Alternative High School grew out of our existing relationships with the principal, Dr. Northwood, and with John Blankenship. These long-stand relationships made having serious conversations about teaching in cross-cultural settings much easier and much more authentic. In our shared discussions, we reflected on our different roles and on the relationship between the Randolph student and the university teacher education student. We decided on the following three things, which helped serve our field experience. These areas of agreement also serve as recommendations for future teacher educators committed to sharing this kind of experience with their pre-service teachers.

Put the Student First

We agreed from the beginning of the project that the experience of and education of the Randolph student would take priority over any aims that we had for our teacher education students. In fact, we shared the goals for the project in terms of what the Randolph student was to experience and accomplish, positioning the pre-service

teachers as collaborators in this process. Then, when these future teachers became mentors, we championed the student's interest and needs above that of the mentor. In our discussions, we would say things like, "Okay, we know that is what would work for you. Now, what is going to work with your student? How can you find that out? What does your student care about?" In our dialogue, we constantly placed the Randolph students' needs, experiences, and ways of learning above those that may have worked or been more convenient for the mentors. In addition, we clearly stated this with our pre-service teachers, indicating that their role was to guide the students through the project in ways that honored their learning styles, preferences, experiences, and interests. For many of the mentors, this represented a shift from the top-down, teacher-tells-students-what-to-do approach that they had been accustomed to in their own schooling. Early on, mentors realized that Randolph students do not like being told what to do. Instead, mentors had to gain the trust and personal connection with students to make their instructional approaches relevant and meaningful.

Debrief and Reflect

In the beginning of the semester, the pre-service teachers expressed confusion about their role in the Mr. Blankenship's classroom and with Randolph students. They didn't know how to relate to some of the students. Sometimes, they would be intimidated by a student or situation that might occur in the classroom. As teacher educators, we created a safe space for students to discuss these and other issues. In this space, we allowed these future teachers room to air their ideas, frustrations, and thoughts without fear of being judged. In addition, Mr. Blankenship was a frequent visitor to our evening methods class. As such, we often formed into a circle to debrief our experiences and problem-solve any issues. These debriefing opportunities helped our pre-service teachers make sense of the different cultural ways of knowing and lived realities of the Randolph students. This type of conversation combines aspects of racial dialogues (Milner, 2003), whereby students discuss critical issues related to race, stereotypes, and identity, with discussions meant to promote deeper sociocultural awareness of not only the student but also the pre-service teacher (Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

Study and Apply

Our aim in developing this field experience was to make deeper connections between what the pre-service teachers experienced in the field with discussions, curriculum, and projects they were doing in their methods course. This comprehensive integration between field and coursework reinforced major ideas and emphasized the central role of citizenship education for Randolph students. In many

cases, we addressed an instructional activity in class one day and then pre-service teachers implemented that idea with their mentees in the field on the next day. The reverse was also true, as concerns about how to better educate Randolph students led to mini-lessons on a variety of topics from scaffolding difficult texts, to building relationships, to integrating technology. This connection between the field experience and the methods created a more seamless learning experience for our pre-service teachers.

Implementing these three strategies allowed us as teacher educators to mentor and guide our teacher education students throughout the entire process. Furthermore, we were able to create teachable moments from events and challenges occurring in the field. This balance between theory and practice demonstrated to our teacher education students the need to reflect deeply about a theoretical or conceptual strategy before adapting this strategy to meet the unique needs of their mentees.

This partnership helped us as teacher educators rethink teacher education for social studies, specifically as it pertains to critical multicultural citizenship and multicultural social studies. While the research literature consistently pointed to limitations in pre-service teachers' understanding of diversity and level of preparedness in teaching in diverse settings, (Castro, 2010; Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Sleeter, 2008), the Global Action Civic Projects and the field experience at Randolph Alternative High School provided us opportunities to foster the values and practices of critical multicultural citizenship among our pre-service teachers. Not only did teacher education students engage with Randolph students to determine gaps in the realization of democracy, they also became aware of their own limited experiences with different civic spheres. In the process of helping the Randolph student construct civic action plans, our future teachers became advocates for activism and civic change. The skills they were teaching Randolph students also partly became their skills as future social studies teachers. By mentoring high school students from a diverse, alternative settings, we believe these future teachers experienced first-hand the need for civic-centered instruction that capitalizes on the growing diversity of the American fabric.

This partnership illuminates the importance of building relationships with leaders in the local school district and leveraging these partnerships to create win-win solutions. Here, the project supported prospective teachers in their professional growth and increased their cultural sensitivity and understanding of culturally relevant teaching practices. At Randolph, their presence provided additional knowledge resources for students, one-on-one support and encouragement, and the sharing of curricular ideas and instructional materials with Mr. Blankenship. While some multicultural field experiences have had negative results on pre-service teachers view of diversity (Boyle-Baise & McIntyre, 2008; Boyle-Baise & Sleeter, 2000), the strong relationship between us as university educators and Mr. Blankenship and the seamless connection between the methods course and the field experience helped reinforced our shared goals for reflection, relevance, and engagement with teacher education students. Unfortunately, such deep connections are not common practices in teacher education (Clift & Brady, 2005; Zeichner & Conklin, 2008).

As teacher educators, we advocate for the preservation of citizenship education as the central goal for social studies and work to assist pre-service teachers in constructing civic opportunities for all students. Through the Randolph experience, prospective teachers promoted critical and multicultural citizenship in the classroom. In the process, they witnessed how relevance in teaching can engage youth in an alternative setting. We seek to continue this field experience and to deepen our understandings of how pre-service teachers develop greater competence in fostering critical multicultural citizenship education.

Appendix A: Randolph Alternative High School Civic Action Project Schedule

Randolph Civic Action Conference Schedule

- Leave Randolph at 11:10
- Lunch with First Generation College Students: 11:30–12:25
- Campus Tour 12:30–1:20
 - Meet at the first floor of Main hall at 12:30
- Civic Action Conference in Conference Room: 1:20–3:00
- Leave at 3:30 pm

Randolph Civic Action Conference

Table 1 Human rights

Erin– Prison issues
Felicia– Human Rights, slavery
Ravi – Poverty
Steve– Slavery

Table 2 LGBTQ issues, women’s rights and family issues

Shantai– LGBTQ
Kenisha– LGBTQ
Sema– Women’s Rights
Daniela – Abortion (and marriage in other cultures)
Alicia – Teen Pregnancy

Table 3 Political issues

John – Hendren Gun Laws
Veronica – Racial Hate
Miguel – Immigration
Roberto – Immigration
Kendra – Legalization of Cannabis
Patrick – Drugs

Table 4 Issues in history

Kerstin – Fashion
Chandra – Illuminati
Fred – Elk Hunting
Jan – The Age of Adulthood in History

Appendix B: Recommended Readings for Teacher Education Curriculum

Main Texts

Merryfield, M. M., & Wilson, A. (2005). *Social studies and the world: Teaching global perspectives*. Silver Spring, MD: National Council for the Social Studies.

Rubin, B. C. (2012). *Making citizens: Transforming civic learning for diverse social studies classrooms*. New York: Routledge.

Articles

Banks, J. A. (2004). Teaching for social justice, diversity, and citizenship in a global world. *The Educational Forum*, 68(4), 296–305.

Ford, J., & Neville, E. (2006). Making democracy an active force in students’ lives. *Social Studies and the Young Learner*, 19(1), 8–11.

Hess, D. (2008). Controversial issues and democratic discourse. In L. Levstik & C. Tyson (Eds.), *Handbook of research in social studies education* (pp. 124–136). New York: Routledge.

Ross, E. W. (2000). Redrawing the lines: The case against traditional social studies instruction. In D. Hirsch & E. W. Ross (Eds.), *Democratic social education: Social studies for social change* (pp. 43–63). New York: Falmer Press.

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- Stanley, W. B. (2005). Social studies and the social order: Transmission or transformation? *Social Education*, 69(5), 282–286.
- Westheimer, J., & Kahne, J. (2004). What kind of citizen? The politics of educating for democracy. *American Educational Research Journal*, 41(2), 237–269.

Supplemental Book

- Gay, G. (2000). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Wade, R. (2007). *Social studies for social justice*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Appendix C: Journal Topics

- Journal 1: Think about a social studies teacher who had a positive impact on your sense of social studies teaching. Please describe the way that teacher taught. What was her/his approach to social studies content? How did that teacher engage students? What qualities of that person would you like to emulate?
- Journal 2: What makes an ideal citizen? In what ways should social studies help students become good citizens?
- Journal 3: What is a democracy? What role should social studies teachers play in promoting it?
- Journal 4: Standardized tests exert a tremendous influence on the teaching of specific content in the social studies. What should determine how a social studies teacher plans what to teach? In other words, what types of social studies knowledge is of most worth? Why?
- Journal 5: What role should teaching global issues be in social studies classes?
- Journal 6: How should social studies teachers respond to the increasing student cultural, global and linguistic diversity in her/his teaching?
- Journal 7: Focusing on your student's reaction, describe your experience developing the global issue project in your field.
- Journal 8: Reflect on the field project you completed with your student. What are your takeaways? Would you use this in a future class? Why or why not?

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Chapter 14

Learning in and Through Practice: A Case Study of a Design-Based Residency Program

Andrew L. Hostetler

Introduction

Calls from educational stakeholders (Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation [CAEP], 2013; Darling-Hammond, 2008) suggest that teacher preparation must go beyond traditional university-based educational programs and integrate more in-depth clinical experience in schools. In this chapter, I report on program data related to recent structural changes to the secondary social studies education program at Vanderbilt University. Our faculty hopes to continue improving education in our communities. Recent efforts in our local schools highlight a need for niche programs and thicker partnerships with schools and community. This chapter argues for a design-minded approach to social studies teacher education that is contextually and culturally responsive. The phrase *design-minded* is used here to describe an approach to program design and implementation that is flexible to meet the needs of teacher candidates, school and community partners, and institutional policy makers and administrators while at the same time adhering to some core design principles that may not be compromised. These design principles guide decision-making but allow for a framework across several unique school sites. As a result each site may look different structurally but the theoretical integrity of the model will be preserved while meeting varied needs.

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A Design-Based Residency Program

The social studies education program at Vanderbilt University is situated within a larger secondary education licensure program that includes Science, English Language Arts, Mathematics, and Music. The secondary education program accepts students for licensure in five content areas and typically has 40 to 50 teacher candidates in their professional year, the final year in the program. During the professional year undergraduate and graduate students take coursework together. For social studies education, these courses include a methods course, and a practicum in the fall followed by a student teaching seminar in the spring. For residency students (called Learning Advisors or LAs) the practicum was taught on site but they did attend the evening methods and seminar courses.

All social studies education students take Human Geography, Social Studies Literacies, Methods, Practicum, and Student Teaching Seminar. Human Geography emphasizes critical justice oriented perspectives through spatial thinking and the creation and manipulation of spatial representations to make arguments for social or political change as a part of social studies teaching and learning. Disciplinary literacies in social studies engages students in disciplinary thinking through methods of inquiry and analysis emphasizing. Students in this course learn the practices and representations essential to making and communicating meaning in each discipline of social studies (i.e. historical thinking in history) with attention to academic language and student learning throughout the course. Methods brings learning from these two courses together as students develop a working rationale for teaching social studies and consider explicitly the ways these pieces inform their decision making as they design learning experiences for 7th to 12th grade students. Practicum is a debriefing of field experiences that emphasizes knowing students and community and assessing student learning. Finally, student teaching seminar is a course to debrief student teaching and promote data informed decision-making through inquiry into ones teaching practice. In addition to coursework, students are supported and encouraged to pursue learning outside of the classroom. They frequently work with faculty on research, serve as teaching assistants for undergraduate courses, volunteer with local organizations and community centers, and present at professional conferences. Table 14.1 includes a synopsis of the three secondary education tracks.

Residency Program Description: Learning in and Through Practice Schools

As M.Ed. students complete their first year they have the opportunity to apply for a residency program. The Learning In and Through Practice School (LPS) program emerged in response to a set of challenges located within our teacher education program as well as the educational challenges recognized by a local turn-around

Table 14.1 Existing secondary education program tracks

Program	Length of program	Content and content area requirements	Residency options
Undergraduate	4 years (five for music education)	Primary Major in Secondary Education with a Second Major in a licensure content area (i.e. History, Political Science, Psychology)	None
M.Ed. 1-Year Licensure	Begin in June and graduate the following May	Previously completed a major in a content area or related interdisciplinary field of study	None
M.Ed. 2-Year Licensure	Begin in fall semester and complete four semesters	Previously completed a major in a content area or related interdisciplinary field of study	Yes, students can apply for residency opportunities at the end of their first year

middle school, Eastern Middle School.¹ In particular, the challenges for our program included finding high quality placements, ensuring high quality mentoring, supporting placements for enacting learning from the program, structuring support in schools for continuity to build and maintain relationships with students and colleagues over time, and providing teacher candidates a supportive pathway to the teaching profession that values the gradual assumption of responsibility. For Eastern Middle School, their district labeled them as a “turn around school.” Eastern is in a community with an average household income of \$28,721 with >95 % of 500 students (5th to 8th grade) labeled “economically disadvantaged” by the state department of education. The majority of students are identified as non-white with 72.4 % labeled African American on the state report card.²

Given the challenges we faced as a program and the unique needs of Eastern Middle School, we created a design-minded residency program, which like design studies (see Brown, 1992) are committed to core principles, but allow for changes to be made as the program develops. In our case, the design-minded residency program was committed to a set of core principles, but allowed for adjustments to be made for teacher candidates, local schools, and community partners. The four design principles for were:

1. *Collaborative History and Emerging Vision*

From the launch of an urban masters partnership program between the school district and local university 3 years ago, the partners have been committed to continued to sustain strong relationships.

2. *Teaming*

¹All references to identifiers (e.g. school names, district, individual’s names) have been changed to pseudonyms to protect participant confidentiality.

²All school data obtained from the 2012 state report card via the school district website.

Teams within LPS sites vary, but they all include a combination of lead teachers, licensed teachers, and masters level teacher candidates. A team model allows teachers to provide more opportunities for enrichment, remediation, small group work, focused technology or lab experiences, and even one-on-one attention.

3. *Developing Educator Identities*

What is distinctive about the LPS model is that it breaks the one teacher, one classroom mold. Students become the shared responsibility of a team of personnel. This requires a different conceptualization of a community of practice in which the familiar identities of novice and experienced teachers and leaders are changed as roles in the educational setting change.

4. *Evidence Guiding Redesign*

Critical to the success of this ongoing design experiment is to reevaluate these design elements frequently to ensure we are responding to identified challenges in the most productive ways.

At Eastern Middle School six positions were negotiated (two social studies, two English language arts, and two mathematics). M.Ed. students apply and are interviewed by the school administration. Administrators can choose to hire or not. If hired, students are hired as paraprofessionals, paid with a stipend and benefits. While our time becomes limited with our students because they are now school employees, their time in the school was expanded to include full-time engagement on site with students, mentors, and colleagues. Below, I present a case study of the LPS program at Eastern Middle School.

Participants

The LPS is a middle school in an urban school district in a large southern city. Participants in this case include one instructional leader, five teachers, and four learning advisors who worked on the Global Literacies Team (social studies, English language arts, and one exceptional education teacher). The instructional leader was the team leader, given more prep time to fulfill her obligations. She is a white female with 2 years of experience at the school. One of the teachers had 11 years of experience and the remaining four teachers had 1 year each. Two teachers identified as Black and three identified as White. Four teachers were female and one male. Of the four learning advisors, three were female, two were social studies and two were English language arts; all identified as White. Members of the instructional team met two to three times per week during a common planning time to set a planning agenda and develop sub-committee responsibilities. The Instructional Leader facilitated these meetings and sub-groups were organized to co-plan, co-teach, and develop assessments for the team to use in units. Table 14.2 provides a summary of the team membership.

Table 14.2 Middle school global literacy team

Name	Role on the team	Years experience	Self identified Race or ethnicity
Dr. Lane	Instructional Leader	2	White
Dr. Bryant	Social Studies Teacher	11	White
Ms. Bossley	English Language Arts Teacher	1	Black
Ms. Hayes	Exceptional Education Teacher	1	Black
Mr. Michaels	Social Studies Teacher	1	White
Ms. Shiner	English Language Arts Teacher	1	White
Mr. Ryan	English Language Arts Learning Advisor	0	White
Ms. Saint	English Language Arts Learning Advisor	0	White
Ms. Wyatt	Social Studies Learning Advisor	0	White
Ms. Collier	Social Studies Learning Advisor	0	White

Methods

Data collected for this case study included one interview with each member of the instructional team at the end of the year (see Appendix A for protocol). In addition, weekly observations, program coursework from learning advisors, and feedback from university supervisors were also used as data to develop context. Semi-structured in depth interviews were conducted with each team member in May of the first year of the residency program. These interviews allowed participants to share about their experience, what worked for them and what did not. This data was instrumental in fleshing out the participants' experience as they viewed it looking back over the year.

University mentors co-planned, observed, and held on site class sessions throughout the year. Learning advisors were observed at least once a week throughout the 9-month school year. In addition, LAs coursework, unit plans, assessments, and edTPA were used as data to identify critical incidents for debriefing with LAs and to develop the context of the team's experience working together. These data were gathered, read and written up as a case study with each team serving as a case (Stake, 2005). The analysis of these data sought to address both design based questions about program as well as case study questions guiding the study of this program:

Design-Based Program Questions

1. How can we leverage resources in one area to solve problems in another (with the goal of addressing several problems through one solution)?
2. How can we make stronger, more explicit, connections between practical experience and learning in social studies teacher preparation?
3. How can learning in practice through in depth clinical experience in schools be supported through social studies education university coursework or other learning experiences?

4. How can promising work in the simultaneous education of pre-service and in-service teachers address the needs of schools and communities?

Case Study Questions

1. How do (Master's degree seeking) teacher candidates navigate a design-based residency field experience?
2. How do in-service teachers and teacher candidates work together in a team structured school setting?

Analysis of the data occurred near the end of data collection and into the summer months following the school year. Doctoral students, Post-doctoral fellows, and faculty were charged with developing cases for each team drawing on observations, university coursework, and interview data. As data were read they were coded for placement in categories. Categories were then themed and are presented here as findings. Focused coding allowed the research team to recognize connections between across data as related to the team experience, the role of the LAs on the team, and how LAs navigated their learning experience in a full time residency program.

Findings: Teaching and Learning to Teach as a Team

The following sections highlight findings drawn from analysis of data categorized within two themed components for teacher education in this context. These themed components are: teachers and teacher candidates, and school partnership and the team model. A broad program analysis with implications for program development follows these themes.

Teachers and Teacher Candidates

Teachers on the team described their experience as “a learning experience...learning from mistakes...growing pains...thinking about the kind of teacher I've been in the past [has helped me to see where I've grown]” (Shiner, Interview, May 2014). The team's frequent reference to the “learning experience” highlights the nature of the overall experience as they negotiated challenges and experienced the benefits of their work together. With an analytic focus on teaching and teacher education as it occurred in this team experience three subthemes were identified. These subthemes include learning to teach, the learning advisors' role, and the ways race mattered in the experience.

Learning to Teach

Built in flexibility was a key strength of the experience. The increased staffing capacity and team model allowed teachers or learning advisors to work closely with smaller groups of students. Students received more small group and individual attention and the team members attributed academic growth to this phenomenon. Saint explained, "...with the LA model there are twice as many adults who care about this group of kids and that's huge" (Saint, Interview, May 2014). Bossley continued, "...they need small group settings because they need individualized instruction and because I have Saint with me...it's easier for me to facilitate learning" (Bossley, Interview, May 2014). The teams adopted a mantra of sorts, *divide and differentiate*, that played out in their work together and their instructional practices. Bossley refers to how the class could be divided into groups and the LA or teacher could work in more targeted ways with a smaller group of students to meet their individual learning needs.

Consistency was key. Participants noted that frequent co-teaching and differentiation in small groups had a dramatic influence on students' academic and social emotional learning.. Ryan explained that the school had become a more "pleasant" place to be since the beginning of the year. He noticed, "clear moments of companionship... sweetness between kids that [he] didn't see at the beginning of the year" (Ryan, Interview, May 2014). A sense of community grew at the school (though not free from bullying/fighting/drugs) where "people know that they're being taken care of...because we work with a lot of interesting, open-minded people" (Ryan, Interview, May 2014). The team focus on meeting individual needs of students, including social emotional needs, represents a shift from the typical focus of incoming professional year students in our program. Candidates entering the social studies education program often have a deep love of history, political science, or psychology. They imagine themselves holding Socratic class sessions with high school juniors or seniors about social studies phenomena or delivering an engaging lecture for the entire class period. The shift took our LAs from a vision of teaching as a teacher centered large group event to a deep concern for the social emotional and academic learning of individuals or smaller groups of students with a focus on the student.

Learning Advisors' Role

Among the early challenges was some ambiguity about the role and authority of the learning advisor in the classroom. This ambiguity was dialectically related to student resistance in the classroom. Learning advisors roles on the team were intended to involve co-teaching, teaching whole class and small group, co-planning, developing assessments, analyzing assessment data, and all other activities of a teacher but with a new focus on working as an instructional team. The team model was new for the teachers in the school and for the learning advisors. As LAs and other team members became more comfortable with their roles LAs were to take on increasing

responsibilities for planning, instruction and assessment of student learning. One form of student resistance was resisting the LAs as a member of the instructional team. Used to one teacher in a classroom students would make exclamations like “you aren’t even the real teacher” (Wyatt, Interview, May 2014). Collier explained that students “have a weird thing about, like, who’s actually got the authority though” (Collier, Interview, May 2014). As the LAs were attempting to define their role, moving from and between identities as graduate students and teachers, students resisted attempts LAs made to define their role through their teaching practice.

Resistance from students seemed largely grounded in their experiences with *one-teacher-one-classroom* models of schooling where there was one adult in the room and that adult had authority. These moments of micro-resistance that might have caused tension or hesitation among team members initially were mitigated throughout the year as students and team members became more familiar with the model. Bossley noted that students were doing okay with the structure; changes made throughout the beginning of the school year led to adjustment and settling down. “So now, they’ll say ‘Miss Saint is my teacher’ and I think that that is awesome” (Bossley, Interview, May 2014). Other teachers thought students liked the team model and LA involvement. Hayes shared about the role teachers played in supporting LA work with students, “some of your power or authority is taken away in a sense, so we have to figure out a way to make sure that that doesn’t become an issue.” She went on, “because I’ve seen and heard some things that I’m like ‘You would never do that in my space’ or ‘You would never do that in Ms. Bossley’s space so I don’t know why you would think that’s okay to do that in a LAs space’...” (Hayes, Interview, May 2014). The solidification of LAs identity and role on the instructional team occurred simultaneously with a change in students’ views of the LAs and the divide and differentiate strategy the instructional team employed. This took time, patience, and persistence as LAs navigated their experience and the team learned to work together to plan, instruct, and assess students.

Race Matters

Operating from a framework of substantive practical experiences to support school improvement and at the same time teacher learning remained a principle of the program throughout the year. In a school where white students were a clear minority and white teachers in the majority, race would influence the experience. Students and teachers recognized the racial demographic difference between the two groups. All of the teachers on the global literacies team believed it would be helpful to recruit more teachers of color. Several of the white teachers explained the benefits of a more diverse instructional team to assure colleagues with culturally familiar experiences or backgrounds were present when designing learning experiences and

considering next steps. Some of the teachers voiced strong opinions about the importance of the influence of the race of a teacher when working with a mostly African American student population. Hayes recognized that “some of the things that did happen were race related” (Hayes, Interview, May 2014). She went on to explain,

[Students] are comfortably coming to me and telling me certain things, so they’ll be like: ‘I don’t like so-and-so, they’re racist’ and it’s not that they are. It’s that our scholars know a bubble of information and unfortunately what they know of the white world is two things- 1) You’re the example of how I’m supposed to live, which then doesn’t make me feel that good because that’s just not the way my life is, 2) I need more examples of people who look like me because I’m not believing you when you tell me that there’s more out there because I don’t see it. And the more our [students] have more access to the people that are represented as their teachers...They need to see people of color as teachers as well. And I think it also gives teachers of color great opportunities to partner with this specific demographic as well (Hayes, Interview, May 2014).

In addition to emphasizing the importance of diversity and culturally familiar authority figures on the instructional team some teachers highlighted the importance for students to have positive interactions with white teachers and teachers of non-white and non-African American race or ethnicity.

Learning advisors clearly recognized the importance of diversity but hoped teachers and students would consider the quality of teaching as something of value regardless of race or ethnicity. Shiner pointed out the unavoidable and uncomfortable conversation about race and the ways race mattered in their work as a teacher at Eastern Middle School. She explained, “the comment was made about me one time that I’m a suburban white girl, [but] I grew up in a lot of places...And that’s not fair to do to me or anyone else.” Shiner did not challenge the importance of recognizing and discussing the importance or implications of her race but did highlight the extension of that to where she grew up (e.g. suburban) as an assumption about who she was. She noted, “I wish we had had a place to go to mediate. I think it’s a really important conversation. I don’t think you can work here and not have that conversation, but it was always a pretty uncomfortable one” (Shiner, Interview, May 2014).

Learning advisors like Saint suggested negotiating the cultural gap was essential to success in the classroom, in particular she shared “once I stopped trying to put my own middle class value system on them, it opened up” (Saint, Interview, May 2014). Productive and reflective conversations about the role of race and diversity in the lives of teachers and students at Eastern Middle School emerged during the year. These conversations were necessary to the growth of the instructional team. Through dialogue and practice the team’s experience was at times uncomfortable for participants but essential to the developing a positive ecology. Confronting race and deeply held assumptions about what was valued by students was an important piece of teacher preparation for LAs navigating these educational spaces.

School Partnership and the Team Model

Learning advisors, struggling to understand their own role, recognized the challenges embedded in deeply collaborative work. The team structure included an instructional leader, an exceptional education teacher, English language arts teachers, social studies teachers, and four learning advisors. Wyatt noted that “the chemistry wasn’t there... the team became very divided very quickly “even when it doesn’t need to be that way... it’s kind of like Congress” (Wyatt, Interview, May 2014). The partnership with Eastern Middle School and the design based team model organized at the school were important changes with regard to the richness of the university-school relationship and the reorganization of the schools’ structures and processes. These changes not surprisingly presented the team with challenges related to collaboration and the developing identity of the learning advisors.

The goals of learning together and improving education at Eastern Middle School became clearer throughout the year. In line with the theoretical vision for a design-based residency program changes were made throughout the year but key principles remained a focus. In particular program leaders and participants focused on recognizing and addressing multiple problems with a single solution while emphasizing pre-service and in-service teacher education. These goals and principles enriched the practice experience and improved the collaborative work of the team throughout the year.

The ineffective and tedious nature of schools creates challenges for teachers. The physical arrangement of factory style schools and the schedule of classes typically make collaboration of this magnitude difficult if not impossible. In a system where the teacher has authority in the classroom it is difficult to trust colleagues to make choices, enforce consequences, and implement instruction in ways that students will see as consistent. It is this consistency that gives students a sense of what to expect, making routines an effective tool for smooth transitions and clearer learning goals. This team model program demonstrates the potential for alternative structures to support student academic and social emotional learning within a less rigid team model than the traditional one teacher one classroom model.

Learning advisors recognized how weekly large group meetings through the first semester felt ineffective and tedious, but most offered insight into the ways these collaborations improved throughout the year. Saint said, “although they’ve improved, morning meetings used to be taxing on time, energy, and morale” (Saint, Interview, May 2014). Similarly, Bryant shared “planning times have gotten better but there wasn’t always a clear purpose,” the team met four to five times a week and was “not producing anything, that was not effective” (Bryant, Interview, May 2014). Others offered explanations about why they thought these meetings were ineffective, took too much time and made it more difficult to plan than if team members were working on their own. Hayes suggested that starting off in the whole group meetings “didn’t work because there were far too many people, far too many big ideas...there are a couple of people who are more outspoken...that clearly didn’t work” (Hayes, Interview, May 2014).

In the second semester the team formed sub-committees to work through these challenges. These committees included a data team, a response to writing team, a social studies team, and a project-based learning team. Saint felt the change was productive, “the second half of the year I feel that my voice was heard at meetings and my opinion matter[ed] to administrators and other faculty” (Saint, Interview, May 2014). Others commented more specifically on what worked in their collaboration. Collier thought it was more productive for “individuals planning separately and sharing results” with the team (Collier, Interview, May 2014). Limited time in the day led to higher stress when trying to organize larger group planning sessions and when individuals or smaller “little pockets of teams unofficially” formed to get work done then brought what they had to the larger group for discussion and refinement (Shiner, Interview, May 2014). Shiner went on describing the value of collaboration with other LAs. Given observation data and comments related to efficiency, LA collaboration, and LA voice like those of Shiner and Saint some attention to the power within the group and the developing identities of teacher candidates as learning advisors and teachers. Learning advisors, the rest of the instructional team, and students grew in familiarity with the structures and practices in the Global Literacies experience. Students became accustomed to moving around and interacting with several different educators depending on their needs and the needs of their classmates. The team developed to be more effective in their work with each other and with students.

Program Analysis: Challenges and Next Steps

Substantive practice experiences with instructional teams hold the potential to better prepare teachers for the day to day challenges and more effectively support student learning in schools where staffing and large class sized often prevent individual or small group instruction. Learning advisors overwhelmingly felt prepared for teaching at the conclusion of the year. Teachers like Bryant recognized that “there is nothing more real than this. If they can handle this anything else is gonna be fine... they’re ready” (Bryant, Interview, May 2014). This is enough to prompt a strong consideration of the value of richer more deeply embedded practice contexts for teaching experiences. Another area to continue our focus is on differentiation to support student learning as a way to improve education. Hayes noted, “it’s been helpful to have the extra hands because when you’re able to use pull out groups... you’re able to use data to really drive instruction” (Hayes, Interview, May 2014). The extra personnel allowed for learning to take place through collaboration among educators but equally as important was the improved learning environment for students in the middle school through more effective differentiation and smaller class sizes when needed. Teachers also expressed value in the LAs strengths and experiences as members of the team. Bossley noted that “it’s helpful to have someone who is fresh, in tune...she is in the here and now of education” (Bossley, Interview, May

2014). And Bryant added, that LAs are “walking encyclopedias...crazy knowledgeable” (Bryant, Interview, May 2014).

As we consider next steps in this design model we will continue working to develop and clarify the roles of learning advisors early on in the program. First, teachers and LAs expressed the need to have some clarification in order to hit the ground running and consider their own role on the team. The program leaders will address this by hosting professional development or informational sessions with the team prior to the school year beginning. Sharing about the previous year, team members’ experiences, and brainstorming strategies to negotiate existing or new challenges for the coming year will better prepare members of the instructional team for their collaboration.

Second, consistent weekly observations with coaching or feedback should continue. This effort made feedback specific and created opportunities (time) to reflect and talk with colleagues and peers as a way to process experiences and feedback with implications for changing practice and developing identity. In addition, LAs requested more feedback and more observations from the teachers they worked with on their team and their peers in the program. Program development will take into account the need for peer and collegial observation, possibly through some form of lesson study or video club.

Third, we will continue to think about and adjust university coursework and faculty support for residency students embedded in these rich practice experiences. Coursework, assignments, and interaction with faculty and peers in their content area are important for their conceptualization of planning learning segments for students in their content area. Cross-content and interdisciplinary planning were a central part of the team structure but LAs and faculty continue to think together about how to best support teacher candidates learning that is specific to disciplinary / subject matter knowledge for teaching (see Shulman, 1987) and pedagogy.

Finally, we will continue to collect data and feedback on the program and the collaborative efforts in teaming. The structures of the teams and roles of individuals within them are pieces of the design that can be manipulated. However, a learning outcome from this experience has been the value of the team collaboration in enhancing student learning, more effective differentiation, and a broader mentorship of teacher candidates. Negotiating the challenges presented by doing collaborative work in educational settings limited by some traditional structures (i.e. time) is a priority in the design minded model. Continuing to create spaces for effective use of time to plan, reflect, discuss, and draw conclusions is essential to pre-service and in-service teacher learning. Program leaders will continue to develop formal (courses or seminars) and informal (coffee or happy hour discussions) onsite debriefings that bring members of the instructional team together as well as peer LAs in other disciplines.

Conclusion

A model is not a blueprint, it is a demonstration of what is possible (Dewey, 1899). In this chapter I described a model built around the theme of learning to teach in and through practice. Central to the program are the design synergies that create learning opportunities for everyone at the site; for candidates to gain classroom experience, for in-service teachers to gain opportunities to talk about their practice, and for students to gain new opportunities to learn. The program uses ongoing data collection and evaluation to inform development and identify successful practices.

Learning in and through practice must be distinguished from typical site-based work. The main difference comes in the quality of *learning* to teach. Substantive feedback can be given to pre-service candidates from different mentors. Team leaders, peers within the school, university mentors, and university coursework must pay careful attention to the emerging and evolving practices of pre-service and in-service teachers. Participating teachers must pay close attention to what they are doing, and more importantly, what they are learning. We argue that programs that value learning in and through practice are beneficial for all stakeholders – they prepare pre-service teachers for licensure, they provide good professional development for in-service teachers, and student needs can be addressed more efficiently and productively.

In this chapter I described the secondary social studies teacher education program and school partnerships with conclusions drawn from systematic data analysis of teacher candidate interviews, course observations and course materials, teacher candidate work samples, and from observations of teacher candidates in a residency program. These conclusions presented individually and in relation to one another painted a picture of an ongoing effort to develop design-minded (see Brown, 1992) program models that address many problems at once. I argue that the design-based model residency program emphasizing collaborative teams, and rich learning opportunities for pre-service and in-service teachers holds the potential to improve teacher preparation and at the same time enhance student learning through more effective small group instruction and differentiation. Teacher educators should continue pursuing a vision of teacher education that will simultaneously address the needs of the community and teacher preparation while leading to richer teacher education experiences for candidates.

Acknowledgements I would like to thank the teachers, residents, and school faculty, staff and administration for their support with starting and moving forward on this model. In addition, Dr. Barbara Stengel was instrumental in envisioning and facilitating this program and the collection of data and Dr. Blaine Smith's ongoing involvement mentoring, collecting and analyzing data. Finally I thank Dr. Heather Johnson, a colleague who was instrumental in writing conference proposals for disseminating reports on the broader secondary education residency program. The work of these valued colleagues made this chapter possible.

Appendix A

Learning Through Practice Study
Interview Protocol for Learning Advisors

Date:

Grade/Team:

Lead Interviewer:

Audio: yes no

Names:

Video: yes no

Introduction The purpose of this interview is to get a sense of your experience with the instructional team in relation to teaching here at the middle school. Your responses will be very helpful as we look to improve the experience for learning advisors, teachers, instructional teams, and students.

Your responses in this interview will be kept confidential and you can skip a question or stop the interview at any time. Do you have any questions before we begin?

1. Can you tell me about the different ways you felt support and where that support came from this year?
2. What of those supports did you find most helpful and why?
3. Can you tell me about the roles of the Global Literacies team members and any challenges you all encountered?
4. Can you tell me about how you worked through some challenges and what parts of the team experience improved throughout the year?
5. What changes did you notice in students throughout the year?
6. What do you attribute those changes to?
7. Tell me about the influence you think the teacher education program had on teaching and learning in the middle school this year?
8. What role did race (or community demographics in and around the school) play?
9. What do you think we could do to improve the program? Overall experience?
10. Do you have any other comments you would like to share or questions for us?

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Part V

Rethinking Community Connections

Because contextualized knowledge of communities is fundamental to teaching, preparing candidates to engage with communities is a critical responsibility of teacher education. However, for social studies teacher education, the imperative to pursue the contextualized knowledge found in communities is greater because this knowledge not only serves pedagogical ends, but curricular ends as well. Since the charge of social studies education is to study society, neighborhoods and communities serve as important texts for curricular narratives. As such, social studies teacher education must work to model the relationship between *institution and community* and *educator and family* for teacher candidates. Each chapter in this section addresses how communities can serve as texts to read, engage, and inquire about.

In the first chapter of this section, Matthews and Adams explore teacher candidates' use of photography in social studies methods courses as a way to examine questions of distribution and inequity in the communities that their respective programs serve: Miami, Florida and Athens, Georgia. What these photographic interrogations reveal for teacher candidates is how injustice is sustained in the very communities they inhabit. Developing such keen observations through a pedagogy of photography not only provides teacher candidates with important insights into the community, but also serves as motivation to address these injustices through curricula. In the next chapter, Kissling explores how ecological citizenship can be fostered in social studies teacher education through a place-based tour of a local waste management site in State College, Pennsylvania. Investigating the environmental consequences of waste in State College raised economic, moral, political, and social questions for Kissling's prospective social studies teachers. As such, this local inquiry not only affected how prospective teachers viewed themselves as citizens, but also how best to replicate this kind of experiential learning for others. In the final chapter in this section, Harshman empirically explores a social studies course that was held at twelve different sites in Columbus, Ohio. In particular, Harshman focuses on three course sessions held in the community of Weiland Park that featured walking tours and roundtable discussions with community stakehold-

ers. This particular social studies teacher education experience heightened candidates' sense of responsibility to design learning experiences that drew upon and furthered the strengths found within a community.

The constant theme across each of the chapters in this section is that engagement with our communities is necessary. Our practices in social studies teacher education must involve the community in order to help candidates value the interconnectedness of learning, learners, and communities. Inevitably, as each chapter in this section concludes, when social studies teacher education takes place in the community, these efforts bolster how future teachers see themselves leveraging contextualized community knowledge in their classrooms. However, beyond the pedagogical power of communities, for social studies teacher education, our communities, when considered as text serve as incredibly rich resources to address issues such as citizenship, inequity, morality, and injustice. In the constant search to improve the quality of social studies teacher education, this section implores us to not forget to look outside of our own windows for rich pedagogical experiences.

Chapter 15

Intersections of Culture and Community: Developing a Critical Sense of Place in Social Studies Teacher Education

Jason R. Harshman

Teachers work to connect their lessons to the “real world” and often tell students that the day’s lesson is important because it will be relevant to them upon entering the “real world.” In such cases, even though teachers believe they are looking beyond the classroom walls to develop relevancy, they are instead overlooking the fact that students live and learn in the same world as everyone else. The disconnect between where students live and what they experience, with where, what, and how educators teach means teacher education programs can do more to disrupt the meta-narratives teacher candidates subscribe to about places and people unfamiliar to them. To deny the significance and relevance of students’ lived experiences away from school is to engage in a culturally irresponsible approach to teaching that does not value the cultures and communities in which schools are located and from which students come. Knowing that teacher candidates often work with students of cultural backgrounds and in communities they have limited experience with (Darling-Hammond & Sclan, 1996; Ladson Billings, 1995; Lowenstein, 2009)—and that classrooms are becoming more racially, ethnically, and culturally enriched—social studies teacher education courses that engage candidates in experiential learning opportunities have the potential to better prepare teacher candidates to be culturally responsive and community conscious educators.

This chapter discusses findings from a study conducted with pre-service social studies teachers during a summer seminar course that utilized place-based pedagogy within the neighborhoods that make up the large, city school district participants would be student teaching in during the next two semesters. During the 7-week course, class sessions were held at 12 different sites and introduced participants to neighborhood association leaders, community service organizers, members of the city housing commission, parents, students, religious leaders, and other residents of

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the neighborhoods within the school district. A qualitative design that included one-on-one interviews, recorded class discussions, and document analysis was used to answer the research question: How do teacher candidates imagine the places where they will student teach and to what extent do experiences within those places inform their teacher identity? Analysis of the research revealed that: (1) observations and interactions with residents helped participants understand the myriad of social, economic, and political forces that shape the places where students live and learn; (2) by meeting with residents, neighborhood activists, historians, and leaders of non-profit organizations, participants learned how culture, education, and geography intersect in students' lives away from school; and (3) reflections on their experiences outside of the teacher education classroom informed how participants analyzed the social studies curriculum and designed culturally responsive lessons while student teaching.

I begin with a brief discussion of the literature on the construction and significance of space when studying culture and community within education (Gruenewald, 2003; Gulson & Symes, 2007). I then provide an overview of how the course in which participants were enrolled brought the central tenets of culturally responsive pedagogy (CRP) (Gay, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1995) and critical geography (Massey, 1994; Soja, 1989) together in order to engage participants in the unpacking of their imagined sense of place and community. Insights drawn from participants' reflections in written and oral form are used to illustrate how and why shifts in their thinking occurred with regard to the places they believed they were familiar with or, in many cases, had heard of and developed opinions about, but had never visited prior to the course. This chapter concludes with discussion of implications for social studies teacher education and recommendations for how teacher educators can build connections between the communities and classrooms their teacher candidates work in.

Place-Based Pedagogy in Social Studies Teacher Education

Among the many aspects of twentieth century teacher education that remain prevalent in the twenty-first century is the fact that most teacher candidates complete their student teaching in schools and neighborhoods that they are not from and have few experiences in (Ladson Billings, 1994, 1995; Lowenstein, 2009). That teacher candidates are in places unfamiliar to them is not because they grew up in a city that is in a state or country different from where they attend college. Rather, the point is that teacher candidates who attend large Universities tend to work with students in schools and neighborhoods that are culturally, racially, and socioeconomically different from where they completed their K-12 education. Recognizing that intersections of race, class, gender, sexuality, ethnicity, language preference, religion, nationality, and a host of other political, social, cultural, and economic phenomenon and systems cause each of us to experience spaces differently (Dolby & Rizvi, 2008; Gruenewald, 2003; Hooks, 1990; Massey, 1994), this study focused on

participants' beliefs and their learning before beginning student teaching. Based on the findings discussed below, this study can inform the work of teacher educators who seek to help teacher candidates disrupt, unpack, and think more deeply about what these factors mean for teachers, students, parents, and communities. Before moving into how culturally responsive and place-based pedagogy informed this study, a brief theoretical framework regarding critical geography is provided.

Constructing Space and Place

The tendency to think of space as static and natural, rather than fluid and constructed, denies the reality of how diverse and subjective experiences give multiple meanings to space (Gruenewald, 2003; Massey, 1994). As Lefebvre (1974/1991) argues, space is simultaneously a producer and is produced by the social interactions of people. Space is “produced, used, performed, appropriated, and mastered” through “everyday “spatial practices” by real people living real lives” (Kusters, 2009, p. 36). Conceptualizations of spatiality include “metaphorical and cultural meanings that describe geographical relationships of power [and] contested territories of identity and difference,” and thus cannot be reduced to a point on a grid (Gruenewald, 2003, p. 622). As social relations shape one's spatial surroundings, the very same interactions are concurrently shaped by the spatial contexts within which they occur. As a result, we are actors within spaces who are simultaneously acted upon as we give new meaning to spaces.

The study of space requires consideration of cultural contexts and “is attuned to the particularities of where people actually live, and is connected to global development trends that impact local places” (Gruenewald, 2003, p. 3). It is necessary to distinguish between space and place since place will be used throughout this chapter because data revealed that how participants discussed their experiences aligned more with how they understood place rather than more theoretical conceptualizations of space. Places, according to Agnew (1987), are “meaningful locations” that, while not completely detached from our understanding of space, have three fundamental aspects: location, locale, and sense of place (Cresswell, 2004). Beyond the coordinates or materialism that is associated with the location of places, it is one's sense of place that is of most significance within this study. For Cresswell and other theorists, our sense of place is never finished, but is rather an on-going process, that like space, is reinterpreted and reconstructed through multiple interactions (Cresswell, 2004; Gaudelli & Heilman, 2009; Massey, 1994; Nespor, 1997; Soja, 1989). This difference between space and place is significant because, as Soja (1989) argues, it helps us understand how, across history, a network of institutions have constructed and invoked meanings through names and boundaries—both physical and imagined—that continue to affect the experiences everyone, including students, have on a daily basis.

To explore the relationship between place and education in teacher education, course requirements included discussion and analysis of literature on critical geog-

raphy (i.e. Massey, 1994; Raffo, 2011; and Schmidt, 2011, to name a few) and place-based pedagogy (Gruenewald, 2003; Taylor & Helfenbein, 2009) to assist participants in their development of a consciousness of place. As one's sense of place is subjective and part of an on-going meaning making process from which diverse experiences emerge, the opportunities to reflect, share, and then apply what was learned during those experiences led to the ideas and recommendations offered below on how a place-conscious approach can inform a culturally and community responsive pedagogy.

Culturally and Community Responsive Teacher Education

Demarcating classrooms and schools as the only educational sites teacher candidates and K-12 students interact with privileges their construction as planned sites for learning and control (Giroux, 2012). Conceptualizing places of learning as fixed is counter to a more fluid, decentered approach to education that recognizes all spaces that teachers and students interact with as having value and as being relevant to their identity development (Gaudelli & Donaldson, 2013; Kinloch, 2009). Recognizing the need for a framework that was both accessible and relevant to the work teacher candidates would do in the coming months, literature on culturally responsive pedagogy, with particular attention to the relationship between teachers and the community, was used during the course participants were enrolled in to complement discussions of place.

One goal of culturally responsive pedagogy (CRP) is to “incorporate students’ home/community life and interests into the curriculum, teaching approaches, and the classroom environment” (Kea & Trent, 2013, p. 83). For Ladson-Billings (1995), a culturally responsive approach to teaching serves as stop gap between a students’ home/community culture and the school culture that perpetuates an Anglocentric curricula and culture. However, as stated above, since most teacher candidates teach in schools and communities with which they have little or no cultural familiarity, efforts must be taken before they enter the classroom to disrupt how majority white teacher candidates imagine the places where they teach. Further, since teachers, regardless of their level of experience, “do not easily relinquish beliefs and attitudes about themselves or others” (Ladson-Billings, 1994, p. 131), teacher candidates must examine their personal and professional cultural self-awareness if they are going to transform themselves and their classrooms (Gay, 2010, p. 70–71). The course in which participants were enrolled challenged them to “relearn their understandings of race, ethnicity, and culture” (King, 2004 in Ball & Tyson, 2011, p. 24) and in order to achieve these goals, something other than a conventional approach to talking about culturally responsive and place conscious pedagogy in teacher education was needed (Ball & Tyson, 2011; Ladson-Billings, 1995). As Dan, a 22-year

old teacher candidate who grew up in Marion, Ohio stated in a written reflection, “I was a geography minor and we talked about issues of race and power all of the time, but we never had to go out and experience it or learn about it in places like we read about or discussed in class.”

Knowing that “the locations students encounter have unique characteristics that differentiate them from other places,” reliance upon texts and discussions about place and education would not accomplish what a place-based experiential approach can provide because “places are more complex than geography textbooks can or do present them” (Schmidt, 2011, p. 250). Recognizing that the cultural backgrounds of teacher candidates could be a barrier to connecting with the students they would work with during student teaching, along with the merits of a community based approach to culturally responsive pedagogy, this study investigated the extent to which a place-conscious pedagogy within social studies teacher education transformed how candidates understand the relationship between culture, place, and education.

Studying Place-Consciousness in Social Studies Teacher Education

This chapter focuses on three class sessions within a 14-session social studies teacher education course held at a total of 12 different sites within Columbus, Ohio during the summer seminar course. During three, four-hour class sessions held in Weinland Park, ten participants—7 white men and 3 white women, all between the ages of 22 and 26, took part in two walking tours, two roundtable discussions, and visited with residents of Weinland Park, an area that is only one mile from the large Midwestern University they attended. Nearly 98 % of the 4,300 residents of Weinland Park are African American, and 50 % live at or below the poverty line (Colombo et al., 2012). When Heather, a 23-year old woman who grew up in a “small town on the border of Ohio and Indiana” was told class sessions would be held in Weinland Park, she reported that although she went jogging along 4th Avenue—a street that serves as the western border between the residential area of Weinland Park and the University district—on a regular basis, “I have never gone across 4th Street into the neighborhood.” As was a pattern across the interviews, many of the participants imagined boundaries based on her or his sense of place rather than experiences of place. As evidenced below, when participants described places and their experiences or relations to them, race and class served as the two most prominent aspects of what defines their sense of place and factors into how they imagine and conceptualize a place. Following an overview of my methodology, I discuss the structure of the course, including the places and people participants interacted with during the 3-day event upon which this chapter focuses.

Methodology and Data Collection

Qualitative researchers, according to Denzin and Lincoln (2000), seek understanding of phenomena or processes based in the meanings people bring to them through the employment of multiple methods of data collection such as interviews, case studies, and observations. During the study, each participant completed three, 30-min interviews over a 9 week period. The initial interview, which occurred prior to the start of the course, focused on participant backgrounds, descriptions of the places they grew up in and where they attended K-12 schooling, and the cultures, people, and norms of the places they have lived. The second interview was conducted immediately after the 3-day immersion in the Weinland Park neighborhood and focused on how the experience influenced their thinking about that area of the city, but also what they learned about the role and responsibilities of a teacher after meeting neighborhood residents. Additionally, each participant completed written reflections based on site-based learning experiences during their coursework. Following visits to cultural centers, meetings with community activists, food markets and international shopping centers, city neighborhoods, ethnic restaurants, and public parks throughout Columbus, participants completed reflections on their experience and the relation of their experiences to concepts regarding space, culture, and culturally responsive pedagogy. Each participant completed an exit interview at the conclusion of the course to reflect upon their experiences and the extent to which their conceptualizations of culture, space, and culturally responsive pedagogy had shifted since the start of the course.

Triangulation, or the use of different sources of information during research, enhances the validity of the research as well as the accuracy with which the participants' descriptions of their lived experiences is represented (Moustakis, 1990). As themes emerged during the data collection process, it was deemed beneficial to pursue them so that "voices and ideas are neither muffled or dismissed" since the "researcher cannot separate the gathering from the continuing interpretation" (Okely, 1994, p. 20). Recognizing the collection and analysis of data as simultaneous endeavors, I employed a bracketing technique during the process (Janesick, 2000, p. 390). Data was coded based on themes and patterns that emerged from interviews with participants and their written reflections. An interpretive framework was utilized (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) to map the ways participants interpreted their experiences and how they intended to apply what they learned to their forthcoming student teaching placements.

Place-Based Learning Experiences in Weinland Park

As participants sat around a conference table at 9:00 a.m. on a July morning with Doris, the Weinland Park Neighborhood Association President, and local historian and former teacher Shannon (both names are pseudonyms), they heard for the first time that day what a teacher means to a community. Doris, who has lived in the

same house in Weinland Park since her birth and attended segregated schools in Columbus, told the aspiring educators in front of her “Every kid in this neighborhood is mine...[and] you are role models. I am happy to see so many men around the table because our boys don’t have that around here. But you all are role models and we want the best for our children, so what you learn here [Weinland Park] needs to stay with you because we are counting on you.”

Moving Across the Imagined Boundary

Like his classmates, Tim a 23-year old man who grew up in a small town outside of Cleveland, Ohio had never been to Weinland Park, but he had been near the area. In fact, he “went grocery shopping at the Kroger for 4 years and never even noticed the sign saying “Welcome to Weinland Park” in front of the store.” Although each participant had lived within a short walk of Weinland Park for 4 years or more, none had ever traveled to the east side of 4th street, where the Weinland Park neighborhood is located because, as many participants shared, it was a place they perceived as being dangerous.

After the roundtable meeting with Doris in the Goldman Guild Community Center, she led the first walking tour of the neighborhood. As participants exited the front door, they passed a large RV in which nurses were providing free blood pressure tests and nutrition analysis to assist people with dietary needs and decisions. As Doris led the group behind the building, we entered a community garden that was maintained by children and adults in the neighborhood. The garden is located next to a stage that residents use for performances, including the first neighborhood choral concert that was held earlier that spring.

As Doris headed west, she brought the group to the corner of 4th street and 7th street. Across from where the group stood was the elementary school she attended. Although many renovations have been completed over the years, what Doris shared next brought time and place together in an instant. Doris told the group that although the school had been desegregated following the Supreme Court’s ruling in the *Brown v. Board of Education* case of 1954, at the end of her school days she was told to “go back to her side” of 4th street. The seven white men and three white women standing with Doris, a 68 year-old woman of color, said nothing. As the cars whizzed past us along 4th street, it was visible on the faces of each participant that the segregation and racism they had learned about was still relevant to the lives of residents in the school district they would be teaching in for the next year.

When asked during his second interview what he thought about Doris being told to go to her own side of 4th street at the end of the school day, Tim shared that he felt like he was standing “at a crossroads” and that

I could walk across 4th street at anytime I wanted, but I didn’t because I didn’t think I belonged there. Yet, Doris, who wanted to cross the street to the other side of 4th street, the side I stay on, was told she wasn’t allowed there. I never thought of it like that, like what it was like back then, until we stood there and she told us that.

The east side of 4th Street had become a place that existed on the other side of an imagined boundary for participants. To cross 4th Street—although they possess the free will and, arguably, the white privilege to do so—was unfeasible to participants. The border that participants imagined to exist was a result of how they had racialized “here” and “there” along 4th street. Participants’ conceptualized “here” as homogenous and a place primarily inhabited by white people, while “there” is where black people live. Consequently, rather than thinking of all residents of Columbus as residents of the same city, the arbitrary borders that were constructed decades ago continued to influence how students in the course imagined the city to be organized.

Learning from a Community

Part of the learning experience in Weinland Park included a session with a representative from the city housing commission. Mark was invited to discuss how the non-profit foundation was working with neighborhood leaders and residents to rebuild affordable homes so no one was pushed out of the area. By meeting with representatives from the housing organization, the teacher candidates not only learned about investments and rebuilding projects, but what it means to live on the residential streets you are also working to improve. Tim admitted that he was under the impression that people worked to get out of the Weinland Park area and was surprised to learn that “people not only work there but they live there too. They are working not just to live more comfortably, but they are helping their neighbor. I did not expect that.” Corbin, a 25-year old man who grew up in Columbus, shared a similar thought in an interview, stating, “you never hear about those types of things. You only hear about the bad stuff, or that there is a housing project taking place, but never that the people leading the project also want to live in the neighborhood too. It makes me wonder who else lives there or what else is going on that is good but we don’t hear about.”

As a resident of Weinland Park and an employee of the city government, Mark offered a unique perspective of what it means to live in a place you are also working to rebuild. Each summer Mark hosts a few barbeques on the front lawn of his home, and everyone in Weinland Park is invited. During his presentation, Mark recounted the time when a father approached him at a barbeque about something that had happened with the man’s son. He told Mark that his son had come out as gay the day before because of a conversation he had with Mark, who is also gay. The father said that at first he was angry that Mark spoke with his son about his sexuality, but then realized Mark was being a caring neighbor who helped his son in a way he, as his father, did not feel he could. Choked up as he told the story, Mark reminded us that you don’t have “those experiences, you don’t know all that goes into a kid’s day or a family’s dynamic, unless you talk to them and get to know them.”

A number of participants discussed what they took from Mark’s story and presentation on housing projects designed to keep people in the neighborhood during

their second interview. Liz, a 26-year old white woman who grew up 20 min north of Weinland Park, said that even though she had lived in the same house since she was born, she “never had that sense of community. I mean, we know our neighbors, but we don’t know them like that. We just live in the same place, and I went to school with neighbors’ kids, but we don’t really share any other connection.” Liz’s distinction helps us understand that physical proximity within a residential area—a neighborhood—does not mean that there is a network of support and care for the people within that place. Similarly, Andrew, who had discussed seeing a lot of kids on the street of his Canton, Ohio neighborhood, recalled never feeling that connected to the adults and he wondered if his neighborhood, which he described as “family friendly,” was

as invested as people [in Weinland Park] are in all kids doing well. I wonder if people where I lived just expected it or assumed it would happen. We didn’t have to have a community center because our school provided clubs and activities. I know from our readings that race and economics are a factor, but this is the first time I have been with people that are affected by this inequality. How do I talk about this in a classroom when I am a white man?

Andrew’s question about how his race and background influences what he does and does not feel comfortable talking about was echoed by other participants. Corbin grew up on the west side of the city, in a neighborhood that has a higher poverty rate than Weinland Park. When he was asked about how his experience as a student in the large city school district compared to his time in Weinland Park, he said

I attended school with students like the one’s we met today, so I know what people think when they think about the city schools here. But I know it is different when you are in them [the city schools]. People know each other out of school, and you see people in the neighborhood, but I guess I didn’t think about how it effects us differently in different areas. I just thought of us as being part of one school district. I am white, but I feel like being from the area might help me connect with students.

Corbin served as a board member of his neighborhood association as an undergraduate student, so when he learned that issues facing his neighborhood on the west side of Columbus were occurring in Weinland, he said he “wanted to do something more than just learn about what was going on.” Corbin was one of three participants who, on their own, accepted Doris’ invitation to come to an upcoming neighborhood association meeting that was going to focus on people’s needs and programs offered for students at the start of the new school year.

Teaching in and About a Community

Asked to reflect upon what the Weinland Park experience meant for her as she transitioned from being a full time student to a student teacher, Liz shook her head slowly as she said her “understanding of what it means to be a teacher, and what a

teacher is responsible for, has expanded yet again.” Asked to elaborate, Liz referenced the roundtable discussion during one of the three class sessions in Weinland Park with Greg, a counselor and community activist. Greg and his colleagues work with students in the area who are victims of abuse, neglected by their parents, or who need emotional and psychological support for other reasons. Calling the conversation “eye opening” and describing some of his examples as “difficult to hear, particularly the ones about child abuse,” Liz stated that while she knew her

responsibilities as a teacher would go beyond making sure that the students understood social studies [topics], I learned this week those responsibilities go beyond teaching government to include how actions of governments and policy boards effect people and where they live because those also effect students.

In addition to local connections and political or economic developments that can be used as part of a social studies class that seeks to build relevancy to students’ communities, participants developed new understandings of the intersections of culture and place.

Rob, who grew up and attended schools in a suburb of the city, wrote as part of a reflection that the walking tours and meetings with residents taught him

neighborhoods are made up of different classes and races, as well as cultures. People might think a place has a culture, but a particular place isn’t restricted to a particular (single-dimensional) culture or community. And, if we think about culture and community, place, as being constantly reconstructed, along with what Doris and Greg talked about, we can’t simply ignore what’s going on in our students’ lives.

The realization that the neighborhoods that make up the school district they would student teach in are not how they had imagined them to be helped participants reimagine their sense of place and responsibility as educators.

As participants moved into student teaching, discussions about culturally responsive and place-conscious lesson planning continued. Tim developed a project that included use of documentaries that had been made by a local film company about the multiple neighborhoods that exist throughout the city to illustrate change over time and teach about diversity regarding race, ethnicity, and class across the city. Heather used what she learned about the construction of an expressway in a majority African American neighborhood in the city when she taught about the effects of the Eisenhower Thruway system as part of her U.S. history course. Rob worked with another not for profit housing organization in the city to develop a service-learning project for seniors in his government course as a way to recreate the learning experience he had in Weinland Park. He paired this project with a study of the Department of Housing and Urban Development to help students develop a deeper understanding of local and national connections that involved budget analysis, policy development, and a place-conscious pedagogy.

Implications for Twenty-First-Century Social Studies Teacher Education

Providing teacher candidates with an opportunity to meet and learn from parents and leaders in the very community that sends students to the classrooms they will student teach in proved to be a powerful learning experience for each participant. Reflections and discussions throughout the study revealed how the pre-service teachers came to recognize that education is not meant to remove students from their community but instead can be used to “make their community what they want it to be” (Ladson-Billings, 1994, p. 73). There is more, however, that can be done to enhance this type of pedagogy and findings from this study help to identify how such learning experiences can be expanded and developed further.

While the site visits proved helpful in the development of how teacher candidates thought about the neighborhoods in which they would be teaching, spending only one class session at a site is not the best approach to place-based teacher education. Though class sessions throughout the course occurred in the north, south, east, west, and central parts of the city, only the Weinland Park experience lasted longer than one class session meaning that not all areas of the city received an extended amount of attention. Providing similar learning experiences throughout a program of study rather than within only one course allows for more sustained learning experiences that, ideally, include interactions with neighbors and community leaders during student teaching.

While a culturally responsive framework for teacher education has proved to be an effective entry point for white teacher candidates who had not previously thought of culture and place in such critical ways, more discussions of race, institutional racism, and place should be included. Although race and institutional racism were discussed and researched during the summer seminar—and subsequent courses introduced students to work by Derrick Bell, Kimberlee Crenshaw, Adrienne Dixson, and Audre Lorde, among others—some participants felt that as novice teachers, critical race theory was too complex to integrate into their teaching. Whereas Corwin made critical race theory a framework for his research paper during student teaching, David did not feel he could discuss race with his students because his “cooperating teacher was not the kind of person who would want to get into that [race].” Teaching how race has historically been used to organize places—red-lining practices in real estate, drawing boundaries for school districts, constructing expressways, and more—is not controversial, nor relegated to the past, for students whose neighborhoods are still affected by such discriminatory practices.

Providing experiences in the communities that teacher candidates will be assigned to student teach in prior to beginning their student teaching offers them a much wider scope of who they will be working with in the classroom. In doing so, preconceived notions they bring into student teaching can be disrupted because of the opportunities to learn from the community, not just read about or hear about areas of a city through the lens constructed by news reporters or historians who also neglected to speak with the residents who were affected by, rather than the makers of, housing and education policies.

Conclusion

Studying the experiences of teacher candidates, with particular attention to how participants conceptualize the intersection of culture and community, adds a necessary, bottom-up approach to teacher education. As teacher candidates reflected upon the social construction of place (Helfenbein, 2006; Lefebvre, 1974/1991; Soja, 1996), they developed an understanding of how “idealizing the global as a novel process of interconnectedness conceals inequality and disguises the long-standing interdependence and imbalanced power relations among countries, regions, and cultures” (Agbaria, 2011, p. 70). Being in the neighborhoods that their students lived in *before* student teaching helped pre-service teachers enter their placements with a more open-mind about *where* and *who* they would be teaching than before the summer course. Meeting parents, community leaders, and residents changed how pre-service teachers imagined the “real world” of the students they would be working with to be and led to a sense of responsibility for designing social studies lessons that attend to the diversities and strengths of their students’ neighborhoods.

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Chapter 16

Examining Community with Pre-service Teachers Through the Use of Participatory Photography Projects

Sarah A. Mathews and Erin Crew Adams

As many teacher educators are aware, the teaching profession in the United States is comprised mostly of white and middle class teachers while the K-12 student population is becoming increasingly more diverse (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2010; Nieto, 2009; Staklis & Henke, 2013). Similar patterns can be found within schools of education (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013). Many in-service teachers are teaching outside of their own communities and many pre-service teachers may be forced to relocate while seeking future employment. Rebuilding, redistricting, and redlining—each influenced by patterns of human migration—shape and redefine physical and cultural boundaries in ways that have consequences for all current and future teachers. This occurs even within large urban centers where the history of gentrification and inequitable redistricting creates culturally homogenous housing patterns (Crump, 2013; Morales, 2012; Oakes & Rogers, 2006). Social studies teachers, tasked with “developing students’ critical understanding of the social world” and charged with a responsibility to prepare students for active civic engagement (Thornton & Barton, 2010, p. 2473), are operating within these transformations of community boundaries. Some teachers may have limited knowledge about the communities where they are trying to inspire their students to become civically engaged.

It is important for pre-service teacher to think critically about the spatial arrangements in the cities and communities they will serve. Prospective teachers need to interrogate previously unchallenged assumptions they hold about the students living in these communities, the schools they attend, and their own position within the community. There is a large body of research that examines the taken-for-granted

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assumptions pre-service teachers bring with them into social studies instruction (Castro, 2013; Dee & Henkin, 2002; Howard, 2006; Mathews & Dilworth, 2008). This research attests to the need for teacher education programs to build experiences that allow and inspire pre-service teachers to develop a deeper understanding of multiple perspectives and diverse experiences. Unfortunately much of the research in this area is conducted *on* pre-service teachers, not *with* them.

In this chapter we advocate for pedagogies that utilize photography to elicit observations about communities in ways that help pre-service teachers interrogate their assumptions about these spaces. The projects described in this chapter aim to help pre-service teachers think critically about the spaces and places they occupy. We hope to help students develop a spatial perspective so they can “make better theoretical and practical sense of how social justice is created, maintained, and brought into question as a target for democratic social action” (Soja, 2010, p. 2). We see photography as an important tool for conceiving of space as Soja challenges us to do, not as a static backdrop but as ever-changing and malleable.

Through digital and participatory research, individuals should begin to recognize that inequalities occur within and amongst spaces, and that spaces can be both inviting and prohibitive. Photographs and images can then be used to map assets and inequities within and amongst communities. The examples we feature are intended to help pre-service teacher become aware of, articulate, challenge, or disrupt how they think about communities. Although our projects were used to help individuals “encounter the urban” we feel the camera can be used to examine a variety of spaces. Thus recommendations for additional projects are included to help others envision how to incorporate these methods to fit the needs of their students.

The Role of Community in Social Studies Education

Our work is situated within the broad goal of social studies education as preparing students to live in and shape societies that are diverse, pluralistic, and democratic. In order to do that we examine the role that “communities” serve as a laboratory for developing these skills. These ideas are not new. In fact, Dewey (1899) contended that the local community provided the experiences necessary to foster educational growth as well as civic engagement. Communities prepare individuals to improve the democratic condition of their surroundings. The “community civics” movement later adopted these ideas, utilizing progressive pedagogical theories and emphasizing cooperation and community over the formal study of politics and government (Barnard, Carrier, Dunn, Kingsley, & Department of the Interior, 1915; Reuben, 1997). This approach contributed to the expanding horizons/environments scope and sequence that begins with the individual and local contexts for learning social studies and then extends outward (i.e. kindergarten –self, first grade – family, second grade – neighborhoods and community) (Akenson, 1987; Wade, 2002). Remnants of this curricular design are evident in elementary education today.

Contemporary proponents of place-based education advocate for the use of local resources, people, and communities to help students become responsible for the preservation and care of their immediate surroundings (Place-based Education Evaluation Collaborative, 2010; Williams, 2010). Maguth and Hilburn (2011) outline three strengths of this approach for social studies education. They propose that by studying their community students can: (1) “better understand the political, economic, social, and environmental connections of their community to the rest of the world;” (2) “emerge as better informed, active, and concerned citizens;” and (3) “work to reshape their community into a more peaceful, prosperous, and tolerant location.” (p. 28). Unfortunately, with a rise in teacher-accountability, attached to high-stakes testing, many educators abandon student-centered, community-based instruction in effort to “cover” more material before students are tested.

We contend it is time to rethink “society” in order to revisit the role of “community” as an effective conduit for education. “Community” is an accessible concept for most pre-service and practicing teachers and therefore serves as an entryway to social studies concepts for all teachers. In addition, our work with community highlights the ways in which social studies learning is not limited to classrooms or designated hours of the school day, but permeates every facet of our lives as members of communities. Examining notions of community opens the door for inquiries into issues of race, gender, sexuality, and accessibility; issues that are always at work in the societies and communities where our pre-service teachers serve.

Communities can serve as a laboratory for K-16 students to explore how course content influences their everyday lives and to practice skills necessary for civic engagement. Unfortunately, the pre-service teachers we work with report that their own K-12 education failed to build connections to their local contexts. We feel it is important to bring these experiences to our methods students in our attempts to model practices they can use in their future classrooms. The projects presented here describe how photography can be a powerful tool for bringing these issues into the teacher education classroom in ways that bridge theory and practice. These activities also intend to decrease the town/gown divide wherein pre-service teachers are disconnected from the communities they serve. Visiting and documenting communities in this way pursued goals of fostering participatory, active citizens.

Re/Examining Notions of “Community”

While we suggest it is important to revisit the role of community in social studies education it is also important to re/examine what “community” means in our increasingly interdependent and globalized society. All communities involve spatial and cultural aspects and in order to understand communities, individuals must understand the intersection of space, place, power, and identity (Helfenbein, 2009; Sanders, 2013). The concept *space* in these terms, suggests that boundaries are flexible, permeable, and socially constructed (Anzaldúa, 2007; Massey, 2005). The

term *place* denotes the cultural characteristics that have localized meaning for the people that occupy an area; characteristics that are both political and cultural (Gruenewald, 2003; Helfenbein, 2009). This notion of community contends that communities are sites of power that have negative and positive implications for change (Monmonier, 2013; Weber, 2013).

The social studies disciplines can serve as tools for examining communities in relation to these intersections. For example, Kenreich (2013) reminds us that “the tools and concepts of geography can equip us to critically explore the spatial expression of power in order to move toward a more just society – locally and globally,” (pp. 1–2). Geography becomes vital here as, “the geographies in which we live can intensify and sustain our exploitation as workers, support oppressive forms of cultural and political domination based on race, gender, and nationality, and aggravate all forms of discrimination and injustice. Without this recognition, space is little more than a background complication” (Kenreich, 2013, p. 19). In other words geographic tools allow individuals to examine power distributions and social inequities within and amongst a variety of communities. The process of mapping power distributions within places can serve as a consciousness-raising tool and may inspire grass-roots mobilization or civic engagement.

Using Photomethodologies as Participatory Research

In order to re/examine the term “community” it is also important to de/construct how communities are represented. Imagery is an integral part of social studies education. Textbooks and internet sources are filled with pictures depicting various people, places, and events. Werner (2002) notes that, in social studies, visual texts are the social world and are meant to shape students’ conceptions of society. As a result, social studies educators need to incorporate pedagogies that help students critically examine these visual representations.

Some social studies researchers also utilize photography within their research methodology. For example, Barton (2010) utilized “picture-sort” activities to explore children’s historical thinking. Powell and Serriere (2013) use cameras to document students using their bodies to participate in democratic, world-changing activities. In a similar vein, Hultman and Lenz-Taguchi (2010) photographed preschool children in the process of play and then showed them the pictures to investigate the children’s relationships with the objects they encountered at school. In these situations photography served as an elicitation technique.

Drawing on the power of photography as a pedagogical and research strategy, we designed projects to help our students engage in similar participatory, digital research. Making use of photography and technology, we were able to help pre-service teachers, in two different methods courses, produce images to guide social investigations that re/examine communities. Our projects were influenced by the following practices that use photography to documents ideas, allowing images to serve as a medium for further reflection and discussion.

Photomissions

Juan Carlos Castro (2012) developed photography projects for students as a way to help them “articulate complex ideas” (p. 153) about concepts they were learning. The students performed “missions” in which they had to articulate a particular idea through photographic images (J. C. Castro, personal communication, 2014). Through these missions students were able to use processes they frequently utilized outside of school – i.e. using social media to present and perform their lives – to explore complex issues. In this instance they used portable cameras to capture images and provided commentary to document their understanding. These projects indicate that, not only are teachers and students accustomed to seeing and using visual images in the classroom, asking students to produce and then reflect on the visual images they create is powerful pedagogy in itself.

Photovoice

Photovoice is a community-based participatory research methodology that utilizes photography to document and examine social issues. The method was created in 1994 when Caroline C. Wang and Mary A. Burris gave cameras to women in China and asked them to document inequitable working conditions from their own perspectives. This process allowed individuals to author their own stories through photography, rather than rely on the authoritative stances often imposed on others by specialists, policy makers, and professional photographers (Wang & Burris, 1994). Wang and Burris (1994) outlined three objectives for using the photovoice method: (a) enable individuals to capture and reflect on a community’s assets and inequities, (b) promote a dialogue about community issues through a discussion surrounding these images, and (c) use photographs and discussions to influence policy makers and evoke change (p. 370).

The photovoice process draws on Freire’s (2000) notion of *conscientização*, i.e. reflection and praxis, and the idea that images can serve as a problem-posing mechanism for social change. Photos are combined with “voice” to create projects that contribute to the act of “voicing our individual and collective experiences” (Wang & Burris, 1994, p. 281). Photovoice has helped youth in Flint Michigan articulate disparities in their community, examine gender norms, and visualize a world without violence (Clark-Ibáñez, 2008; Serriere, 2007; Walker, Schratz, & Egg, 2008; Wang & Burris, 1994; Wang, Morrel-Samuels, Hutchinson, Bell, & Pestronk, 2004; for a longer review of photovoice projects see also Mathews, 2012).

Using Digital Participatory Research on and in Communities as Social Studies Methods

The projects described here are accounts of two teacher educators' attempts to help their students think critically, first about the communities around them and then about the communities where they may potentially teach. Each author drew on the aforementioned conceptualizations of community spaces as well as the goals and processes included in previous research that utilizes photomethodologies. We developed two separate experiences that utilized photography to help pre-service teachers explore communities and reinforced concepts examined within the corresponding methods course. Erin took her pre-service elementary social studies students on a mile-long photowalk through a neighborhood adjoining the university. This served as a means to help her students critically consider the meaning of "community" that framed their work in the elementary education program. Sarah's work with secondary pre-service teachers utilized photomethodologies to critically map the assets and inequities found within and around their early field experience school placements. This reinforced the need for culturally relevant pedagogy as discussed in their university coursework.

Considering Community Through a Photowalk: Reflections from Erin's Course

The photowalk project I initiated was situated in an elementary social studies methods course at the University of Georgia, in Athens, Georgia. For this project, my students walked 1.2 miles from our classroom in the College of Education to a local natural/gourmet grocery store. Although the overall experience was designed around a field trip to the store, I highlight the experience walking to the store in this chapter. On the walk, the pre-service teachers used their Smartphones and other portable devices to take four photographs and then uploaded the pictures into 16 different albums on our course's e-learning website. The albums were designed to engage the pre-service teachers in thinking about social studies content as well as "buzzwords" drawn from the pre-service teachers' writings on classroom community. Once students uploaded their pictures into the various albums, I was able to compile the pictures into a PowerPoint presentation that we could easily reference and discuss throughout the semester.

Purpose and Background

One of the major themes of the elementary education program is community and community building. For example, in a previous course, the pre-service teachers rode a city bus and visited an ethnic grocery store, among other experiences, as a way to engage with the idea of community. The community theme was also often articulated by the pre-service teachers themselves as a goal for their future classrooms. I used the theme of community as a construction of social studies – e.g. that communities are built upon concepts in history, geography, economics, and civics – as a “way in” or “bridge” between content and the elementary education program as a whole. Furthermore, at a time when the social studies disciplines are increasingly marginalized in elementary schools, linking community to social studies concepts reinforces the idea that social studies can be found everywhere, even in the very rules and procedures that make up classroom life.

Within the first few weeks of the semester, the pre-service teachers conducted “citizenship observations” in their field placement (pre-K-5) classrooms. This assignment allowed the pre-service teachers an opportunity to closely observe the intricate ways teachers and students managed citizenship and what that meant for the types of communities that were being fostered in these classrooms. They were asked to observe interactions such as: Who gets to speak in the classroom? What are the classroom rules? and How are these rules made? Returning to the university, the group discussed their observations in relation to literature by Paley (2009) and Cowhey (2006) addressing classroom rules and rule-making as the building blocks, or the social contract, for the classroom. Finally, the pre-service teachers wrote “citizenship statements” articulating their vision of citizenship in their future classrooms.

A theme recurring throughout the citizenship statements was a desire to foster a strong and functional classroom community. The pre-service teachers said things like “I want my classroom to be a community where everyone feels like they belong” and “I want to build a strong classroom community where everyone follows the rules.” The pre-service teachers in this cohort also expressed a belief that strong classroom communities offered students training for living in communities outside of the classroom. Citizenship and rule-following were closely related, and manifested in their desire to use rewards and punishments to simulate rewards and punishments in the “real-world.”

I was aware that my students had previous exposure to the concept “community” within their elementary education program. However, the generalizations in which they spoke and wrote about these spaces, and the assumptions made about the relationship between their students’ school and non-school communities, prompted me to take the pre-service teachers on a walk through a “real” local neighborhood/community adjacent to the university. The walk served two main purposes. First, it allowed us to gain a more nuanced understanding of what is meant by a “community.” The second purpose was to observe and document, through photography, the ways social studies content can be found in communities all the time. I wanted

students to observe the forms of citizenship expectations, spoken and unspoken, and more discipline-specific concepts related to geography, economics, and civics.

In addition to the citizenship statements and observations, we read and discussed several pieces of work on young children and mapping their spaces (Fantozzi, Cottino, & Gennarelli, 2013; James, 2008; Segall, 2003). These readings introduced the importance of thinking of the places children are familiar with, i.e. components of communities, as socially constructed entities. The pre-service teachers also mapped their own spaces including their routes to and from school, work, and home.

The Walk

I explained that we would explore a community adjacent to campus known as “Five Points” on our walk to the grocery store. Five Points is a very affluent residential and commercial region consisting of single family homes and apartments, government buildings such as the fire station and an elementary school, and a few commercial blocks consisting of a large health food store, coffee shops, restaurants, and sporting goods stores. Many of the students in the class were familiar with some of the individual businesses surrounding the university but had never *walked* through this particular neighborhood. I then explained that they should use their personal phones and digital cameras to photograph concepts representing the Georgia Performance Standards, and images of citizenship (e.g. “responsibility”), they observed along the walk.

I intentionally decided to have the group walk to the store, rather than drive or take a bus. Walking is an economic, healthy, and environmentally friendly way to travel. These aspects seemed consistent with the philosophy guiding the organic grocery store we were visiting. Through this walk I also wanted my students to pay attention to their surroundings and consider the community where they were situated. Walking made us acutely aware of crosswalks, stoplights, and signage in ways that may have gone unnoticed in a car. By walking, the pre-service teachers could consider issues such as safety and accessibility in relation to pedestrian-friendly spaces (Prytherch, 2012). This particular route also allowed us to maneuver between the “town and gown” in that we walked from a distinctly “on campus” space, consisting of the basketball arena and the university track, to a more distinctly “town” space, consisting of stores, restaurants, and places of worship.

The Photography Project

After the walk the students uploaded their photographs into a variety of albums on our course management system. Some albums were labeled by disciplinary words and concepts taken from the K-5 state social studies standards (Fig. 16.1).



<i>Cluster:</i>	<i>Social Studies Discipline</i>	<i>Concepts</i>
GPS Standards	Economics	Public Specialization Private Consumers Services Producers
	Geography	Movement & Migration Global Local Culture
Citizens Statement Buzzwords	Civics	Rules and Responsibilities Respect Community Helpers
"Places I"		Places I go Places I want to go Places I need to go

Fig. 16.1 Chart outlining the organization of folders developed from the Erin’s photowalk

Other albums were labeled with concepts that emerged from previous class discussions regarding important aspects for a functioning community, e.g. “rules and regulations” and “respect”. Finally, a third cluster of albums designed “places I” folders were designed to provide insight into how these pre-service teachers accessed the neighborhood; “places I go”, “places I should go,” and “places I need to go”.

Through his work with photomissions, Castro (2012) emphasizes that teaching always offers constraints, but that these constraints can disable or enable (p. 156). In

this project, those constraints were the sixteen topics that my students had to “define” or express through photographs. Rather than serving as an end point, the pre-service teachers’ photographs were meant to elicit conversations. The “correct” definition of these concepts is not as important as the discussions the photographs provoke and the critical questions they inspire. “[By] using each other’s ideas as points of departure and elaboration... rich interactions are understood here as a diversity of ways to respond and relate” (Castro, 2012, p. 160). For example, in the “community helpers” album, the pre-service teachers took pictures of both traditional and nontraditional community helpers; a fire station served as an example of the former and a FedEx delivery person and a man mowing the lawn in front of a university residence hall were used as examples of the latter. By discussing this concept the pre-service teachers’ were reminded that both institutions and people make up a community, and allowed them to explore the types of “help” community helpers provide.

Insights from the Photowalk

The community photowalk project worked *within* the curriculum, not just *as* curriculum (Heilman, 2010). This distinction is important for considering how a field trip or walk is facilitated in a social studies course. In my case, the class experiences were not intended to be stand-alone or self-evident experiences, but part of a larger discussion about community and social space. Photography allowed us to document various community aspects, discuss how they function in society, and identify their accessibility to the larger community. In this way, the walk was not an end but an invitation for further conversations. Photographs and discussions addressed content from three social studies disciplines: economics, civics, and geography. In a testament to the interdisciplinary nature of the social studies, photographs of similar images were on occasion uploaded into different albums. Finally there were some albums that were left empty.

Economics

In Georgia the concepts *public* and *private* are designated as economics content. The pre-service teachers uploaded photographs of university and city entities into both the private and public folders. Images of the Athens city bus and the university track were placed in the “public” folder. The groups’ “private” folder included pictures of the athletic training facility and parking lots with signs that restrict parking. For example, one pre-service teacher uploaded this image demonstrating the irony of a car being towed from a public university’s parking lot. What these seemingly contradictory photos enabled was a rich class discussion on the blurriness between private and public institutions. The pictures helped me see that my students viewed private spaces as those with limited access, such as no parking zones and athletic

Fig. 16.2 Photograph of a tow-away sign placed in the private folder



facilities. In class students responded that although these facilities were located on a public campus and paid for with taxpayer money, the public could not use or access these spaces. The city bus, however, was classified as a public entity, accessible to the students who could ride the bus for free, even though locals must pay to ride. Therefore, what seemed to distinguish public and private had more to do with the degree of *access* rather than funding sources (i.e. taxpayer money), as they originally suggested (Fig. 16.2).

Civics

I chose concepts that related not only to the state civics standards, but also related to terms the students used in their citizenship statements. The goal was to help the pre-service teachers articulate what they mean by “rules” in the “real world”. In the “rules and responsibilities” folder, the students uploaded photographs of crosswalks, do not enter signs, recycling bins, stoplights, and speed limit signs. What went undocumented was a point at which the sidewalk ended and some students were forced to jaywalk by darting across the road. Later in the semester, we discussed the “stoplight” discipline system, where misbehaving students must move their card to a yellow or red level, depending on the infraction. Our photowalk allowed me to point out that very little of our walk was “policed,” that we received no rewards or punishments for crossing at the crosswalk or following other rules, and that those who did break the rules did not have their names publicly displayed.

No one's citizenship status was on display for the rest of the community. These lessons problematized the pre-service teachers' original perceptions of the stoplight system and raised awareness of the contradictions within their visions of classroom community as preparation for the "real-world."

Geography

Pre-service teachers included pictures of various forms of transportation in the "movement and migration" album including vans, Jeeps, pedestrians, and both city and campus buses. The "global" folder contained a photo of a gas station. In class, the pre-service teacher who captured the picture described how gasoline is a product that is imported yet is also necessary for travelling. The gasoline was global for this student since gasoline was viewed as a commodity acquired far from Athens. The "local" folder contained pictures of the organic grocery store (as it is unique to this community), a student center for a local church denomination, and a liquor store unique to the Five Points neighborhood. The gas station photograph as connected to "global" versus the buildings related to "local" illustrates how "global" is viewed alongside movement and migration. Gas stations are global not only because they are found all over the nation and the world, but because they allow for movement to happen, whereas the photographs of the church, liquor store, and grocery store evoke an idea of local as related to stillness or immobility.

The categories "places I go" and "places I want to go" were categories that allowed me as an instructor to see the community spaces my students are familiar with and places that they might desire to go. Including this cluster was also my way of modeling equity through accessibility. Because students would not need any specific disciplinary knowledge to post in this cluster, it remained open to all and allowed everyone to contribute to the overall project without feeling excluded because they might not understand the other concepts. Photographs in the "want to go" album fostered discussions about the types of places individuals want to visit and why they may or may not actually go to those places. This served to raise issues of access, equity, and spatial justice. For example, some students expressed a desire to go to the sporting events in the sports arena we passed on our walk. Access to sporting events served as an excellent opportunity to discuss whether a local team is really accessible to everyone in the town. In this town non-students pay thousands of dollars for football tickets each season. Although the basketball and gymnastics meets held in the arena are cheaper there was no guarantee that all students or all townspeople could access these spaces in equitable ways.

Interconnected Concepts

Many topics in social studies are interdisciplinary. The concepts of public and private, for example, while situated within the economics section of this state's standards are also civics concepts. As a result pictures and concepts often overlapped.

For example, a photograph of a bus represented several concepts including “public,” “culture,” and “movement and migration”. In the “things I need” folder, several students uploaded pictures of gas stations since gasoline is essential for their mobility from school, home, work, and their parents’ homes. The reality for many families in the county, however, is quite different as many individuals rely on public transportation or walk in order to access essential institutions in their lives. For the pre-service teachers, gasoline became the “thing I need” for mobility or transportation rather than able bodies, public transportation, and sidewalks. This distinction highlights how “needs” are perceived differently by various citizens of the same community.

Unfilled Folders

The folders that were not filled should not be viewed as a failure, but as learning experiences. For Castro, these are signals that students are not interested in a particular topic. For me, an empty folder is also an elicitation device. It signals that the students might not have understood the concept. Asking students in class why they did not capture a photograph to represent a concept was as insightful as if they uploaded a picture.

During this semester one student submitted a picture of the university’s small animal teaching hospital under the concept “specialization.” When conceiving of this album, I expected students would choose images of one of the local coffee shops (since this business essentially specializes in one product). However, the photographs of the coffee shops were uploaded into the “places I go” folder. The pre-service teachers knew about these establishments but perhaps had never considered them as examples of specialization. The emptiness of the folder allowed me to discuss these terms further in class during our economics unit.

Overall Reflection

The community photowalk relates to social studies educators’ call to engage with the social world and it serves to fulfill pre-service teachers’ desire for real world, hands-on engagement with social studies standards and technology. For social studies teacher educators, the digital project serves as a way to powerfully and physically engage their students in civic, economic, and geographic methods and concepts while also attending to issues of justice, accessibility, and equity within communities. Using the students’ photographs as elicitation devices, I was able to discuss these issues more in-depth, especially in relation to distinctions between “public” and “private” institutions, the rules and responsibilities of citizens in the community, and the extent to which the norms of a community mirror those of the future classrooms the pre-service teachers described. The walk raised important

issues for living in democratic societies, such as rights to the city and rights to urban spaces (Soja, 2010).

Photovoice Equity Audits as Community Mapping: Reflections from Sarah's Course

The photovoice equity audit project described in this section was designed to help secondary social studies pre-service teachers examine the assets and inequities within and surrounding the schools where they complete a teaching practicum. The practicum is aligned with a course focused on teaching diverse learners and utilizing technology. This project incorporates elements of *photovoice*, combining photography with reflection and praxis, and *community mapping*, geared towards helping individuals interrogate place, space, power and identity. My goal was to help the pre-service teachers in this course explore local schools, student populations, and community spaces.

Purpose and Background

When I recently moved to Miami, Florida, and took a position at Florida International University (FIU), a Historically Hispanic Serving Institution (HHSI), I realized many of my undergraduate students still knew very little about their neighbors in the greater metropolitan area. Although the pre-service teachers in my program are from culturally, ethnically, and even linguistically diverse backgrounds, many still live in neighborhoods segregated by race or nation of origin. This experience forced me to exam my assumption that exposure to diversity results in conversations about and across diversity.

FIU's social studies program attempts to infuse culturally relative/responsive pedagogy (Gay, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 2009), as well as strategies for teaching English Language Learners (ELLs), throughout the curriculum; however, one of the goals in this course is to help pre-service teachers explicitly examine issues related to power, diversity, and teaching for social justice. This course contains a required field experience component and some pre-service teachers are placed in schools vastly different from the middle or high schools they attended. Instead of asking students to journal about their experience, I chose a multimedia approach for documenting, mapping, and reflecting on social inequities within schools and surrounding communities. I developed the following project that uses photovoice and participatory research techniques to create an equity audit of a section of the community. This project then uses Google Earth as a format to display and map-out the pre-service teachers' research. The geo-spatial projections provided an opportunity

for the class, as a whole, to look across this region, identifying assets and inequities across communities.

The Photovoice Equity Audit

The pre-service teachers were asked to create an equity audit of their practicum placement. They were asked to locate demographic data, research the history of their institution, and outline the geographic boundaries of the school's population. They were asked to examine the types of student and teacher support services that were offered at the school – e.g. professional development for teachers, an LGBTQ Club or Gay-Straight Alliance, cross-cultural events or assemblies, workshops to support parents. In class discussions, we also spoke about spaces that were prohibitive or exclusive. I asked the pre-service teachers to look for these spaces in schools. I directed the pre-service teachers to observe which students were included in “tracked” courses and how students grouped themselves in public spaces, i.e. at lunch or between classes. Finally, they were asked to examine spaces in the schools where students were included and spaces where they were restricted.

I reminded the pre-service teachers that every community offers particular assets to its members, even communities surrounded by inequities. To demonstrate this I asked the pre-service teacher to outline the inequities and assets in their own communities. The goal was to encourage students to think critically about how communities support citizens as well as identify areas where citizens still need to work for equality. In order to encounter these ideas in the “field,” the pre-service teachers were asked to spend at least 45 min walking or driving around the community surrounding their school placement. They were told to observe the institutions, parks, businesses, and services that were located in this area and to note which of these spaces welcomed all community members and which seemed to exclude certain individuals, including the youth that attend school in that community. They were instructed to reflect on the values or characteristics that were explicitly or implicitly communicated in these spaces. Finally, the prospective teachers were asked to reflect on how they could utilize these community assets into their instruction.

In the spring 2014 semester I decided to incorporate a photovoice component to support the equity audit project, allowing the pre-service teachers to visually document assets and inequities as they saw the issues impacting their field placements. Some individuals captured images of objects or events as they occurred in real-time at their setting. Others chose to use photographs as a form of symbolic representation for what they had observed, in order to protect the anonymity of the students at this school.

Each individual was required to turn in five images and a paragraph describing how that item represented ideas or themes that were discussed in class. For example, one student took photographs of the restaurants surrounding the school. In her reflection she wrote that the prevalence of Cuban restaurants reflects the ethnic make-up of the residents in this community. Another student chose an image of a

liquor store located directly across from the school. He was surprised to see this was located in such close proximity to the students walking to this middle school, especially since he observed many men hanging outside of the store throughout most of the day. One student reflected on a photograph of four BMW® cars parked in the student parking. She suggested that these images reflect the higher socio-economic status of the students attending this high school. In this first phase of the project students were identifying cultural and socio-economic markers in society and using that to support their assumptions about individual communities.

Mapping Community Images Using Google^(TM)Earth

The first phase of the photovoice equity audit allowed the pre-service teachers the opportunity to gather data and research their school's community. However, this phase was completed in isolation and did not provide a space for sharing the voices represented in these images. The final stage of any photovoice project, especially one used as a consciousness-raising tool, requires opportunities for individuals to present and discuss these images. Previous photovoice authors have presented work in a gallery format or through digital media presentations. In my course we utilized GIS technology, in the form of Google Earth, as a tool to "map out" and analyze the assets and inequities impacting these particular school placements. By asking each pre-service teachers to create placemarks representing their school and community I could then project the class set of projects onto the same Google Earth background. The goal was to help the entire group visualize how aspects of power are inequitably distributed across the larger metropolitan area, identifying and challenging the lenses we use to view and interpret particular people and places.

I introduced the second phase of this project, the Google Earth component, by encouraging the pre-service teachers to simply interact with the technology. My students watched short videos of the potential uses for this technology in a classroom. Each student was instructed to download the free technology onto their laptop.

The second step involved having each pre-service teacher create a placemark, text, and images to represent their school placement. In Google Earth it is relatively easy to add text and photographs to a placemark by right clicking on the thumbtack icon and then clicking on the properties link. However, if you want to organize information in a particular fashion or use a particular template you can also use html coding. I facilitated this process by giving each pre-service teacher a pre-developed thumbtack that demonstrated the information I wanted them to include in their placemark. Each pre-service teacher could copy and paste the information into the properties on their own project and then change various parts of the code to fit the information they wanted to include.

Most of my students were quickly able to manipulate the information in the example html code that I provided. By creating these projects in class students

who were proficient in this aspect of technology were able to help their peers who were struggling.

The particular placemark template we used incorporated a bulleted list of information and links to digital images and videos. Each pre-service teacher was then asked to create at least one placemark to represent their school placement and include the following information: (a) a bulleted list of background information about their school, (b) a bulleted list of the demographics they researched, (c) an image of the building, and (d) three of the digital images they collected during their field work, with captions to explain each image.

Some students chose to create additional thumbtacks labelling the assets and inequities that they found within the surrounding communities. For example the student who captured the liquor store image created a thumbtack to demonstrate the distance between this school and this store.

Discussions Inspired by Our Photovoice Equity Audit

The pre-service teachers each emailed their completed placemark to me so I could consolidate their work into one “project.” I was able to project all of the placemarks onto the Smartboard^(TM) screen in order to facilitate our discussion and debriefing session. The pre-service teachers took turns opening up their placemark, sharing their images, and describing what they learned about the context of their field experience. Two “lessons” emerged from our discussion: (1) There are unequal distribution of resources amongst communities, and (2) Schools, as a microcosms of the community, contain evidence of inclusivity and exclusivity.

Unequal Distribution of Resources Amongst Communities

By projecting and discussing the various school placements as a whole, the pre-service teachers were able to identify stark differences between schools and neighborhoods; communities often located less than 10 miles apart. One obvious marker were the types of restaurants and stores located by various schools. For example, Elisabeth noticed that her placement was located close to a Wholefoods[®] organic grocery store and affluent shopping mall while the high school she attended as a student is next to a Dollar Store[®] and Salvation Army[®] distribution center. These regions are separated by one interstate highway. Her observation inspired a whole-class discussion about housing and transportation patterns in this city, raised issues about who has access to which resources, and identified corporate marketing strategies that target different communities in different ways.

Two pre-service teachers presented images of parks located by their placement. Parks were considered community assets because they provide public access to recreation and were spaces where members of the community can interact. It was interesting to see the photographs together as they represented two different

Fig. 16.3 Sign posted at a park raises questions about prohibitive spaces



neighborhoods. Phil’s image of a park, located in an affluent community by the beach, featured expensive playground equipment, landscaped shrubbery, and elaborate water fountains. The image was filled with people enjoying the facilities. Sandra’s image represented a park located next to government-subsidized housing and focused on a set of empty basketball courts. Sandra captured a second image at the same park (Fig. 16.3).

She explained that this sign gives contradictory messages about this space. Sandra originally thought that the sign is inclusive since the message is written in three different languages, addressing people that do not speak English. However, the image elicited a reflection over issues surrounding surveillance. One of her classmates offered that people should never assume privacy in public spaces yet Phil confessed he did not see any warnings that the park by the beach was under surveillance. Sandra questioned whether members of the community would feel safe and welcomed to use this park after reading this sign. Or would they interpret this as a representation of “policing” that often excludes participation?

The pre-service teachers were primarily fixated on markers that distinguished between various social classes while ignoring racialized or gendered spaces. Yet one particular exchange complicated one-dimensional representations of particular communities. It began when Travis explained his shock over the differences in services provided at his placement, located in an affluent community on Miami

Beach, and the school where his colleague George was placed. George's school primarily served a region with low-income housing and was influenced by a historical legacy of racial segregation that resulted from previous attempts to red-line housing patterns. Travis knew that it "might not be realistic to think [he] would teach at a school that offered sailing lessons and where every student owned an iPad." However, he was unaware of the historical roots of housing segregation that impacted George's placement, and the impact of these practices on education, until he saw the images George displayed of his school. George included images of the chalkboards teachers used (i.e. instead of Smartboards), bathroom sinks that did not work, and a bucket that caught water from a leak in the roof. Throughout our discussion Travis identified the blatant disparities between these two schools. Within the same conversation George shared that he learned there is more to a school than "what is on the outside" when he volunteered to help a group of men put on a step-show for a school assembly. He explained that this club "provided a space of excitement, discipline, and hope" for the youth surrounded by "a physically ugly place." George concluded "sometimes individuals shape their own communities against the image of community that has been shaped for them."

Schools Contain Evidence of Inclusivity and Exclusivity

The whole class discussion also allowed pre-service teachers to examine similar observations occurring in multiple locations. These observations identified spaces where individuals were excluded or included in various spaces across the schools' campuses. For example, Michael's placemark displayed this image of an empty classroom. The caption read, "One disadvantage was that ELL students had a tendency to move towards the back" (Fig. 16.4).

In this observation, Michael indicates that classroom spaces can become sites of exclusivity for those with limited English proficiency. Many of the pre-service teachers shared they also observed ELL students sitting in the back of the class in their placements. As a class the pre-service teachers shared ideas for creating more inclusive classroom communities for ELLs. Their ideas included pairing each ELL with a native English-speaking peer and utilizing cooperative learning techniques.

Enrique shared an image where he captured the backs of students sitting together in a courtyard before the morning bell rang. He explained, "I am really glad you asked us to pay attention to which students interacted with which students outside of class and which spaces they occupied. When I really paid attention to this it seemed like certain students sat with students that were similar." I probed him to further explain his observation and he suggested that students in this image were all Cuban. He observed that they sat together under a tree while a group of "Asian students" sat in a different section. He also observed five African American male students that always "hung-out next to the stairs, talking to girls." Mercedes chimed in and said, "Yeah, I noticed that too. Like, in class students will talk to whoever. But when the bell-rings they group-up. I thought my group of friends was more inclu-

Fig. 16.4 Empty classroom sparks conversations about exclusivity of ELLs who sit in the back of the room



sive than that when I was in school. But when I think back, I guess that group was not very diverse.”

These observations of exclusivity prompted rich discussion about why people occupy certain spaces. The major question was whether this exclusivity was a choice or a reflection of larger societal forces. Some students thought that ELL students often move to the back of the class to avoid challenging work. Others shared their own personal experience being chastised by peers while learning English in this country and were sympathetic towards students that did not want to be further stigmatized. This discussion about homogenous peer groups allowed us the opportunity to examine Tatum’s (2003) work on racial identity formation and the application of these ideas to culturally relevant pedagogy.

One interesting conversation resulted when Jose projected an image of a yellow sign with the words “safe-space” that was placed outside of his cooperating teachers’ classroom. Some of his peers asked what that sign represented. Jose explained that the sign communicated to LGBTQ students that this classroom was a safe space and his cooperating teacher was there for support if they ever needed to speak with an adult. Natalia inquired why a school would need to advertise that spaces were “safe” and asked if there was a place on that campus that indicated it was safe for say “Christians.” Referencing our previous conversations concerning prohibitive spaces (Monmonier, 2013), Jose redirected her questions. Instead he asked, “Do

you think schools are perceived as inclusive or exclusive for the LGBTQ?” The class reflected on the potential risks that prohibitive spaces posed for LGBTQ students within high schools and their surrounding community; especially this particular community that is predominately conservative, Catholic, and Cuban. The pre-service teachers in this class also evaluated whether or not there was a similar risk to other groups of students in that school, e.g. based on ethnic identity or religious affiliation.

Discussion

The photo projects discussed here are examples of ways in which photography can be used in teacher education courses to explore the communities in which our students may live, work, and teach. Erin’s photowalk project was designed around the intention of trying to get her elementary social studies pre-service teachers to think critically about the community and the spaces that they occupied. Sarah’s photo-voice equity audit utilized photography to help secondary social studies pre-service teachers examine the spaces and communities where they teach. Both of these projects combined aspects of photomethodologies with participatory research to reinforce course content. While this marriage of methodologies can be used to examine a variety of social issues (See Eswald, 2001; Morrell & Duncan-Andrade, 2005; Wynne, 2012 for additional examples) the projects featured here were designed to help students examine various public versus private and inclusive versus prohibitive spaces. Finally, these projects highlight the power of using digital participatory research as a pedagogical strategy with pre-service teachers. This next section offers insights garnered from both projects as well as additional recommendations for using this strategy in social studies teacher preparation programs.

Things We Learned and Recommendations for Future Practice

Both projects fostered a critical consciousness amongst the pre-service teachers, as demonstrated through classroom conversations. Erin was able to present the pre-service teachers’ photographs back to them as they delved further into social studies content. As her students discussed economics, for example, they were able to look back on the pictures from the entire class to further explore economic concepts. Unfilled folders offered the opportunity to further review students’ understandings or misunderstandings of content. Sarah’s class used images to envision methods for utilizing more equitable pedagogies and creating more inclusive classroom communities.

In both projects the pre-service teachers realized that boundaries often overlap and are sometimes blurred. This was demonstrated when Erin's students examined the contradictions of public versus private spaces and rights to community spaces. In Sarah's project the pre-service teachers demonstrated new insights regarding the inequitable distribution of resources around the metropolitan area and inclusive and prohibitive spaces in schools. Students problematized the taken-for-granted notion that schools are automatically "safe" and "equitable" spaces. These practical experiences reinforced the need for the culturally relevant/responsive pedagogies discussed in class.

We believe these photography projects can be easily adapted for additional K-12 and teacher education contexts. Although Erin's project took place in an elementary social studies course, the project could be adapted for secondary social studies courses. The simplicity of the project- i.e. walk through a neighborhood and take pictures with a mobile phone camera – makes it attractive for all educators. To upload the photographs, Erin recommends using an online photo-sharing website and providing the password for the students in the class. Erin facilitated her photowalk in the spring so that it would be warm enough to walk comfortably through town. However, she recommends conducting the photowalk earlier in the semester to allow students more time to review the photographs throughout the course.

Although Sarah has utilized the Google Earth technology with elementary students, she realizes that K-5 students may not be able to create their own placemarks. Elementary school students can use photography to document prohibitive versus inclusive spaces. For example they can use digital photography to examine which students play in certain spaces on the playground or eat together during lunch periods. They can create photovoice projects to raise awareness of social inequities within their schools. Finally, they can use these images to explore and reflect on the implications prohibitive and inclusive spaces have for the community surrounding them.

By using the community as a laboratory for learning, these projects reinforced Maguth and Hilburn's (2011) assertion that place-based education reinforces social studies concepts. The pre-service teachers in Erin's course identified local and global connections by discussing their dependence on gasoline and Sarah's students discussed implications of movement and migration when outlining strategies for supporting ELLs, students often marginalized in classrooms. Both projects asked students to reconsider what it meant to be an active or informed citizen within and outside of the classroom. Finally by examining private versus public and inclusive versus exclusive spaces the pre-service teachers from both cohorts were asked to outline methods for creating more diverse, prosperous, and equitable locations. These activities served as examples of the "real-world" experiences teachers can structure in order to help students re/examine their communities and the roles they play in shaping these spaces.

Conclusions

Overall both projects allowed the pre-service teachers in our programs the opportunity to examine crucial and previously taken-for-granted aspects of community. Using digital participatory research methods we were able to engage in research with our students, rather than on them. Instead of introducing students to course content via rote memorization, these experiences offered the pre-service teachers the opportunity to engage in the problem-posing and practical experience necessary to reflect on and adapt their understanding of course concepts and issues. Through this process we hope to demonstrate the power of using digital participatory research to address a variety of social studies issues in all K-16 classrooms.

- Notes**
1. I want to thank Ryan Visser for his advice on using Google Earth in a social studies classroom as well as the idea to use a template of html coding with students.
 2. All names in this chapter are pseudonyms.

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Chapter 17

Place-Based Social Studies Teacher Education: Learning to Teach for Ecological Citizenship While Investigating Local Waste Issues

Mark T. Kissling

Introduction: Placing Ourselves

Recall for a moment the last object that you “threw away” (i.e., disposed of). What was it? Who or what made it? When and where did you get it? How did you use it? Why do you no longer need it? Where did you dispose of it? What is its future now that it is no longer with you?

The last thing that I threw away was a tissue. As I type these words, the pollen swirling in the air on the University Park campus of Penn State University (PSU), where I work, is ubiquitous and overwhelming. As a result, I have had a runny nose for a couple days. When I entered my office this morning, I grabbed the tissue, blew my nose, and then tossed it in a metal can next to my desk. A year ago this can was my trash can, but now, thanks to a new PSU initiative called “No Can Do,” it is my daily compost can. At the end of each day, I dump the contents of the can into a larger, covered compost receptacle in a “waste station” in the hallway outside of my office. I also dispose of any other waste that collects in my office (like newspaper or cardboard boxes) in the hallway station at the end of the day. From that waste station, then, PSU’s custodial and waste management workers see to it that all items except for what is in the receptacle marked “Landfill” are recycled and reused.

The premise of “No Can Do” is simple: enlist faculty, staff, and students in an effort to divert waste away from landfills and into “recycling streams.” In doing this, it implicates all people at PSU, making *us* responsible for *our* waste until that waste goes into the stations in the hallways. This kind of thinking about our waste places us within communities: a land community of soils, waters, plants, and animals, following Leopold’s (1966) notion of “the land ethic”; a community of people; a community of operations; and so forth. Whatever it is that we throw away is no longer

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meaningful in just a singular moment. Rather, the object's "life" stretches back to its creation and forward to its reuse, recycling, or point at which it no longer serves any purpose (e.g., sitting in a landfill). Thinking about the life of our waste makes us see ourselves in relation to all that surrounds us, both known and unknown. It *places* us.

Social Studies Focused on Ecological Citizenship

This chapter has two objectives. The first is to argue for an earthen conception of citizenship in social studies education, what I refer to as "ecological citizenship." The second objective is to tell a story about a social studies teacher educator (me) and social studies pre-service teachers (my students) learning to teach for ecological citizenship through place-based learning. It centers on a tour of the waste program at PSU. It is a story that is still in its early chapters, as it will continue to develop in the coming years, but I share the beginning of it here as a call for social studies teacher educators to prioritize learning and teaching ecological citizenship (Kissling & Calabrese Barton, 2013).

In short, an ecological citizen recognizes the importance and interconnectivity of all living beings (not just humans) and their communities. This type of citizen understands that such beings and communities are linked in complex ways—across times and places—and acts accordingly, responsibly and thoughtfully, seeking just living conditions for all. This conception of citizenship is an expansion of a long and rich theorization of citizenship in and out of the social studies literature base (e.g., Kahne & Middaugh, 2008; Knight Abowitz & Harnish, 2006; Parker, 1996; Rubin, 2010; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). However, and importantly, following Houser (2009), ecological sensitivity—and the earth—is rendered, at best, implicit in this citizenship literature. Bringing the citizenship theorizing of ecologically-minded writers like Wendell Berry (1990, 2003) and David Orr (1992, 1994, 2005) to social studies, I argue here for ecological citizenship—which fully includes the important political and social citizenship constructs already well articulated in the social studies field—to be understood as what is meant by the term *citizenship*.

Rethinking Citizenship Education...Now

There is important context for rethinking citizenship education at the present time. In 2013, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) released a position statement entitled "Revitalizing Civic Learning in Our Schools" (National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS], 2013). In the statement, NCSS affirms its decades-long stance that the main purpose of social studies education is creating effective citizens. After outlining characteristics of effective citizens and effective civic education, it issues a "call to action": educators, policymakers, legislators, and the

public in general must “prioritize civic learning as a primary function of America’s schools” (p. 159). Social studies teachers, NCSS asserts, are central to this action.

The statement’s explicit message is clear. Schools, and particularly social studies teachers, need to renew their focus on civic education. An implicit message is that social studies teacher educators must teach new teachers to take up this important work. Not surprisingly, given the social studies literature base, the statement does not feature any explicit ecological concern. It is overtly moral, political, and social, but it does not express human regard for the non-human world. This omission is particularly troubling as the issue of climate change becomes ever more central to mainstream public and educational discourses (Klein, 2014; McKibben, 2012; Melillo, Richmond, & Yohe, 2014; Rethinking Schools, 2011). Social studies education, and education writ large, must attend to the immense reality of climate change since one of the main citizenship issues (if not *the* main citizenship issue) of our time is the challenge of sustaining a livable earth when current consumption practices are altering the (in)habitability of the planet (Melillo et al., 2014).

Place-Based Social Studies Teacher Education

The basic premise of “place-based education” is that learning starts with the surrounding context in which a learner resides. That is, no learning occurs in a vacuum; all learning is placed. While the term *place-based education* is relatively new in the educational literature base, most of its central tenets have been circulating in education for many years. For example, over a century ago John Dewey wrote a chapter titled “Waste in Education” in *The School and Society* (1899). This chapter discussed how school “isolated” students from their surroundings:

When we think that we all live on the earth, that we live in an atmosphere, that our lives are touched at every point by the influences of the soil, flora, and fauna, by considerations of light and heat, and then think of what the school study of geography has been, we have a typical idea of the gap existing between the everyday experiences of the child, and the isolated material supplied in such large measure in the school. (p. 78)

Later Dewey writes, “We live in a world where all sides are bound together. All studies grow out of relations in the one great common world. When the child lives in varied but concrete and active relationship to this common world, his studies are naturally unified” (p. 88). Thus, it is essential for a learner to study (i.e., “ecology”) and learn to manage (i.e., “economy”) her surroundings (e.g., Kissling & Rogers, 2014).

Dewey is not an aberration. One need not explore for very long the writings of any prominent educational theorist before coming upon pedagogical ideas rooted in the places of learners. This is because *place* is primary to human existence (Casey, 1996), despite human tendency to overlook place in daily living (Geertz, 1996).

The movement of place-based education has grown considerably in the past two decades. This growth has occurred largely in response to the proliferation of

high-stakes testing and accountability practices that are coupled with curriculum standardization at non-local levels (Gruenewald & Smith, 2008). As students have been metaphorically displaced by their school experiences that ask them to memorize and study knowledge from distant places, or knowledge that is so decontextualized as to seem placeless, they have been disconnected from the literal places that they inhabit.

Greg Smith and David Sobel (2010) trace the relatively recent emergence of place-based education and, in the process, give definition to it. Place-based education is focused on students' cultivation of roots within their places, communities, and regions, not "the cultivation of individual talents and career trajectories" (p. 22). This perspective comes, in part, out of the work of David Orr (1992, 1994). Orr was involved in crafting the comprehensive definition of place-based education put forth by the Rural School and Community Trust:

Place-based education is learning that is rooted in what is local—the unique history, environment, culture, economy, literature, and art of a particular place. The community provides the context for learning, student work focuses on community needs and interests, and community members serve as resources and partners in every aspect of teaching and learning. This local focus has the power to engage students academically, pairing real-world relevance with intellectual rigor, while promoting genuine citizenship and preparing people to respect and live well in any community they choose. (Quoted in Smith & Sobel, 2010, p. 23)

Of particular importance in this definition, Smith and Sobel note that place-based education is inherently interdisciplinary and it casts education as an ongoing process that is not simply specific to students in a school. Rather, all community members are engaged in the educational endeavor, and the school is merely one setting for inquiry. For this reason, Smith and Sobel often couple "place-based education" with "community-based education." Additionally, thinking particularly about social studies education, I highlight in this definition the way in which citizenship is conceptualized as local (at least primarily), community-based, and justice-oriented.

At the same time as the Rural Trust's definition of place-based education emerged, Nel Noddings (2005) echoed the need for education to be rooted in places. In doing this, she raises the "keyword" of sustainability, implicating it as a component of effective "global citizenship." An essential point, here, and one that Smith and Sobel (2010; Sobel, 2005) also raise, is how local study positions students to make sense of what is non-local to them. "It is hoped that as students study and write about their own homeplaces, they will become receptive to the stories of people in other places" (Noddings, 2005, p. 64). A local focus does not obscure the fact that different localities are interconnected with each other.

Noddings' attention to the connection between place and sustainability is not singular, and in the past decade, it has grown within the work of teacher education (Nolet, 2009, 2013; Somerville & Green, 2012; United States Teacher Education for Sustainable Development Network, 2013). Further, it has begun to move ever so slightly into social studies (teacher) education (Crocco, Marri, & Chandler, 2013; Resor, 2010). It is this intersection of social studies, teacher education, place, and sustainability where I locate myself and situate my students as social studies teachers.

The Waste Curriculum in Teacher Education

Since 2010, I have taught social studies methodologies courses at PSU for elementary and middle-level pre-service teachers. Students typically take these courses in their senior fall, in a block with two other subject area methodologies courses and a field placement course that has them “pre-student teaching” in an area school 2–3 days of the week. Since 2012, the sections of these courses that I have taught have featured the “PSU Waste Tour” as a part of their curricula. Since 2013, all students in this block of classes, even ones that I do not teach, have taken the PSU Waste Tour. I have taught a version of this Waste Tour curriculum five times now and I plan to continue doing so in future sections that I teach. Here, I focus primarily on the first time my students and I took the Waste Tour and connected waste issues to the learning and teaching of social studies.

Figure 17.1 is a picture of the entrance to the classroom in which I teach, known as the “Social Studies Lab.” It is where pre-service teachers in PSU’s teacher education programs on the University Park campus take their social studies methodologies courses. I took the picture in March of 2013 and my purpose was to document the waste receptacles in the room.

Fig. 17.1 Entrance to the Social Studies Lab, 224 Chambers Building, 2013



The picture shows the only two places to dispose of waste properly in the Social Studies Lab. Tucked immediately inside the glass pane next to the classroom door is a blue recycling container with a narrow rectangular opening at the top. A transparent plastic bag fits the inside. On the front of the container there is a large, white recycling symbol in the center, and there are two stickers. The first, near the top, reads “PENN STATE RECYCLES” in big, bold white letters. The background of this sticker is dark blue (i.e., PSU’s colors are blue and white) and there are wavy red and white stripes symbolizing the U.S. flag in the bottom right corner. The second sticker is at the center of the container’s face, over top of the white recycling symbol. It reads “MIXED OFFICE PAPER” in thin green lines and has an entirely white background. The other waste receptacle, which sits next to the recycling container but sticks out from the wall two or three times beyond its counterpart, is a dark gray barrel. A black plastic bag fits the inside of the barrel and tightly rises over the large circular opening. This barrel, unlike the recycling container, is not marked.

In this simple picture lies a host of explicit, implicit, and null messages about waste in the Social Studies Lab. Elliot Eisner’s work on the three types of curriculum that schools teach (1985) is helpful in understanding these messages. The “explicit curriculum” is the set of intended lessons—outlined by authorities such as the teacher or policymakers beyond the classroom—which a student is supposed to learn. The “implicit curriculum” is what the students learn in addition to, and sometimes instead of, the explicit curriculum; it is unintended, or at least not expressly stated. The “null curriculum” is what students learn from the absence of certain ideas, objects, events, people, and so forth.

Returning to Image 1, I ask my students to give voice to the explicit messages in our classroom about waste. *What do these two receptacles tell you about waste?* The answers to this question are pretty basic. The large receptacles indicate the most obvious message: waste should be discarded into the receptacles. Further, this should be done particularly as one enters and exits the classroom. Beyond mere discarding of waste, this scene teaches that paper waste should be put in the blue recycling container.

These responses to my question come pretty easily. I suggest that we can think of them as aspects of the “explicit waste curriculum” in our classroom. They are the messages that PSU and its custodial staff want us to learn. Then I ask my students to think beyond the explicit curriculum, to the implicit curriculum. As this term (implicit curriculum) is typically new to my students (but not the thinking that undergirds it), responses to this second question are voiced more slowly. If more context is needed, I ask how the receptacles compare to each other.

Aspects of the implicit curriculum of any text, event, or place often seem obvious after they have been named. One implicit waste message in my classroom is that there is only one thing worth recycling: mixed office paper. This limited message is troubling, and I should note that there is not much mixed office paper in my classroom. All students are required to have laptop computers, thus much of what we might do with paper is digitized. Furthermore, I often ask students to keep assignments or activities that require paper since we often return to these materials throughout the semester.

If there is only one type of item worth recycling, then it stands to reason that all other waste items belong in the unmarked receptacle. This second implicit message is also taught by the relative sizes of the receptacles. The gray barrel is massive. Jutting out from the wall, it nearly impedes anyone walking in or out of the classroom. Further its giant opening lined by a black garbage bag is a metaphorical black hole that sucks everything its way. Students and faculty alike have experienced catchall containers like this throughout their lives and little to no conscious action is needed to discern where to discard waste. They know that it is for “trash.”

Once we are thinking critically in the manner necessitated by identifying elements of the implicit curriculum, my students sometimes probe much further. For example, the “PENN STATE RECYCLES” sticker at the top of the recycling container becomes a fascinating thing to consider. Why name Penn State directly? Why implicate the United States via the flag symbol? What is being said about recycling and loyalty to (and citizenship of) the university and the nation?

Sometimes this discussion jumps to identifying aspects of the null curriculum, although not always. In instances when it does not, I start this line of thought by asking, *What is not here that perhaps should be?* (While consideration of the implicit curriculum massages students’ thinking, taking up the null curriculum liberates it. Almost anything is a possibility, but whatever is considered as a possibility needs to be worked through.) The immediate response to my question is: containers for other forms of recyclable materials. *Okay, like what?* Plastic drink bottles. My students consume these bottles at a far greater rate than mixed office paper (at least until we learn about waste issues pertaining to plastic water bottles; see: Leonard, 2010; Sheffield & Weiland, 2012). Another useful container would collect newspapers, especially as I ask my students to read local and national newspapers daily. The students then list additional items: aluminum cans, glass jars, miscellaneous plastics, and Styrofoam.

My students do not, however, typically mention the need for a compost receptacle in the classroom (i.e., a place to discard organic materials that will naturally decompose). This may be a result of a building policy prohibiting food in classrooms. To place a compost container in the classrooms would violate the policy. However, compost becomes an issue when we think beyond our classroom setting.

After we have spent ample time considering the explicit, implicit, and null waste curricula of our classroom, I move us to consider the context surrounding the classroom. We are, following Dewey (1899), not isolated from surrounding context. On the way to our classroom from any entrance to the building, students pass by a row of waste receptacles like the one pictured in Fig. 17.2. We take a quick “field trip” to one of these in our building. *What are the explicit, implicit, and null waste curricula here?* We note how there are many receptacles, only one of which is labeled “Trash,” and it is the same size as the others. Many of the recyclable items that the students mentioned in the classroom minutes before could be appropriately recycled here. Additionally, there is a small bucket for used batteries that sits atop two of the receptacles.

It is interesting to compare some of the implicit messages in the hallway versus the messages that were specific to our classroom. All of the containers are labeled.



Fig. 17.2 Waste Containers in Hallway, Chambers Building, 2013

The trash container is the same exact size as the others. The hallway's implicit curriculum seems more progressive than the classroom's. However, the hallway's null curriculum reveals a large concern: no container for compost exists. Unlike classrooms in the building, food and drink are permitted in the hallways, or at least there is no overt policy against it. Since the building houses a number of classrooms, and given the fact that a large campus eatery is a short walk from the building, sizable amounts of food and drink are consumed in the hallways of the building. With no place to discard food waste appropriately, consumers are left to throw the uneaten food into the trash. As a final hallway question, I ask, "To what degree is it a problem that there is no place for compost?"

We head back to our classroom with significant momentum. We have an analytical tool in Eisner's three curricula that we can apply to all matters of social studies learning and teaching. We have a real context to examine the nature of citizenship: food, which we all consume, and waste, which we all create. We are primed for digging deeper into the places that we inhabit and considering how we can teach mindful of the places that we inhabit.

Before I move further, I am ecstatic to note, here, that the teaching plan that I have shared in this section has been hampered by recent developments. The Social Studies Lab no longer contains the two waste receptacles in Image 1. In fact, it no longer includes any waste receptacles. Since PSU unveiled the "No Can Do" program (that I mention above), classrooms no longer feature waste receptacles. Faculty and students are asked to take our waste with us when we exit the classroom. We can discard it at waste stations similar to the one in Image 2, although improved since there are options to discard a greater variety of materials, including compost. A man named Al Matyasovsky led the rollout of No Can Do. As we proceed further into our investigation of our shared place and teaching for ecological citizenship, my students meet Matyasovsky when we take the PSU Waste Tour.

The PSU Waste Tour

I first met Al Matyasovsky in the early fall of 2012 at Park Forest Elementary School in State College, just a couple miles from my PSU campus. The school was beginning an initiative to better manage its waste and a number of people inside and outside of the school community were brought together to brainstorm and discuss plans. I was asked to attend because of my focus on teaching and learning for ecological citizenship. Matyasovsky was invited because he runs PSU's waste program.

Matyasovsky is a supervisor within Central Support Services of PSU's Office of Physical Plant. His job is to manage waste at University Park, the largest campus (i.e., roughly 46,000 students) of the University's 24 campuses across Pennsylvania. In 2009, Matyasovsky was tasked with the job of moving PSU toward becoming a "zero waste institution." Zero waste means that no discarded materials outlive a potential use. In other words, all materials are spared a final destination in a landfill (or another endpoint) in favor of direct or modified reuse. This is a cyclical system, with the materials never exiting the circular process of use and reuse; it is truly the notion of *re-cycling* and it applies to almost every kind of waste.

Even prior to PSU's directed plan to move toward zero waste, Matyasovsky supervised the campus' waste program. When that program started about 10 years ago, according to Matyasovsky, people on campus had a host of questions about proper sorting of waste and the processes after it entered a receptacle. As one way of addressing these questions, Matyasovsky began leading a 2-h field trip around campus that weaved among a number of waste-related facilities. This became the PSU Waste Tour. Anyone could participate, from the campus or beyond, and there was no charge since it was viewed foremost as outreach to the community. Not only was the tour highlighting PSU's waste efforts, but more importantly, it was also educating the public about waste and the best ways to manage it.

In the 10 years that Matyasovsky has led these tours, 12,000 people have "survived" it. (At the end of the tour, each person receives a button that reads "Penn State Recycles" and "I survived Al's waste tour.") He averages 60 tours a year, with 20 people on each tour. He will drive around one individual in his car or give bus tours. Tour "survivors" have ranged from elementary school students to seniors that live in a nearby care facility, as well as groups from outside of the PSU/State College community.

Although I had not heard of the PSU Waste Tour before I met Matyasovsky, I was pleasantly surprised to learn that a few of my students did know of it. At the present time, I have taken five sets of students on the PSU Waste Tour, and I plan to continue doing so. When our group does not fill a bus, I extend an invitation to faculty, staff, and student colleagues in the hope that as many people as possible will be introduced to this unique and educational view of PSU.

My First PSU Waste Tour

My first PSU Waste Tour took place 8 weeks into the semester, 4 weeks after I met Matyasovsky. Since I had not previously taken the tour, and as a host of other activities were already going on in our course, the tour was optional for my 50 students. When I first introduced the tour to my students, I taught a less-developed version of the waste curriculum lesson described above. I then encouraged students to consider taking the tour in order to complete one of their “Professional Learning Activities” required of them over the course of the semester. (In these “PLAs,” students choose an area of interest in which to develop their social studies pedagogy, often through some kind of distinct experience.) Six of my social studies students signed up for the tour, and the rest of the slots went to students from other courses and faculty and staff in my department.

In the days leading up to the tour, I emailed the text of a short essay by Wendell Berry (1990) to the participants and asked them to read the essay as a way of preparing for the tour. The essay, titled “Waste,” is brief but impactful. Berry begins with a description of his farm in Kentucky strewn with debris that the Kentucky River has brought from polluters upstream and deposited on his land. He writes, “As a country person, I often feel that I am on the bottom of the waste problem” (p. 126). He continues, though, by complicating his positionality as solely a victim: “Of course, my sometimes impression that we live on the receiving end of this problem is false, for country people contribute their full share. The truth is that we Americans, all of us, have become a kind of human trash, living our lives in the midst of a ubiquitous damned mess of which we are at once the victims and the perpetrators” (p. 127). All of us are implicated in the waste problem.

Berry’s charge that we are a kind of human trash can be an eye-opener. It forces us to face up to the many ways in which we further the waste problem. It also forces us to consider how our actions “upstream” impact those “downstream,” particularly those humans *and* non-humans that are removed from our senses. At the end of the essay, Berry speaks directly to those of us engaged in the work of schools: “We have...not only a desecrated, ugly, and dangerous country in which to live until we are in some manner poisoned by it, and a constant and now generally accepted problem of unemployed or unemployable workers, but also classrooms full of children who lack the experience and discipline of fundamental human tasks...” (p. 128). Berry charges teacher educators, among others, to face the waste problem.

Student Pre-tour Thoughts

Two of the students that signed up for this initial tour, Marcia and Cris, decided to construct their PLA assignment around pre-tour and post-tour reflections, with the latter leading into a discussion of how the tour could be used as a resource in the elementary classrooms in which they were “pre-student teaching.” Marcia started

her pre-tour reflection: “To be completely, bare-bones honest, waste does not affect me in a personal way. By this I mean that I do not think about waste; waste does not bother me, and I am not active in cleaning up the environment.” She went on to note that she does try to recycle some of the materials and items that she uses, but then she questioned whether one person could, as she framed it, “preserve the environment.” At the conclusion of her reflection she acknowledged a feeling that she did not know enough about waste management. “I want to help and I want to learn—I just don’t know how.” As she typed these words, she was sitting near a trash can in the student union that featured a sticker: “STOP: Can any of this be composted?” Her response to that question was “I don’t know.”

Similar to Marcia, Cris began her pre-tour remarks by noting, “I don’t have a good background on recycling and waste management.” However, especially after reading Berry’s essay, she said that she was committed to learn more from the tour and subsequent research. She then raised an important caution. So often, she said, she is captivated by an experience like reading Berry’s piece, or going on the PSU Waste Tour (she presumed). Yet, it is hard to maintain her enthusiasm as life unfolds with new experiences and considerations. She would need to stay focused on waste long after this intense experience. Turning to her pedagogy, she envisioned that if she were to take her students on the Waste Tour or something like it, she would need to create a long-term project that would help them sustain their interest and efforts after the tour. Cris concluded by saying, “I don’t want to admit that I’m really not educated about waste and recycling,” but she imagined that the tour would go a long way to educating her about these issues.

Taking the Tour

A blue school bus sat outside our building. We boarded it and took our seats. For the next 2 h, we made a series of stops at different places on the campus. While some of these places were entirely familiar to us, others were completely new. We did not realize it at the time, but we were exposed to a cross-section of the entire campus, one that is brought together by the issue of waste. We quickly came to see that the PSU that we know is a small fraction of the larger whole, and issues central to our lives on campus extended into the lives of all others on campus. Now, after taking a number of waste tours with Matyasovsky, I have come to understand that he is a “place-maker,” a person who brings together the many different campus communities within the larger campus community.

One of the first things Matyasovsky explained on the tour was that his focus is “municipal solid waste.” Municipal solid waste, according to the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (2014, paragraph 1), “consists of everyday items we use and then throw away, such as product packaging, grass clippings, furniture, clothing, bottles, food scraps, newspapers, appliances, paint, and batteries. This comes from our homes, schools, hospitals, and businesses.” Matyasovsky and his crew do not

work with highly toxic substances or flammable chemicals; they work with the mundane, unremarkable, everyday items that comprise campus life.

After establishing the focus of the tour, Matyasovsky quickly turned to PSU's story on its march toward zero waste. A key word in this story is "diversion." That is, diverting trash from boarding a truck and traveling 72 miles to the closest landfill, to waste streams for recyclables and compostables. If items can be diverted from the landfill, they can cycle back into patterns of use (not to mention the endless process of gas-guzzling trucks to the landfill can be slowed, or even halted). Throughout this waste story are the names and actions of countless people and groups, many of whom are students. The tour is a pedagogical experience as the participants learn about waste and waste management at PSU, but it is also a call to action. How one can be involved, and how one's small actions connect to larger actions with positive results, is taught. If you are in need of a chair, a campus shop called Lion Surplus has cheap, previously-used-on-campus chairs. If you are looking for a rug or a computer cord, the annual "Trash to Treasure" event finds new homes and users for these used items. The tour ends at PSU's composting facility, as row after row after row of decomposing organic matter slowly turns from trash into a finished compost, much of which will be used to plant flowers around campus.

Student Post-tour Thoughts

After the tour, Marcia, who prior to the tour said that she did not feel immediately affected by waste and called into question whether her personal actions could make any significant difference, began her reflection: "The Waste Tour was amazing! It was not what I expected at all. I thought it was going to be a tour of how much waste we produce, and how terrible it is, but it was more of a positive tour of what we are doing to preserve the environment." She reflected on many of the tour's various stops, sharing facts that she learned from Matyasovsky. One fact that particularly impressed Marcia was that an 8-person crew handles the transport and sorting of all of the municipal solid waste on campus. Later in her reflection she returned to this crew: "I am so thankful for the eight members of this waste management crew who take care of me and the rest of Penn State's students to make sure that we're living happily and healthily every day." Even though she did not meet these eight people, learn their names, or introduce herself to them, the very knowledge of the work that they do made her think differently. "This made me realize that I am a part of something so much bigger on campus. When I put something in the recycling or compost bins, I am adding to the compost and recycling totals. I am making a difference and should be more conscious of making a difference with everything that I dispose of."

Similar to Marcia's experience, the tour was not what Cris expected. She, too, found it much more positive than she anticipated. "I can't say how optimistic and happy I am that this work is going on at Penn State." But while Cris thought the tour was "great," there were some aspects of the experience that she wished to change.

First, she anticipated learning concrete, practical information like which materials can go in which waste receptacles. For example, could a used tissue be composted, or could the cap from a plastic bottle of soda be recycled with the bottle? These questions were not answered on the tour. She noted, though, that it was not that these were insignificant topics but that the tour was more about PSU's waste management operations. It was about what the campus was doing as opposed to how an individual could better contribute. This led Cris to wish that she had researched these practical matters of waste management prior to the tour. "I needed some more basic knowledge before the tour," she said, and this was certainly helpful feedback to me for my future planning. The second aspect that Cris wanted to change about the tour was the fact that the entire 2 h were spent on the bus. When we stopped at Lion Surplus, she wanted to go inside. When we came to the massive composting center, she wanted to walk up to the compost, inspect it, and smell it. The tour was informative but it was not as experiential as she had hoped. If she took her elementary students on the tour, she would incorporate a set of off-bus experiences that could be coupled with a distilled version of Matyasovsky's on-bus commentary.

Ensuing and Future Tours

I did not specifically prepare for the first tour in class since only a fraction of the students attended it. Nonetheless, the six students that did go on the tour had important non-waste-specific context for teaching social studies for ecological citizenship. We had read William Stanley's article "Social Studies and the Social Order: Transmission or Transformation?" (2005) as we thought about the purposes of social studies education. Then we read NCSS' current (at that time) position statement on the teaching of citizenship (National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS], 2001). We followed this discussion that located citizenship education squarely in the domain of social studies education by considering Joel Westheimer and Joseph Kahne's (2004) construct for three kinds of "good" citizens. While none of these texts explicitly raised ecological concerns with respect to citizenship, we had a strong foundation about social studies and citizenship with which to interact with waste issues and the Waste Tour.

In preparation for the tours that have followed, and as I plan for the upcoming ones, I have maintained a similar entry into our semester, despite the fact that I now teach a Middle Level (Grades 4-8) social studies methodologies course instead of an Elementary Level (Grades K-6) one. We read Stanley, the new NCSS position statement on the teaching of citizenship, and Westheimer and Kahne. However, as we read these, I build explicitly toward the place of "the ecological" within social studies. I have added to our reading a piece that I wrote with a colleague (Kissling & Calabrese Barton, 2013) that considers teaching for ecological citizenship in the context of a local proposal for a new power plant in Lansing, Michigan. I also teach a variation of the waste curriculum lesson that is described above, framing waste explicitly as a citizenship issue and a social studies issue.

Another change is that all of my students now go on the tour, and we take the tour during class time. That is, the tour is part of my course's explicit curriculum, no longer relegated to the implicit curriculum. In the immediate days leading up to the tour, I still assign my students to read Berry's essay, but I now couple it with a viewing of a video called "The Story of Stuff," which was created by Annie Leonard (2007). The 21-min video stars Leonard and features animation in the white background next to and behind her. It begins with Leonard holding an iPod and asking, "Do you have one of these?" She then says, "I get a little obsessed with mine. In fact, I get a little obsessed with all my stuff." Next comes the question that drives the video: "Have you ever wondered where all the stuff we buy comes from and where it goes [tossing her iPod off camera] when we throw it out?" Leonard's "story of stuff" begins here with the "materials economy," a five-step process involving extraction, production, distribution, consumption, and disposal. Animated icons that symbolize each step pop up above her, with arrows pointing from one to another, making a directional line. She notes that "this system looks like it's fine," but she counters by saying "that is not the whole explanation" to the story of stuff. Calling the materials economy a "system in crisis," she warns, "you cannot run a linear system on a finite planet indefinitely."

If the graphic of the materials economy is representative of an explicit curriculum of stuff, Leonard's analysis that follows lays out elements of the implicit and null curricula of stuff. She walks through each step of the process, noting what is missing (like the presence of workers) from the common depiction of each step. She is particularly mindful of the impact that the materials economy has on those with muted or silent voices, humans and non-humans alike, and the injustices perpetrated against them.

The video is relatively short but it is fast-paced and crammed with facts, statistics, terms, and ideas. As I have taught this video multiple times now, I have learned to prepare my students for the pace and nature of the video prior to viewing it, and then after seeing it I have learned to build in ample discussion time in order to process the arguments and perspectives at play within it. Additionally, the Fall 2013 issue of *Yes! Magazine*, which is devoted to "The Human Cost of Stuff" and features Annie Leonard on the cover, is a helpful primer prior to viewing the video.

In every course, I am always taken by how Berry's essay and Leonard's video are provocative. They are critical of an assortment of common contemporary practices, many of which my students and I partake. This leaves us, for the most part, in an uncomfortable pedagogical place going into the Waste Tour, and this individual and collective vulnerability has proven to be fertile ground that is tilled by the tour. Most of my students, like Marcia and Cris, exit the tour uplifted by PSU's waste program and wanting to participate in it more actively.

From the Tour to Social Studies Pedagogy

The specifics of the PSU Waste Tour are important in the context of my course because both my students and I spend a large chunk of our current lives on PSU's campus, during which we generate waste. Further, our university has made waste an important issue, through initiatives like "No Can Do" and the PSU Waste Tour. In this sense, waste is a small part of the explicit curriculum on campus, where we are *placed*.

In addition to an investigation of where we live, the tour also raises questions about what it means to be a member of different communities. Waste does not adhere to boundaries (e.g., emissions from a coal power plant travel where they want). Thinking deeply about waste implicates living beings both near and far, seen and unseen. Decisions about waste cannot just attend to what happens locally (i.e., "upstream") because any action is tied to impacts in other locals (i.e., "downstream"). For a quick study of this, consider trash from PSU's campus that is trucked 72 miles to the landfill. Think of the people implicated in that process, from those at PSU to those who handle and transport the waste to those that live near the landfill, humans and non-humans alike. Think of the watershed around the landfill and the many beings that rely in some way on that water. Think of the fuel source that powers the transporting truck, where that fuel comes from, who it impacts, and so forth. The ties extend outward from one little action of throwing away trash in the hallway outside of my office.

These ties, inherently ecological in nature—but also economic, moral, political, and social—are the basis of systems thinking, another tenet of place-based education. Wendell Berry (1981) refers to this as "solving for pattern," addressing the integrity of an issue, not isolating one factor from the many other factors that contextualize and influence it. In social studies education, our best teaching facilitates student inquiry that brings together all of the disciplinary tools of anthropology, civics, economics, geography, history, psychology, and sociology on a topic of particular importance, what Harold Rugg (1941) called a "problem of democracy."

I offer that place-based social studies teacher education has a two-step process. First, facilitate local learning experiences that emphasize pre-service teachers' citizenship in the places that they inhabit, in the process reflecting on how all people, including students, are embedded in rich ecological contexts. Second, build a notion of social studies pedagogy that creates local learning opportunities about citizenship similar to the opportunities that the pre-service teachers experience in their teacher education courses. The idea is to dwell in an experiential inquiry of what it means to be a person in *this* place and at *this* time, knowing that these particularities are tied to the particularities of other places and other times. Along these lines, John Dewey wrote years ago in *The Public and its Problems*:

It is said, and said truly, that for the world's peace it is necessary that we understand the peoples of foreign lands. How well do we understand, I wonder, our next door neighbors?... The chances of regard for distant peoples being effective as long as there is no close neighborhood experience to bring with it insight and understanding of neighbors do not seem better... Democracy must begin at home, and its home is the neighborly community. (1954, p. 213)

Democracy implicates citizenship. If citizenship begins at home, social studies education, and by extension social studies teacher education, must also begin at home.

Waste might be a salient issue in other “homes”—and hopefully it is—but it also might not be. Regardless of the prominence of waste at *your* university or in *your*-community, I am certain that there are salient issues that are specific to *your*place. Likewise, (ecological) citizenship matters contextualize any PK-12 school, by nature of its *placement* somewhere. For example, here in State College, there is a growing community concern over the issue of affordable housing. Every local school is impacted by this housing crunch, whether it involves where students, teachers, staff, or community members live. It is an issue specific to the place of State College. Other issues impact other places. An hour north and west of State College, students attend schools that sit near hydraulic fracturing drill sites where natural gas is extracted from the earth. The boom of this industry has created a host of citizenship issues, from concerns over water contamination to an influx of dollars into local economies. Whatever the issues of a place, they are where the learning (and teaching) begins.

Conclusion

I have undertaken two objectives in this chapter. First, I have sought to argue for a prominent place of ecological citizenship in social studies education, especially when existing social studies frameworks for citizenship often obscure or omit ecological aspects of living. For such a shift to take hold in schools, it follows that social studies teacher education must attend to this commitment to an earthen notion of citizenship. I suggest that a viable avenue for social studies teacher education to take up this task is through place-based learning. That is, by dwelling in the place(s) that contextualize the lives and learning of pre-service teachers enrolled in social studies methodologies courses.

Second, digging into a specific example of place-based social studies teacher education, I have storied how I teach pre-service social studies teachers to teach for ecological citizenship via PSU’s Waste Tour. While visiting familiar and unfamiliar places on campus, the tour is eye opening—challenging, humbling, and inspiring—for students (and myself). It redefines and complicates what kind of place PSU is for all of us. At the same time, as students are teaching in their field placements alongside of my course, they experience the tour through teaching lenses. Thus, they “read” the tour for its pedagogical possibilities in relation to the classrooms where they are teaching. As teachers teach influenced by the experiences of their lives, such place-based learning is imperative to future place-based teaching.

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Part VI

Rethinking Research, Policy, and Advocacy

Thinking about our purposes for teaching social studies and ways we might rethink our courses, fieldwork and partnerships are important programmatic concerns to pay close attention to as teacher educators. However, as teacher educators, we do not work in a vacuum. The authors in this section give us four ways to rethink our roles as researchers and our relationships with policies and politics as a small window into other areas that are important to consider and that connect closely with social studies teacher education.

The first two chapters offer ideas on how to rethink research in social studies teacher education. In the first chapter, Bullock and Christou argue that self-study research can help us examine who we are and what we do as social studies teacher educators while, as a field, we learn about the nuances of teacher education practice. Heafner, Fitchett and Knowles take us from the focus on our individual teacher education practice to the realm of big data. They explain big data and how we in social studies teacher education can use it. Together these two chapters provide ways to rethink how we engage in research to understand what is occurring in social studies teacher education and, hopefully, ways to proceed in reform efforts.

The next two chapters include perspectives on how policies influence practice. In the third chapter, Dinkelman, Logan and Cuenca let us in on the inner workings of a program contemplating an imposed standards framework. Their work sheds light on the influences of a policy decision on the nuanced aspects of a teacher education program. They make us begin to contemplate: How do we navigate these mandates? What do these standards mean for our citizenry? And, Is it time to speak out?

As faculty in higher education, we need to reassert our role as public intellectuals. So do the teachers we prepare. In the final chapter, Meuwissen and Berger remind us that teaching is political. They argue that at all levels of teacher education we “must acknowledge and powerfully represent social studies teachers’ political roles and, in turn, scaffold their political practices.” They assist us in thinking about the ways our field is political and challenge us to support social studies teachers in embracing this. We hope their discussion sparks conversations within social studies

teacher education about the political nature of our work and what that means for our practice.

Together, the authors help us explore ways to unpack the work we do in social studies education, interrogate how we manage mandates while trying to do what is best for our students, and embrace the political nature of education and become advocates ourselves. As you leave the section, we hope you begin to ask: How might I research in new and different ways to better explore social studies teacher education? What do these mandates do to our programs? Do we need to be more active regarding these mandates? And, How are we supporting ourselves and social studies teachers to understand and navigate the political nature of education?

Chapter 18

Self-Study as Professional Development for a Novice Social Studies Teacher Educator

Shawn Michael Bullock and Theodore Michael Christou

The purpose of this chapter is to describe, interpret, and analyze one way in which self-study methodology and critical friendship might be used to assist a novice social studies teacher, Shawn, in making sense of his pedagogy of teacher education. Of particular interest is that Shawn is an experienced science teacher educator, with an interest and academic background in the history and philosophy of science (HPS), who found himself working with a group of social studies teachers for the first time. Theodore, an experienced social studies teacher educator, acted as Shawn's critical friend to help him frame and reframe his work with social studies teachers. Although the context of the study is a new course aimed specifically at social studies teachers interested in learning more about environmental science, the focus of our study was on the development of Shawn's professional knowledge about teaching social studies teachers rather than a particular curriculum innovation.

Setting the Stage for Self-Study of Practice

Self-study of teacher education practices is a methodology with roots in traditions such as action research, practitioner inquiry, psychological considerations of the self, and general interest in the role of reflection in the construction of professional knowledge and the challenges of modelling practice in teacher education courses (Loughran, 2004). The methodology is generally thought to have begun as the result

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of an AERA session in 1992, in which a group of researchers examining teacher education presented papers that argued for the importance of teacher educators engaging in the same kind of reflection on practice that they typically require of teacher candidates. Over more than two decades, the field has grown to include a robust special interest group at AERA, a number of edited books, a handbook, and the journal *Studying Teacher Education*, which published its first issue in 2005. In his vice-presidential address to AERA, Zeichner (1999) introduced self-study research to a wider audience, stating “The birth of the self-study in teacher education movement around 1990 has been probably the single most significant development ever in the field of teacher education research” (p. 8).

A useful working definition of self-study is “teaching and research practice in order to better understand: oneself; teaching; learning; and, the development of knowledge about these” (Loughran, 2004, p. 9). Despite the rapid rise of the methodology within a particular group of scholars, it remains challenging to both define self-study and to distinguish it clearly from other traditions concerned with deriving knowledge from practice. In his inaugural paper for *Studying Teacher Education*, Loughran (2005) was quick to point out two features of the methodology that are particularly challenging:

1. There is no one, universally “accepted” way to enact a self-study of practice.
2. The term *self-study* can be misleading, as it implies a solipsistic endeavour.

One productive way to think about self-study is to consider the role of the *self*: self-study means that one’s own teaching practices or engagement as a teacher educator is the focus of the study; this, however, does not imply that self-study is conducted in isolation. Indeed, much self-study research uses what Schuck and Russell (2005) and others have referred to as *critical friendship*, which explicitly involves one or more colleagues as co-participants in the study of one’s practice. As Schuck and Russell noted, “critical friendship reminds teacher educators of the challenging complexity of directing one’s own professional learning” (p. 119).

LaBoskey (2004) offered guidelines that help researchers to think about methodological features of self-study: Self-studies need to be designed in ways that are “self-initiated and focused,” “improvement aimed,” “interactive,” and to make use of “multiple qualitative methods,” and “exemplar-based validation” (pp. 842–852). An overarching consideration for self-study methodology is “to better understand, facilitate, and articulate the teaching-learning process” (p. 857). LaBoskey also clearly acknowledges the tendency for much self-study research to use narrative traditions, in part because such traditions particularly lend themselves to articulating the role of the self in practice. Loughran (2010) acknowledged the importance of stories and narrative in self-study research, but cautioned “stories alone are not enough” (p. 223). In particular, Loughran expressed concern for self-studies that remain stories focused exclusively on either the particular catalyst for one’s examination of teacher education practices or in a detailed description of one’s teaching practice. For Loughran, a central question needs to be “What does the story tell and what purpose does it serve?” (p. 223).

Schuck and Russell (2005) argued that critical friends develop shared understandings of how teacher candidates learn to teach. Given our history of collaboration, we believe it is important to unpack some of the shared understandings that we have developed as critical friends and colleagues whilst working as teacher educators, first as doctoral students and then as assistant professors. We both have a history of studying our teaching in order to come to new understandings of enacted practices, to develop warrants for enacting particular approaches to teacher education, and to develop an “authority of experience” (Munby & Russell, 1994, p. 94). Although we had both long kept journals of teaching as part of our former practices as K-12 teachers, it was not until shared experiences in doctoral studies that we worked together using self-study of teaching and teacher education methodology. The exact moment that we decided to begin our formal academic work together is unclear, but a stimulus was the shared opportunity that we had to work as graduate teaching fellows and teacher educators during our doctoral programs. Theodore found himself teaching a course most often perceived by teacher candidates as being the “most theoretical of theoretical”: a required course that was to serve as an introduction to the philosophy of education. Shawn, on the other hand, found himself teaching a course most often perceived by teacher candidates as being the “most practical of practical”: a course that met once a week on campus but that also served as a home base for practicum experiences, as Shawn had the responsibility of supervising teacher candidates during their practicum experiences. We were both troubled by the effects that teacher candidates’ prior assumptions had on our teaching and challenged ourselves to, in Theodore’s case, provide experiences demonstrating the imminent practicality of philosophy and, in Shawn’s case, provide experiences demonstrating how practice is unavoidably theory-laden. Our first self-study (Bullock & Christou, 2009) enabled us to understand the complicated relationship between theory and practice that exists in teacher education programs, and the challenges faced by teacher educators when working with candidates who might see features of the program to be the exclusive domain of either theory or practice.

Our work in self-study has continued into our early academic careers, most recently with Shawn acting as a critical friend to Theodore during his attempt to engage social studies students in authentic historical inquiry examining social life in Byzantium between 330 and 1453 AD (Christou & Bullock, 2014). We have also worked together to call for an approach to teacher education that encourages teacher candidates to develop the capacity for what we call *philosophical mindedness*, which is an orientation to education that views theory and practice as densely interwoven aspects of professional knowledge (Christou & Bullock, 2012). A combination of these past two ventures helped to set the stage for this collaborative self-study. When we were both graduate students, Theodore encouraged Shawn to pursue deeper studies and enrich his understanding of the history and philosophy of science and, in particular, to explore the potential of these perspectives for his ongoing research in science education. From September 2011 to August 2012, Shawn realized this ambition by enrolling in and completing his Master of Arts in the history and philosophy of science and technology at the University of Toronto. The timing of these studies was fortuitous; upon moving to a new institution in September

2012, Shawn became determined to create a space to explore the intersections between social studies and science. Again, Theodore acted as a mentor; this time, he facilitated Shawn's exploration of the social studies literature in Canada by co-editing an edited book containing articles from Canadian scholars examining the past, present, and future of the educational foundations – history, philosophy, and sociology of education – in teacher education across the country (Christou & Bullock, 2013). With these experiences in hand, Shawn felt ready to work with social studies teacher candidates in his own right at the next opportunity.

Context and Methods

This chapter is about a new beginning for Shawn in teacher education. Although he was somewhat experienced as a science teacher educator, his recent experiences teaching future social studies thrust him into the role of novice teacher educator. It was natural for Shawn to turn to Theodore, an experienced social studies teacher educator with whom he had a history of critical friendship, for assistance in interpreting his new work in teacher education.

The pedagogical context for Shawn's entry into the space of social studies teacher education is a unique, special topics course that he developed, which is called "Exploring Concepts in Environmental Science for Social Studies Teachers." The course was initially offered as a part of a minor in the final year of a teacher education program at Simon Fraser University, which is situated in an area (the Greater Vancouver Area of the province of British Columbia) known for its population's interest in environmental issues. This course was taken in addition to a more traditional "curriculum methods" course in social studies as well as a course focusing on environmental education. By traditional, we mean courses concentrating on the social studies curriculum, on lesson and unit planning, on teaching strategies and assessment, and on general preparation for teaching practice within the sphere of public school classrooms. Teacher candidates were offered the choice of a fourth course, which would round out the requirements for a secondary education minor in their Bachelor of Education degree. These candidates, which were grouped as a cohort, were in the final year of their studies and were seeking certification as teachers in the province of British Columbia, Canada. This particular "integrated cohort" offering was the second such effort from a particular team of teacher educators at Simon Fraser University. In the previous year Shawn had taught a curriculum methods course in science for a different minor focus.

The theme of the cohort program in the course's inaugural year concerned the intersections between social science, environmental science, and environmental education. The course, titled EDUC 495, was designed to be a venue for students to explore their understanding of the nature of science as well as the challenges and possibilities associated with teaching social studies using topics in environmental science at the secondary school level. It was premised in the belief that topics in environmental science are important sites of potential inquiry for all students, not

just those who intend on majoring in the sciences at the post-secondary level. As a consequence, it is important to provide opportunities for students to think critically about environmental science using a variety of disciplinary lenses (e.g., those offered by the history and philosophy of science and science and technology studies).

EDUC 495 was not designed to try to “fill” social studies teacher candidates with ideas and disciplinary content from environmental science. Instead, inspired by work done by Theodore’s teacher candidates (Christou & Bullock, 2014), Shawn decided to make the focus of their work a project that pursued authentic historical questions about the history and philosophy of issues in environmental science in our local context of Vancouver, British Columbia. During the course, Shawn endeavoured to find a balance between challenging social studies teacher candidates’ conceptual understandings of certain topics germane to environmental science (e.g., water systems, air pollution, etc.) and engaging them in designing an historical research question of personal relevance.

The theoretical framework guiding this pedagogical innovation is provided by the six historical thinking concepts developed by Peter Seixas, Canada Research Chair and director of the Centre for Historical Consciousness, which functioned from 2006 to 2014 as a mechanism for providing social studies educators and students with models and means of teaching history meaningfully (Peck & Seixas, 2008; Seixas, 1998). The six concepts involve:

- (a) Establishing significance of particular questions or contexts
- (b) Examining primary sources in addition to secondary source materials
- (c) Contemplating both the causes and consequences of phenomena or events
- (d) Examining forces of continuity and change
- (e) Considering multiple perspectives
- (f) Discussing the ethical dimensions of events and activities

These became prompts, which would scaffold teacher candidates’ efforts to pursue authentic historical research projects. We see such projects as a way of cultivating historical mindedness. While historical thinking is defined here as a way of considering the past in ways that envelop the concepts noted above, historical mindedness is defined as a way of thinking about the world of the present in like manner. This is to say that historical mindedness engages the world around us, and it entails a set of dispositions, or habits, which are derived from a way of thinking about the world of the past (Bruno-Jofré & Steiner, 2007, Christou, 2010, Osborne, 2001).

Theodore had used various historical contexts as beginning points for the practice of historical thinking. He began by asking students to explore the Byzantine world, as noted above, but then challenged them to explore local history of education within the province they inhabited, concentrating on the instruction of social studies and science. He asked teacher candidates to engage with archives, local and provincial, as well as various primary and secondary sources, in order to produce historical studies, which would be subjected to double blind peer review prior to publication on an open source website. The historical research and the scholarly community fostered by the review and publication processes served as a backdrop

for a concerted study of contemporary social studies themes, including democratic citizenship, controversial issues, social action, and public justice.

Similarly, Shawn began the course by choosing a local context to consider (the lower mainland of British Columbia, Canada). He believed this choice would enable access local primary sources (e.g., University Archives, the City of Vancouver Archives) and points of environmental significance while developing understanding of social and scientific issues relevant to environmental science have played out historically over the past 100 years in the area.

This self-study unfolded using the same methods used by Christou and Bullock (2012), except that this time Shawn's practice was the focus of the study and Theodore acted as a critical friend. Shawn kept a journal of his teaching of the aforementioned EDUC 495 course and, after the course was completed, he selected elements of his journal that represented turning points in his thinking. For Shawn, a turning point is an event in his practice that was emotionally laden, that frames a problem of practice, and that seems particularly well suited to advice from his critical friend (Bullock & Ritter, 2011). The journal entries were sent via email to Theodore for comment, critique, and a response. In this way, our self-study was grounded in text, which "offers a critical lens through which teacher educators can problematize their practice, seeking insight into the implicit assumptions that may be more influential on those practices than is the propositional understanding these teacher educators have about practice" (Tidwell, Heston, & Fitzgerald, 2009, p. xiv).

In presenting the data for this chapter, we are mindful of Loughran's argument for the need to move beyond a story of practice (although that may be useful for a number of reasons) toward the knowledge gained about teaching social studies teacher as a result of doing this self-study. Our purpose here is not to provide a detailed account of all of the teaching moves that Shawn made during EDUC 495; our purpose is to highlight the power of self-study and critical friendship for developing professional knowledge about how to teach future social studies teachers. The data are organized chronologically in three sections: *pre-history*, *living history*, and *still a physicist?* These sections contain a mixture of narrative written by Shawn, in the first person, post-course to unpack relevant contextual and autobiographical details. Formal journal entries are indented and referenced as such; these entries were sent to Theodore post-course and his responses appear immediately following each entry, indented and attributed to him. In presenting the data this way, we hope to give readers the flavour of both the autobiographical narrative of Shawn's journey of becoming a social studies teacher educator, journal entries written after significant moments in Shawn's teaching, and Theodore's responses to these turning points.

Pre-history

I (Shawn) somewhat facetiously labelled this section “pre-history” because I am amazed it took me as long as it did to realize the many points of coherence that exist between the inquiry traditions of science and social studies. In many ways, I have been literally “pre” history for most of my life in science. I have loved science, particularly physics and astronomy, since I was a small child and I delighted in performing small-scale (and often ill-conceived) experiments, taking things apart, and devouring as many sources of information about the natural world as I could get my hands on. I also found the stories of famous scientists, inventors, and explorers fascinating. Nikolai Tesla was an early favourite. In my youth, I thought that the history of science was basically a Whiggish narrative characterized by the contributions of extraordinary minds with great insights. Although my undergraduate degree in physics incorporated a good deal of philosophy of science within certain quantum physics courses, my understanding of the history and philosophy of science remained on the periphery of my academic work. This understanding was primarily based on learning I experienced during my many visits to museums and my enthusiastic reading of any number of biographies of famous sciences and inventors.

It is not an overstatement to suggest that my time as a graduate student in the Institute for the History and Philosophy of Science and Technology at the University of Toronto changed everything. What began as a way for me to enhance my professional knowledge as a science teacher educator (and to tap into a long-standing personal interest) soon became a challenge to reframe my understanding of what science is, and what it could be. I read broadly and deeply that year, both inside and outside of requirements for the degree, at once working to catch up to classmates with strong backgrounds in the humanities and trying to enhance my understanding of what Schwab would have called the syntactic structures of the sciences, particularly physics. Among other things, I considered the work of people like Thomas Kuhn, Karl Popper, Imre Lakatos, and Paul Feyerabend, and devoted a considerable amount of time in a special topics course in the history of physics to understanding the development of Maxwell’s theory of electromagnetism. Early on in the program, I realized that my passion for the discipline of the history and philosophy of science meant I had been somewhat pre-history my entire life.

Another significant insight that I gained from the program was a consideration of what many call *science and technology studies* (STS). I read Bruno Latour, for example, and considered the so-called “science wars” of the 1990s. I thought about the degree to which science was socially constructed, and the plethora of debates between philosophers of science and those in science and technology studies. I decided that these kinds of questions were worthy of pursuit by science teacher candidates.

When an opportunity to participate in another secondary cohort program arose, I decided to seize upon the opportunity to push myself a bit further by creating a course, EDUC 495: Exploring Concepts in Environmental Science for Social Studies Teachers, that would allow me to become a social studies teacher educator

by working explicitly with social studies teacher candidates and using environmental science as a catalyst for discussion. In hindsight, I do not believe that I would have made such an audacious proposal were I not sure that the social studies teachers in my course would have an experienced social studies teacher educator, and a trusted colleague, for their curriculum methods course. I was also buoyed considerably by knowing that I could reach out to Theodore if I got into trouble. Quickly, I was faced with the prospect of wondering what I would actually *do* in this course, which ran in the summer session of 2014:

The history of science is often relegated to something akin to the “interesting facts” section of most science textbooks. When the history of science is discussed in science classrooms, it is often presented in a fashion that equates science with progress achieved through the unique insights of a few individuals. Science and social studies are too often thought of as disciplines that share little in common – is there a way to break down such unhelpful barriers, so that social studies and science are not seen as discrete packages the be neatly delivered independently of each other? My previous work with Theodore has taught me the value of engaging social studies teacher candidates in authentic historical research. Given the overwhelming interest in topics related to environmental science, would there be value in designing a curriculum that provides social studies teachers with an opportunity to develop an historically-minded view of issues in environmental science? How might enacting such a curriculum shape my pedagogy of teacher education? (Bullock, Personal Journal, April 16, 2014)

This journal entry might be considered a part of establishing a baseline for our conversation. As Costa and Kallick (1993) noted, it is important for critical friends to “take the time to fully understand the context of the work presented and the outcomes that the person or group is working toward” (p. 50). Given that our conversation occurred asynchronously, it was particularly important for me to set a context for the collaboration; I made explicit references to ideas I learned through Theodore and shared two explicit questions for the study. Theodore’s response instantly indicates a crucial feature of critical friendship: He builds on my premise that social studies and science share important disciplinary roots and challenges, thus becoming “an advocate for the success of the work” (Costa & Kallick, p. 50).

If there is one thing that social studies and science education share, it is the reduction of both disciplines to discrete items to be memorized or enumerated. I recall a teacher in secondary school biology who told us that our take away from the course would be “interesting facts.” Do not eat a polar bear’s liver. The iron content is so high as to be toxic. Ostriches are the only bird with earwax. I took these as taken-for-granted truths. To this day, I: a) recall these “facts”; and b) have not questioned them or interrogated them further. Herein lies the problematic, which is as old as Socrates’ admonition of ignorance in Plato’s *Apology*. Once we receive, or purport to have, knowledge, we do not question it. We cease to wonder. Definitive answers small morsels of facts leave little space for further questions. Socrates saw it as his mission to show his fellow Athenians that they did not know what they thought they did. In this way, he would compel them to ask and to inquire into those very things that they held to be certain. In social studies and in history education, the same challenges prevail. The assassination of Franz Ferdinand was the cause of World War I. Canadian solidarity and independence can be traced to the battle of Vimy Ridge. Both statements are true and not true. Both claims must be subjected to scrutiny. This scrutiny leads us closer to understanding but not to definitive and absolute truth.

(Christou, Response to Bullock)

I decided that borrowing a page from Theodore's approach to social studies teacher education was the way to go. The teacher candidates in my course were charged with a self-directed learning project that involved them developing an historical understanding of a particular topic in environmental science that was of interest. My assignment page read, in part:

The idea of this assignment is to give you a chance to develop some expertise on a topic in environmental science that is of interest to you by investigating it from an historical perspective. You might choose to focus on the development of political discourse around a particular topic in environmental science. You might be interested in the development of public reactions to an environmental issue. Some of you may also be interested to look at the development of scientific concept or idea. Many of you might find considerable satisfaction in investigating a relevant local issue.

To accomplish this task, you should devote some time each week to do some research into your topic. You should be reading and examining both primary and secondary historical sources. Throughout the semester, I would like you to consider the ways in which your topic in environmental science might be used productively as a catalyst for inquiry and investigation in social studies courses you might teach. (Bullock, Excerpt from Course Assignment, 2014)

Teacher candidates were also asked to submit an analysis of one of their primary source documents early in the semester for consideration by the rest of the class. I sought to engage candidates in the six historical thinking concepts by primary sources as an entry point for considering issues of significance, ethics, continuity, change, causes, and consequences of the histories of environmental science.

Examination of primary sources is a fundamental aspect of historical work. Theodore has likened these to a basket of fresh ingredients, even as he refers to secondary sources as a prepared meal. Ruth Sandwell has likened history to a verb, and her work has demonstrated the necessity of using primary sources in historical inquiry (Sandwell, 2005, 2011). The employment of primary sources in the social studies and history classroom has been entrenched across the Canadian landscape with recent revisions to curriculum documents in every province. The core of the touted inquiry method is primary source analysis, and as a catalyst for inquiry, the concentrated analysis of these is a slow process that demands patience, scaffolding, and community. Significantly, Theodore did not offer critique of my assignment, despite the topic's obvious importance to his work as a teacher educator. In this way he was being an effective critical friend by not offering a "value judgment" unless requested to do so (Costa & Kallick, 1993) and by realizing that the "critiquing aspect of critical friendship needs to develop slowly and sensitively" (Schuck & Russell, 2005). Theodore accepted the premise of my assignment before the beginning of the course and recognized that the important thing was to help me understand what I learned about my practice with this assignment as a catalyst.

Living History

I was fortunate to have a small yet enthusiastic class and, right from the beginning, I felt like I was *living* history by finally bringing social studies to the foreground in my practice as a teacher educator. I enjoyed using our course text, *Keeping our cool* (Weaver, 2008), as a catalyst for conversations about the history of the effects of climate change in Canada. The book is notable in that it contains rich scientific content, yet Weaver, a noted climate scientist from the University of Victoria, manages to write prose that is accessible to a popular audience. We devoted much of our time in the course early on to open-ended discussions based on shared readings from the book. Anecdotal evidence suggests that the candidates in the course enjoyed having the book as an introduction to scientific topics with respect to climate change. I invited candidates to use some of the ideas presented in the text (ocean acidification, glacier melting, etc.) as catalysts for their course projects.

At the mid-point of the course, I asked students to present the results of their analysis of a primary document that they had found through their archival work. I had cancelled one class meeting to create the time and space for teacher candidates to visit an archive and to conduct research. I now present an edited transcription of an audio entry created immediately following that class meeting:

What was interesting to me was that even in a group of people who are going to be social studies teachers, there was this overarching enthusiasm and appreciation for the space to conduct research and the space to go and visit these archives. I have to say that when one is very used to hearing people say that teacher candidates “aren’t really interested in the intellectually rigorous work” and “only interested in the practicum” . . . you hear these comments all the time and you read these comments in the literature, but you know, it was really striking to me just how intellectually engaged the teacher candidates in the course were. Particularly given that they, you know, had spent such time thinking deeply about a topic that they’re passionate about. My way of introducing them to concepts in environmental science was to ask them to look at a concept using a historical lens, and so we spent the first part of the class talking about what sorts of archives people went to . . . There was a person who looked through the archives of an online humor satirical magazine that goes back quite a long ways, and used political cartoons from the mid to 19th century to construct a history of pollution of the Thames. We had a range in approaches of students who were doing archival research, without having to leave, you know, their homes and people who wanted to “challenge themselves” to visit an archive because they hadn’t been before. So they visited, small, local, municipal archives. In fact quite a few people seem to have visit small municipal archives and they commented on how helpful archivists are and the interesting bread crumbs that can come up . . . you end up reading a whole lot about a particular topic but you’re not sure what the focus is going to end up being and you’re finding out interesting information but is it necessarily going to be relevant to what you’re doing. So that’s quite interesting. Some people frankly spoke about the tedium of the work but also the excitement when you finally find something that seems to be of particular interest. A few people had, as I mentioned, a few people had never visited an archive before [or if they had, it had been ages ago] so I thought that was worth “the price” of doing the assignment itself. Future social studies teachers had an explicit space to do something that I think is really important for social studies teachers to do. (Bullock, Personal Journal, June 11, 2014)

Theodore’s response is an interesting mixture of support for the premise of my work, which was particularly important given that I was entering uncharted territory,

and an example of the reciprocal nature of collaborative self-study and critical friendship:

Shawn's journal entry evokes a number of memories, both pleasant and unpleasant. I have engaged roughly 450 teacher candidates in 16 sections of social studies methods courses with archival research in six years. The varying degrees with which candidates might seize upon the subject that they are researching never ceases to amaze me. What is most curious, perhaps, is my sense that students seem to engage most deeply with subjects that are assigned to them, rather than subjects that they choose to study. One year, I decided to build a chronological record of the history of science education in the province of New Brunswick with my teacher candidates at the University of New Brunswick in Fredericton. I assigned students particular decades to study and, between the two sections that I was instructing, there were two groups concentrating on a 10-year period spanning 1900-2000. I recall, in particular, one pair of students, who had no background in history. They were in a Primary/Junior section of Social Studies, and they were assigned 1901-1910. I met with this group regularly, as they were beginning to grow frustrated with the challenge. They could not find any science textbooks, examinations, or notebooks in the archives or local school museum. One day, they sat me down and said: "We find this historical research very frustrating!" My response surprised them. "Great! I am glad that you are frustrated. Now you actually know how difficult the study of the past actually is. Now, I hope, you will not go in front of your classroom and teach your students to memorize names and dates out of a textbook. That is not historical inquiry. You are learning to think historically by working with primary source evidence, and my hope is that you will help your students to do the same." These two students had a breakthrough a week later. They were going through textbooks on nature and agriculture that they uncovered at the museum and realized that while science, as a subject, did not exist in the first decade of the 20th century, science was, indeed, taught. Students were learning science, but it was rooted in the study of the world around them and related to the activities and industries that the students experienced daily, such as farming, gardening, bird watching, or walking in nature. The students began to devour the primary sources. They spent more than 80 hours in the archives, which is significantly more than I ever could have asked of them. Their project still serves as the exemplar and as a testament to teacher candidates' ability to tackle rigorous intellectual work with vigour and passion. Granted, there were other candidates who grumbled. Regularly, I hear this refrain: "We did research in our undergraduate degrees, and we are here to learn how to teach, not how to navigate an archive." A social studies teacher who has no interest in research and in historical inquiry has, I retort, lost the game. Despite the grumbling, once the research, writing, and peer review are complete, the teacher candidates are almost universally proud to see their work published and available online. I have heard from graduates who went for job interviews and were asked, "How would you engage your students in social studies and history?" "Let me show you," they respond, and pull up the collection of projects that are published online. They use these as a prompt to discuss archival work, scholarly community, and authentic research. (Christou, Response to Bullock)

Schuck and Russell (2005) are quick to underscore: "A critical friendship works in two directions. It is not solely for the person whose teaching is being studied; the critical friend also expects benefits" (p. 119). Theodore's anecdote is clearly related to my journal entry, as I was trying to make sense of the complexities of engaging teacher candidates with archival research. Yet he also provided me with further pedagogical issues to consider by commenting on the frustrations experienced by his teacher candidates (experiences that I did not have). In so doing, Theodore found occasion to make sense of problems of practice he faced within a critical friendship that used my teaching as a catalyst. Schuck and Russell also commented that change

to personal practice “tends to be slower and more complex than personal memories of lists of best practices would suggest” (p. 120). It was somewhat gratifying for me to read that this particular pedagogical innovation placed considerable demands on someone with considerable experience in teaching social studies methods. Perhaps future work may focus on developing shared understandings as we continue to enact this approach in our contexts.

Still a Physicist?

The next journal entry is again created from an audio file recorded immediately after a class meeting (interestingly, the meeting immediately following the entry above). Despite my enthusiasm for working with social studies teachers, my belief that the course had been going quite well, and my delight over discussing candidates’ archival projects, the following entry reveals just how easy it was for me to slip into using my propositional knowledge of science as a warrant for teaching the course:

One thing that candidates seem to be interested in is this idea of sunspots and when, how, or whether or not the sun contributes to climate change, and the relationship between that alleged cause of climate change and, you know, the human footprint [e.g., the anthropogenic effect]. In the course of the discussion, one student brought up the astounding statistic that every day the world’s population increases by the equivalent of adding a city the size of Calgary. I probably took more time than I planned and it was certainly a bit of a surprise to me that that I ended up taking this route but I actually showed some of the solar observatory stuff. I showed some information from the Soho site that NASA keeps to talk about how do we go about observing the sun and I talked a bit about the idea of something orbiting and the Lagrange point and why that was important and probably more so than any other time of the course I got into some pretty explicit scientific ideas this was a nice link to the earlier conversation about sunspots, which are often used by climate sceptics as they claim their misunderstanding of the nature of sunspots is often used by climate sceptics against as a way of questioning issues of global warming and climate change science.

The discussion about Calgary caused candidates to look up the effects of China’s one child policy and even after that policy has been lifted to take a look at whether or not the removal of that policy has started yielding any noticeable results in terms of longitudinally, in terms of population dynamics. And so I think candidates were interested in thinking . . . many of the social effects and social challenges that are created by things such as the one child policy, and how lifting the one child policy has had implications for Chinese society. They had an opportunity to really work as social studies teachers along these lines. Given their interest in sunspots I think I was probably a little bit over enthusiastic to share some of what I know about stars, as I did take a full course in stellar astrophysics in my previous educational life, so I was quite interested in sharing you know, [things like]: What is a star? What are main sequence stars? The sun is a common star; these kinds of things. Candidates seemed quite keen on this discussion and I don’t know if they were just humouring me as I tend to get quite enthusiastic about these kinds of things, or if they had this . . . wanted to get into some of these fairly in depth issues around . . . around science and around climate science in particular. I think it is a combination of both. You don’t have to get into stellar evolution to understand climate science, but I think it was a nice additional context. (Bullock, Personal Journal, June 18, 2014)

When I sent this journal entry to Theodore, I commented that I “shuddered” to read what I said after that class. After a description of two events, both provoked by considerations from our book about climate change science but one more clearly linked to social studies and one more clearly linked to science, it is apparent that my identity as a physicist and a science teacher educator is all too ready to jump in at a moment’s notice. I wondered if I was seeking to establish an authority of knowledge because I was more conversant on the science of stars than I am on the environmental and social implications of population dynamics.

Shawn’s experience, again, evokes many memories. I am of the conviction that this is not a coincidence. When we engage teacher candidates in research that implicates science and social studies, the social and ethical implications of both subjects can swell and rise. Such work does not follow a predestined path. Rather, it tends to flood and then flow with unexpected force into unexpected terrain.

I recall one occasion when one section of teacher candidates opened the day with an excited discussion about the movie *Avatar*. The 3D, the CGI, and the narrative concerning good and evil were all grist for the mill. The discussion soon turned to the hunt for Osama bin Laden, US involvement in Iraq, Canada’s military engagement in Afghanistan, and the perils of painting historical figures as entirely good or uniquely bad. I have heard that it is difficult to herd stray cats. This discussion was something else altogether. I felt that the teacher candidates and I were in a chariot drawn by a team of wild horses, each galloping at full speed. I was responding to each pull upon the reins and sought desperately to keep the chariot from turning over or derailing entirely.

A social studies class cannot shy away from the discussion of controversial issues, yet it must do so respectfully and with some trepidation. There were three candidates in the section that had husbands deployed in Afghanistan at the time. I knew this, but many of the other candidates did not. Somehow, we crossed a great distance in a short period of time and managed to keep our chariot intact. Somehow, we wound up more excited about science and social studies. Somewhere, in the course of events, an academic discussion amounted to an adrenaline ride.

Shawn should not shudder to read his reflection. I doubt that he was steering the discussion towards his own interests and strengths in order to establish his own authority over the group. I believe that Shawn was caught up in the current and, like each of the candidates in his course, swimming in the manner that he knew best. Further, I argue that Shawn’s enthusiasm for the subject served as a model for the students. He was as involved in the action as the candidates were. Enthusiasm is a catalyst for enthusiasm. Shawn made it acceptable for each candidate to throw themselves into the action and swim, variously, towards some shoal. (Christou, Response to Bullock)

East, Fitzgerald, and Heston (2009) offer a useful concept for interpreting this exchange. Often, the term *reframing* (Schön, 1983) is used to describe a new insight into the development of professional knowledge that occurs as a result of a self-study of practice. Reframing refers to the process an individual goes through when she or he develops a new way of understanding a problem of practice; a new perspective on an event offered by another person often is the catalyst for reframing. East et al. (2009) suggest that it is beneficial to attend to *recalibration points* in dialogue; they define such points in contrast to the major conceptual shifts suggested by reframing as “more like fine-tuning our awareness and understanding of our teacher education practices” (p. 60). I did not come to any radically new understandings of my practice from Theodore’s response, but I did refine my sense of why it

was important to allow myself to be “caught up in the current.” Even though I have long understood that spontaneity plays a valuable role in pedagogy, I forgot that it was acceptable to share enthusiasm for a science topic that I was passionate about because I was working with social studies teachers. Theodore helped me to recalibrate my expectations for the way I work with social studies teachers – I need not berate myself for bringing my content knowledge to bear on a discussion.

Conclusions and Implications for Social Studies Teacher Education

In their introductory chapter to a recent text exploring the intersections between social studies education and self-study methodology, Crowe and Dinkelman (2010) comment that both disciplines have “grappled with a history of multiple versions of what they are and what their purpose is” (p. 10). We find considerable resonance with this comment, given our history together using self-study to make sense of the our transitions from teacher to teacher educator and our recent work that engaged several prominent Canadian academics in a conversation about the role of foundations in teacher education. In a sense, we are reminded of Gee’s (2000) work on identity in education, in which he reminds us that our identities are partially constructed by how others “recognize” us and our work. In part, Gee argues that identity might be recognized through processes such as particular kinds of discourse and practices associated with particular “affinity groups.”

As many authors have noted previously, self-study research methodology no longer requires the same sort of justification it once did. The discourse, and its related affinity groups (seen most formally through the AERA SIG) have developed over the past two decades in ways that allow self-study researchers to recognize one another and to be recognized about by what we do. Although our identities as self-study researchers and teacher educators are somewhat assured through our participation in these communities, we also take Loughran’s (2010) suggestion to go beyond the story of self-study research. Crowe and Dinkelman (2010) posited: “One powerful way self-study could help improve practice in social studies teacher education is to inform both teacher educators and teacher education researchers alike of what goes on in the name of social studies teacher education” (p. 14). Our work demonstrates some of what “goes on” in our work as social studies teacher educators. We find value in the process of engaging teacher candidates in authentic historical research as a way of honouring Seixas (1998) call for teacher candidates to learn to think historically. We also find value in framing social studies and science as traditions of inquiry that have more in common than many teacher candidates, and their studies, might initially think.

Yet most importantly we find that what “goes on” in our work as social studies teacher educators is a an ongoing critical friendship that serves as a catalyst for the development of our professional knowledge as social studies teacher educators.

Schuck and Russell (2005) remind us of two fundamental features of critical friendship: “Critical friendship must respect and build on existing practices as it also works toward improvement” and “The dichotomy between being told new insights and working out new insights for oneself has considerable significance” (p. 119). Our critical friendship began in graduate school and we have a long history of sharing our pedagogical approaches with one another. Significantly, we engaged in self-study early in our career and thus created a shared language for thinking about teaching teachers. Our critical friendship has demonstrated that it is possible to develop and extend professional knowledge about teaching social studies teachers because it offers professional support, opportunities to recalibrate our understandings of new situations, and a conversation that frames both people as contributors to a shared understanding of thinking about teaching.

Although we had a shared ontological commitment to teaching and teacher education as moral work (Pinnegar & Hamilton, 2009), we initially felt that our identities as teacher educators were quite different early in our careers. In fact, we felt that our different disciplinary backgrounds offered the potential for unique insight and collaboration. Those were our “existing practices,” but we have since “worked toward improvement” by coming to understand the similarities of our cognate disciplines, and what those similarities might mean for our pedagogies of teacher education.

I, Shawn, would have never imagined labeling myself as a social studies teacher educator even a few years ago. The term still provokes some feelings of imposter syndrome. Theodore has modeled the elements of critical friendship outlined by Schuck and Russell (2005) in many ways. Theodore encouraged me to pursue additional graduate study when I first mentioned the possibility. He invited me to be his critical friend when he first experimented with pedagogy informed by Seixas (1998) ideas early in his career, and trusted that I would be an advocate for his work, even as we puzzled through our ideas about how and why teacher candidates were responding to his teaching. When I first told him about my plans for this past academic year, he was again encouraging. Crucially, however, he did not offer “advice” about how to teach about teaching social studies, even when I mentioned that I would enact an approach based on my understanding of his work.

Some readers may wonder about the asynchronous nature of our communication. Shawn feels that writing journal entries that were not immediately sent to Theodore enabled him to come to his own initial conclusions about social studies teacher education. Theodore extends and challenged Shawn’s nascent professional knowledge by adding post-hoc comments that encourage additional reframing. For example, in the pre-history section, Shawn raised concerns about the shallow treatment of the history of science in science education. Theodore reinforced and challenged Shawn’s assertions by commenting that history also risks a “reduction” to itemized lists of propositional knowledge, before going on to argue that there is value in these very propositions. Following on Theodore’s reasoning, a statement like “Robert Boyle is the father of modern science” is both true and not true. In the living history section, Shawn expresses excitement over the diversity of experiences that my students had in the archives. Again, Theodore both supports and challenges his views

by empathizing with the diversity of approaches and experiences that students have, while simultaneously causing me to wonder if he went far enough with the assignment. Should I have assigned topics? Should I have provided some way for the results to be published?

Finally, Shawn explicitly asked both Theodore and himself if Shawn was not “still a physicist”. Shawn chastised himself for slipping into a comfort zone because he did not take advantage of a moment to engage future social studies teachers in a rich conversation about population dynamics. Instead, Shawn fell into a habit of “telling” information that he knows well, for reasons that are not entirely clear. Once again, Theodore meets Shawn where he is, stating that framing science and social studies teacher education “tends to flood and then flow with unexpected force” once we engage teacher candidates in authentic research. After relating some of his own story, Theodore assured Shawn that he was “involved in the action as the candidates were.” Although Shawn was still concerned that he made a significant error in his teaching in that moment, it means a great deal to Shawn to know that Theodore is an advocate for the overall success of his development as a social studies teacher educator.

This example demonstrates the value of critical friendship within the self-study of teacher education practices for developing professional knowledge as a social studies teacher educator. As a somewhat experienced science teacher educator who is a novice social studies teacher educator, it is indeed important for me to be able to turn to a self-study and to my critical friend to help me make sense of experiences with social studies teacher candidates. The chapter highlighted the value of asynchronous journaling and response to journals for developing both what Loughran (2006) called a *pedagogy of teacher education* and what Munby and Russell (1994) referred to as an *authority of experience*. Self-study has provided Shawn with a way to articulate what he learned from his experiences and to enter in to a wider research conversations with social studies teacher educators, including but not limited to his critical friend and co-author. Shawn now understands more about Seixas (1998) ideas for teaching social studies teacher candidates. He finds additional resonance with Hawley’s (2010) comments about the “pedagogy of the process” (p. 65) in social studies methods classrooms and Crowe’s (2010) questions for social studies educators come to mind in more urgent ways, particularly her questions “How does my teaching model one or multiple forms of citizenship?” and “How am I supporting the creation of a democratic classroom?” (p. 205). These questions are likely to direct Shawn’s future self-study research program as a beginning social studies teacher educator.

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Chapter 19

Using Big Data, Large-Scale Studies, Secondary Datasets, and Secondary Data Analysis as Tools to Inform Social Studies Teaching and Learning

Tina L. Heafner, Paul G. Fitchett, and Ryan T. Knowles

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the value of secondary datasets, secondary analysis, large-scale studies, and big data as research tools in social studies. Secondary data analysis in its broadest sense is the analysis of data collected by other researchers. In contrast, primary data analysis occurs when the same individual or research team designs, collects, and analyzes the data. The original data collection process is specifically designed to address research questions that may differ from questions used in secondary analyses. Existing secondary datasets come from many sources such as large government-funded databases, statewide or district-level K-12 school records, university or college records, online companies, social media, author websites, libraries, and etc. These are available as public or restricted use secondary datasets. Secondary datasets encompass a vast number of subject areas and are typically used for quantitative data analysis. Analysis of these datasets requires knowledge of a wide range of statistical methods and modeling. The significant advantages of secondary datasets are accessibility, time and cost savings. Secondary datasets are attractive information sources for their greater external validity and considerable number of variables. Using large-scale samples and complex sampling frames, the overall quality of secondary datasets may be higher and include a more representative sample than primary data.

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Big data is a term that emerged in the early 1990s to describe large datasets used by economists. Simultaneous with the growth of the Internet, big data expanded in popularity and use among businesses and social scientists. Today, big data are used to describe the exponential growth and availability of data, both structured and unstructured as a result of technological advances in data collection and data analytics. Analytics encompasses the processes, techniques and tools used to produce and communication information from large secondary data sets (Campbell, Deblois, & Oblinger, 2007). Innovations driven by the sheer mass of data available for storing, managing, wrangling, and manipulating as well as the rapidity at which data can be analyzed make big data analytics the *de rigueur* decision-making source for our ubiquitous technological, consumer driven society. As more information becomes available, large sources of data also have the capacity to inform teaching and learning. Big data address questions that reveal and document trends and issues on a scale not measureable by small studies (Bichsel, 2012). Big data analytics can be used to gain insights, unravel complex pedagogical environments, optimize resources, and increase organizational effectiveness (Long & Siemens, 2011; Siemens & Long, 2011). In addition, big data have the potential to monitor behaviors, identify patterns, and link numerous variables due to the massive amount of information collected. The ability to connect variables across datasets is an added value of big data. Used in conjunction, big data and secondary data analysis (i.e. analytics) have the potential to broaden the scope of understanding in social studies and offer data-informed educational decision-making.

This chapter is organized into five sections. First, we provide a rationale for using large datasets by examining the wisdom to be gained from data, how large-scale data represent the *vox populi*, and the underutilization of large-scale studies and secondary data analysis. We consider insights to be gained from examining issues relevant to the field from the perspective of the crowd. We contend that data-informed understanding drawn from large datasets can advance the mission of social studies to promote democratic knowledge. Next, we provide a brief explanation of big data and the possibilities big data offer the field. What follows is a discussion of the democratization of data, repurposing of data, and data-informed research and practice. Fourth, we offer examples of easily accessible large datasets that provide social studies researchers opportunities to examine and interpret the *vox populi* through secondary data analysis. In the fifth section, we describe the limitations of working with large-scale datasets and offer statistical considerations to avoid may pitfalls of secondary data analysis. We conclude with the potential wisdom of democratic judgment that can emerge from data-informed thinking in social studies.

The Purpose of Large Datasets and Data Analytics in Social Studies

Vox Populi: The Wisdom of Data

In 1906, British scientist (and social elitist) Francis Galton visited a country fair in England, where he stumbled upon a competition in which fair-goers attempted to guesses the weight of an ox (Surowiecki, 2005). Seeing an opportunity to test his

hypothesis that individual expertise trumps the knowledge of the populace, he improvised an experiment by collecting the 787 individual guesses, averaged their findings, and compared them to the actual weight of the ox. Galton (1909) published his findings. However, contrary to his hypothesis, the crowd guessed within 1 pound of the actual weight (Surowiecki, 2005). For Galton, this revelation suggested a complex phenomenon he referred to as the *vox populi*; “This result is, I think, more creditable to the trust-worthiness of a democratic judgment than might have been expected” (p. 451). Thus, he posited that the collective knowledge often is more accurate or representative of reality. Knowledge of the masses is not only the voice of the people, but also affirms the value of shared thinking and collaboration.

Surowiecki (2005) argues that the Galton’s example along with others in politics, game shows, and sports betting suggest a “wisdom of crowds”—whereby large groups, responding independently of one another, are often more accurate than individual experts in knowing and predicting. Open sourcing and web 2.0 movements further this notion of enhanced understanding from collaboration. Also at work in this example is the law of large numbers. When enough samples are taken the expected or known value can be predicted. While the former affirms the value of listening to the sentiments of the people, a trait embedded in democratic knowledge, the latter supports large-scale investigations. For researchers and teachers interested in social studies education, big data hold promise for advancing data-informed theoretical positions while also unpacking patterns from vast amounts of data that could lead to innovative thinking about complex educational environments.

Large-Scale Data Can Represent the Vox Populi

As the previous story illustrates, there can be wisdom in crowds or as Galton refers to it, *vox populi*—voice of the people. Statistically, the ability of large samples, such as big data or secondary datasets, to reliably predict the *vox populi* can be explained in part by the central limit theorem (Howell, 2002). The central limit theorem suggests that if you took a large amount of independently random samples from a population, their means (averages) would resemble a normal distribution. Thus, the likelihood of the sample being accurate of the actual population is quite high. In his book, *The Wisdom of Crowds*, Surowiecki (2005) puts it simply, “If you ask a large enough group of diverse independent people to make a prediction or estimate of probability, and then average those estimates, the errors each of them make cancel each other out” (p. 31–32).

A key to this data-informed wisdom is independence. The Central Limit Theorem and most statistics based upon it stipulate independence of errors. Statistical independence assumes no correlations between events. Thus, one event has no effect on the probability of another event occurring; the two events are unrelated. Big data often use complex sampling frames (Vartanian, 2010) that account for sample clustering (i.e. teachers within schools, schools within cities, urbanity) that might undermine respondent independence and harm the generalizability of the sample.

For example, predictive achievement on NAEP and errors in predicting them may cluster by classroom, school, and urbanity.

In social studies research, the use of secondary data analysis has the potential to examine theory and themes uncovered in smaller-scale qualitative and quantitative studies to determine their veracity (and voice) at the macro-level (Torney-Purta & Amadeo, 2013a, 2013b). Large, generalizable findings contribute to public awareness by helping to inform policymakers which, where, and how resources can be optimized to have the greatest effect on learning outcomes (Cook, 2014). There are, however, limits to large-scale data analytics such as data mining. Thus, human judgment plays a fundamental role in secondary data analysis and is a distinguishing trait of large-scale data exploration and problem identification (Cooper, 2012).

As social studies researchers (emphasis on social), we should be interested in how teachers, students, and society perceive our field. Yet to this date, few studies have used big data, large-scale datasets, and secondary analysis to examine policy-specific issues in social studies (cf. Fitchett, Heafner, & Lambert, 2014a, 2014b; Heafner, Lipscomb, & Fitchett, 2014). Lack of large-scale data have been a longstanding limitation of the field. This was noted by Camburn and Won Han (2011) in their meta-analysis of national survey research conducted from 1987 to 2005. They found that than 5 % of survey research examined topics related to history or social studies. Of the core subject areas, history/social studies provided the smallest amount of generalizable quantitative evidence on instruction. The absence of large-scale analyses has hindered social studies' influence and presence in educational policy during this era as evidenced by NCLB and Common Core. However, the opportunity to leverage big data and secondary datasets in order to educate the public on issues related to the field remains fruitful and open for ambitious researchers.

Underutilization of Large-Scale Data

One obstacle to the use of big data and secondary datasets in social studies research is the perceived empirical rift between the qualitative and quantitative methods. In recent years, social studies has privileged the intimate, contextual analysis identified with qualitative research over the large-scale, parsimonious models of quantitative research; perhaps due to the epistemological foci of the disciplines associated with the field (Barton, 2006). Therefore, many social studies researchers have little to no experience with quantitative research. This lack of access and experience hampers the visibility of large datasets—many of which include hundreds of thousands of individual pieces of datum and require sophisticated weighting procedures prior to analysis. Accompanying the widespread growth of big data, advancing quantitative research skills in data analytics is an emerging priority in the field. To harness data-informed knowledge, skilled researchers well versed in statistical analysis, exploratory and predictive modeling are needed.

Furthermore, large-scale data and secondary data analysis have the potential to inform and compliment small-scale social studies research. Torney-Purta and Amadeo (2013a) note that quantitative research, particularly large datasets; have the potential to offer large-scale validation of qualitative research. The research surrounding the effectiveness of discussion pedagogy in civic education classes offers a unique case in point. Qualitative and theoretical research has long supported the use of discussion as an effective instructional approach toward civic-related outcomes (Gutmann, 1999; Hess, 2002; Parker, 2003). Large datasets which allow researchers to control for contextual issues often ingrained in qualitative research, indicate (almost universally) that students exposed to discussion pedagogy in their civic education classroom are associated with greater content knowledge, civic engagement, and tolerance (Avery, 2002; Delli Caprini & Keeter, 1989; Niemi & Junn, 1998). Though large-scale studies and secondary data analyses are not as prolific in history education, evidence suggests historical inquiry and other discipline-specific pedagogy (just as reading primary sources and writing historical narratives) are associated with increases in historical knowledge. Smith and Niemi (2001), in their analysis of US History NAEP outcomes, indicated that students exposed to various instructional pedagogies, including a variety of source material, scored higher on the NAEP than students with less exposure. Alongside the rich, vignettes of ambitious social studies teaching found in numerous qualitative studies (Grant, 2003; Hess, 2002; VanSledright, 2011), large-scale and secondary data analyses deserve to be examined, scrutinized and critiqued for the pedagogical and policy implications they afford the discipline.

Defining Big Data

Big data refer to the multiple formats of data, mostly quantitative, that include thousands (or even millions) of cases that can be easily accessed, analyzed, and interpreted (Long & Siemens, 2011; Siemens & Long, 2011). Economists and businesses have been using big data to track trends in investments, spending, and consumer behaviors for many decades. The current prominence of big data correlates with wide-spread computer use for data analysis. Today, big data are collected at extraordinary rates, include a variety of types of sources, formats and structures, and require new methods of processing exponential amounts of data. Furthermore, the growing interest in big data is related to contemporary, high-tech contexts in which we live, work and play.

Technological advancements have made our lives transparent and easily documented. The portrait of our lives is highly visible through social networking platforms and various digital information collection tools that capture our interests, habits, and behaviors. Proliferation of the Internet, mobile devices, and intuitive programming has increased information gathering and access to data for purposes as far-ranging as social networking, finance, political polling, entertainment, and education (Brown, Chui, & Manyika, 2011). Thus, the potential wisdom mined

from these big data has substantial application to society and may also be used in ways that could restrict rights or opportunities. With the growth of data analysis and data exploration, data analytics are no longer reserved for academia. Rampant development in data collection at relatively low costs is redefining what is collected (from specialized experimental design to everything), redistributing knowledge access through the increased accessibility to databases and open-source access, and the advancing the development of technology mediated, complex statistical analyses. A big data revolution is at hand, but caution is warranted. Knowledge of uses of big data are also democratic concerns. Awareness of ethical considerations and privacy issues have surfaced with the growth of big data.

Big data entered into the realm of education in 2005 with the federally supported program, Statewide Longitudinal Data Systems (SLDS). SLDS became a criteria for Race to the Top funding in 2009, making it a widely accepted national initiative. SLDS (see <http://nces.ed.gov/programs/slids/>) create identifiable tracking of student records documenting personal and educational information from preschool to high school graduation and beyond. State data collection connects PK-12 with postsecondary data. The proliferation of data collection in one of the world's most mineable industries (education) has drawn interest from for-profit corporations, like Pearson, Microsoft, and the Gates Foundation. Outcomes have led to efforts to link teacher and student data (c.f. Teacher Student Data Link, TSDL, <http://www.tsdl.org>, or InBloom, <https://www.inbloom.org>) and to push the limits of privacy of student records/data (c.f. Data Quality Campaign, <http://www.dataqualitycampaign.org>). Power shifts in who controls education are emerging issues associated with the growth of big data. Considerations of what information is collected, who has access to data, and how data will be used are new educational concerns that cannot be taken lightly but must also accompany the rising use of big data.

Additionally, new arguments need to be tackled as big data become more pervasive. These include discussions surrounding the rights of people to be forgotten, reallocating resources toward data-driven outcomes do not benefit all interests, and data-driven decision making dehumanizes social interactions. Long and Siemens (2011) while noting the value of big data in documenting what has occurred, they acknowledge limits of big data analytics in predicting future learning outcomes. Research using big data must take into consideration data limits, avoid inferential leaps, and note possible adverse unintended outcomes. These reinforce the importance of human judgment in data analytics (Cooper, 2012). Despite possible challenges, big data are big business. Big data projects are receiving significant attention and billions of dollars are being spent in association with data-driven policy. However, public awareness and concern can regulate how big data are used. Pushback against InBloom's access to student information and public outcry over privacy resulted in the company's shutdown. The democratic nature of access to big data is a double edge sword and must be balanced with individual rights before big data can be used successfully to guide future educational directions. Furthermore, decisions should be data-informed not necessarily data-driven. Consequently, there remains a significant role of researchers in interpreting the meaning of data in the contexts in which they are applied.

Educational research, like other social sciences, is currently following the tide of a big data surge. In education, the proliferation of big data can be attributed to both well-established national and international programs (i.e. National Center for Educational Statistics and the International Association for Evaluation of Educational Achievement) and from recent policy that promotes the use of data-driven decision-making in education (Marsh, Pane, & Hamilton, 2006). Taking advantage of these large data sources can position social studies researchers as key contributors to policy debates. The possibilities for secondary analyses have the capacity to generate data-informed social studies teaching and learning. What social studies researchers choose to do (or not to do) with big data and secondary datasets has the potential to greatly impact the field in relation to other disciplines. In the next section, we examine what big data, secondary datasets, and secondary data analysis offer to the field of social studies.

Accessibility, Repurposing, and Research to Practice

Democratizing Data: Accessibility of Data

Access to big data, secondary datasets, and large-scale analytics are increasing. Before accesses to computers and virtually unlimited storage, large datasets were costly, labor intensive, and often lost to dusty basements (Glass, 1976). Historically, social scientists would plan an experiment, decide what data to collect, and analyze the data. Not only were these time intensive endeavors, control over proprietary data were reserved for well-funded academics. Today, governments, educational organizations, and businesses are collecting data on everything at marginal costs. These big data are easily stored and accessed online (Gorard, 2002; Smith, 2008). This open policy of data sharing avoids privileging a small number of social scientists at the expense of the larger field (Glaser, 1962; Hakim, 1982; Smith, 2008) and embraces principles of collaboration and collective thinking.

Growing accessibility to large datasets and expanding opportunities for collaboration shift approaches to research design and allow for broader, shared explorations. While experimental, primary data-based research design once led methodologies, examining large-scale data for patterns through secondary research is becoming useful practice. Secondary data analysis is advantageous for social scientists for which cost, time, and logistics prohibit creation of large-scale datasets (Cook, 2014; Hakim, 1982; Smith, 2008; Vartanian, 2010). As such, researchers across institutions and in varying fields can analyze, interpret, and report findings based upon data that was not available a quarter century ago. Furthermore, collaboration allows for diverse, imaginative, and innovative questions to be explored. What one researcher may consider noise, another may unravel data patterns in meaningful ways. The open access of big data and secondary datasets helps to contribute to healthy exchange of ideas and knowledge without the exclusion of others; thus, democratizing data-informed knowledge.

These principles of equality, democracy, and access of information resonate with professional and historic dispositions of social studies education (Evans, 2004; National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS], 2010). From a practical standpoint, big data and secondary datasets present opportunities for social studies researchers to examine critical questions such as cultural trends in social media or international educational comparisons with existing data. Many of these datasets employ complex sampling frames that individual researchers would find it difficult to replicate on their own (Vartanian, 2010). This allows researchers in the field to concentrate more time and effort in developing their conceptual framework, analytical model, and method of analysis (Glaser, 1962; Smith, 2008). Open access to data used in other studies allow for replication, analytical critique, and revision of previous research models. In addition, data linking across datasets allows for more complex exploratory and predictive modeling.

Repurposing Data Across Contexts: Secondary Data Analysis

The accessibility and scope of big data and secondary datasets also afford educational researchers the opportunity to conduct secondary analysis among multiple areas of inquiry (Gorard, 2002; Smith, 2008; Vartanian, 2010). Repurposing the data across research projects is an attractive and efficient use of secondary analysis. For example, Fitchett and Heafner (2010) used Schools and Staffing Survey data, which has traditionally been analyzed in teacher working conditions studies (Grissom, Nicholson-Crotty, & Harrington, 2014; Ingersoll, 2001), to research elementary social studies marginalization on a national scale (cf. Fitchett & Heafner, 2010; Fitchett, Heafner & Lambert, 2014a, 2014b; Heafner & Fitchett, 2012a, 2012b).

Moreover, big data and secondary datasets are often de-identified, removing participant contact (Burststein, 1978; Smith, 2008). Separating the researcher from the participant, respondent, or case is advantageous for the researcher seeking to minimize social desirability bias often present in primary data. Notwithstanding, secondary data users must understand the primary data collection process and be fully informed of the sample represented in the dataset. As an example, Judith Torney-Purta and colleagues' research has frequently employed large-scale, international secondary data from the IEA Civic Education Study (CIVICED) to examine students' civic achievement and attitudes (cf. Torney-Purta & Amadeo, 2012, 2013a, 2013b; Torney-Purta & Richardson, 2003). A major strength of their research is the survey design, which de-identifies the respondents and helps substantiate the veracity of their findings. While large-scale analyses cannot explain how or why, these can describe what is happening and interpretations often reveal insights not visible in other types of research (Cook, 2014; Gorard, 2002; Smith, 2008).

The breadth of large-scale data research also allows for the combination of multiple datasets to enhance the research model and improve the quality of the results. Linking variables from multiple secondary datasets, Smith and Niemi (2001) com-

bined NAEP data and High School Transcript Study data from 1994 to examine the relationship between the amount of US history courses taken and US history achievement. Their findings indicated that frequency of exposure to US history courses was associated with an increase in student outcomes. Other studies encapsulating multiple areas of social studies research have employed secondary analysis across a variety of datasets (cf. Fitchett, Heafner & Lambert, 2014a; Torney-Purta & Amadeo, 2013a, 2013b). These social studies-specific examples suggest that repurposed data provides numerous analytical advantages for the social studies researcher.

The large-scale data revolution, while driven by access to secondary datasets, is also an outcome of the advancements in more refined methods for analyzing data which have been spurred by technological innovations and statistical modeling developments that more effectively control for between variable effects. A good example of this is the growing use of multilevel and hierarchical linear modeling (HLM). By correctly modeling correlated error, which arises from the clustering of data at the group level (i.e. a classroom, school, or state), HLM and multilevel modeling address limitations of multiple regression, ANOVA, and other general linear model analyses. Linear models do not control for complex educational contexts; whereas, multilevel models can. Linear models cannot test the assumption that what is true in one setting or level is not always true in another. Making sense of the relationships between distinct kinds of information and increasing quantities of information are challenges facing researchers that can only be addressed with the help of advanced statistical models. Several discipline-specific studies employ these more complex analyses (c.f. Fitchett, Heafner & Lambert, 2014a, 2014b; Smith & Niemi, 2001; Torney-Purta & Amadeo, 2012, 2013a, 2013b; Torney-Purta & Richardson, 2003). Using a specific line of inquiry, we describe in the next section the nuances of statistical modeling to unravel complex educational issues.

Examples of Secondary Datasets Analyses and Statistical Modeling

Using National Center for Education Statistics Schools and Staffing database (SASS) in conjunction with state-level accountability and testing data provided by the *Education Week's* "Quality Counts" 50-state report card, Fitchett, Heafner and Lambert (2014b), explored connections among testing policy, classroom contexts, teacher autonomy and social studies time. Using ANOVA, authors examined the association between the presence of a social studies test and self-reported time spent on social studies for over 4000 first-through fifth-grade public school teachers. These researchers found that the absence of a social studies test was an indicator of almost thirty minutes less of weekly social studies instruction. The "wisdom of crowds" (e.g. teacher reported data) provided evidence of a connection between testing policies and instructional time. Nonetheless, it is presumed that teacher decision-making is rarely this simplified and these data provide a less than accurate

picture of what occurs in elementary schools. Yet, this secondary data analysis offered national evidence supporting trends of marginalization and de-professionalization noted in smaller, state-level studies.

Instructional decision-making (e.g. autonomy) is a composite of many interacting factors such as: teacher characteristics and training, where a teacher works, the type of school, classroom size, student demographics and grade level. To control for a more complex, multi-level context, Fitchett, Heafner and Lambert (2014b) examined teacher autonomy more closely using a Hierarchical Linear Model (HLM). This more sophisticated statistical analysis helped explain differences between teachers within schools in relation to state level policy (i.e. types of tests, grade band texting requirements) differences. From the results, instructional autonomy is associated with increases in social studies time and certain teacher, classroom, school and policy level variables have a substantial impact on time (hours) teachers spend on social studies. There are clear indicators of factors that can influence (positively or negatively) time for social studies in elementary schools nationally.

Over 11,000 teachers across the nation responded to *Survey on the Status of Social Studies* (S4) (Fitchett & VanFossen, 2013). Using multiple statistical methods, Hierarchical Model Regression (HMR), MANCOVA and descriptive statistics, Fitchett, Heafner, and VanFossen (2014) analyzed the association among the proportion of time spent on social studies, instructional decision-making, and teachers' dispositions reported from approximately a quarter of survey participants. The latter two variables were composite factors created from multiple survey items, verified through a factor analysis, and scaled by summing across items. Internal consistency of scales was affirmed with Cronbach's *alpha*. The proportion of time was derived from a calculation of the percentage of aggregate core subject time. Results from analyses indicated that teachers' decision-making and dispositions significantly predicted the proportion of time spent on social studies. Moreover, teachers who reported more frequent social studies content integration or who reported having a mandated test spent more time on various instructional strategies than teachers who did not. Each statistical model answers different, yet related, questions. Combined these analyses offer a picture from various points of view of the current state of social studies in elementary schools. Data interpretations explain how time and autonomy are interconnected indicators of teacher decision-making (and social studies relevance).

Data-Informed Research to Practice

Rigorous, quantitative analysis of big data provides important opportunities for social studies teacher educators and policy makers. Macro-level analyses can inform teacher educators and pre-service teachers on the discipline-specific differences in teaching and learning contexts (Heafner & Fitchett, 2015; Knowles & Theobald, 2013; Niemi & Junn, 1998). They also offer opportunities for critical discussions on instructional decision-making and the interpretation of assessments results (Fitchett

& Heafner, 2013; Gaudelli, 2002; Torney-Purta & Amadeo, 2012). The technological advances of our society coupled with the growth in collaboration and data access make learning new research methods and working with big data essential components of any social studies program. The push for early and more frequent training in data analysis, even in undergraduate programs, is representative of a national call for change that mirrors growth trends in big data (Fischer, 2014).

Research indicates that large datasets, like NAEP, can be a valuable instructional tool for teacher educators (Levstik, 2008). Fitchett and Heafner (2013) used the NAEP data explorer, an online and easily accessible program, with social studies teachers in order to engage in substantive dialogue around teaching and learning by examining data-informed issues related to diversity, curriculum and pedagogical access, and inequalities in the opportunity to learn social studies. Teachers in this study used NAEP data to develop more culturally responsive pedagogy by adjusting instructional strategies that accounted student differences. Fitchett and Heafner also encouraged these teachers, in a manner similar to Gaudelli (2002), to critique the purpose and structure of the assessment based on NAEP data analyses. Data-informed discussions allowed for greater understanding of educational policies restricting teacher assessment practices. Big data provide a valuable tool for social studies practitioners, researchers, and advocates to explore policy-level considerations at the local and state levels. In the next section, we describe various big data sources available for secondary data analysis.

Big Data Sources for Secondary Analysis

There are many sources of big data available for researchers interested in conducting secondary analysis. However, many scholars may simply be unaware that such sources exist. To promote awareness of available data, summaries of some major data sources follow. Our list, however, is not exhaustive. Instead, we have purposefully chosen rigorous data sources based on their direct importance for social studies research.

Center for Information & Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE)

The Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE) conducts research on civic education in schools, colleges, and community settings.¹ CIRCLE researches and publishes reports exploring young Americans' voting, political participation, and other forms of civic engagement. The most recent

¹Website for CIRCLE: <http://www.civicyouth.org/>

example titled, *All Together Now: Collaboration and Innovation for Youth Engagement* (2013) explored youth voting during the 2012 election. Most pertinent to social studies researchers, the survey had items relating to civic knowledge, classroom political discussion, community involvement, and civic education policy. Data collection for this report began immediately after the 2012 presidential election and continued for 6 weeks and included 4,483 participants aged 18–24. The raw data from this study is available online free of charge² (Levine, 2012). This survey represents an ideal, and timely, opportunity for a scholar interested in conducting research on civic education in youth.

IES: Secondary Longitudinal Studies Program and the School and Staffing Survey (SASS)

The Institute for Education Sciences, at the National Center for Education Statistics, provides several datasets suitable for secondary data analysis. Two major studies include the Secondary Longitudinal Studies Program and the School and Staffing Survey (SASS). Unfortunately, the full dataset requires a restricted use license. However, a limited database is freely available for download. Overall, the studies provide decades worth of data relevant for social studies researchers.

The Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) provides questionnaires assessing the contexts of elementary and secondary education in the United States.³ Teachers, principals, and other school staff such as media specialists complete surveys. The topics include teacher demand, teacher and principal characteristics, general conditions in schools, teachers' perceptions of school climate, teacher compensation, district hiring and retention practices, and characteristics of student populations. Recently, a few social studies researchers made use of this valuable resource (Fitchett, 2010; Fitchett & Heafner, 2010; Fitchett, Heafner & Lambert, 2014a, 2014b; Heafner & Fitchett, 2012a, 2012b).

The secondary longitudinal studies program has conducted ongoing studies since 1972.⁴ This series of studies includes data from questionnaires administered to students, parents, teachers, principals, and heads of libraries and media centers. The program has three completed studies, which include the National Longitudinal Study of the High School Class of 1972 (NLS:72), the High School and Beyond Longitudinal Study of 1980 (HS&B), and the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS:88). Subsequent waves have included studies beginning in 2002 (ELS:2002) and 2009 (HSL:09). Questionnaires contain several items relevant to social studies scholars. For example, the ongoing Educational Longitudinal

²Website for raw data for *The Commission on Youth Voting and Civic Knowledge Youth Post-Election Survey 2012*: <http://www.icpsr.umich.edu/icpsrweb/ICPSR/studies/35012>

³Official website for the Schools and Staffing Survey: <http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/sass/index.asp>

⁴Official website for the Secondary Longitudinal Studies Program: <http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/slsp/>

Study of 2002 contains items related to computer use in social studies courses, technology use more generally, students' views of working to reduce socioeconomic equality, civic engagement at school, measures of school climate, and an array of contextual factors related to student outcomes. The 2009 questionnaire also included measures of political participation.

International Civic and Citizenship Study (ICCS)

A comparative research program of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), the 2009 International Civic and Citizenship Study built on two previous international studies in 1971 and the 1999 CIVED study. ICCS includes samples of schools in 38 countries, which include Eastern and Western Europe, Asia, Pacific states, and Latin America. The complete dataset is freely available on the studies' website.⁵ In addition to the availability of the raw data, there are several online tools that assist with analyzing ICCS data. The IEA created software including the International Database (IDB) Analyzer and the IEA Data Visualizer. These tools allow for analysis of ICCS data for novice and advanced statistical analysis.

The study is the most valuable source currently available for researching civic engagement in youth from an international perspective. In addition to the baseline study, modules with regional items are included for Asia, Europe, and Latin America. The survey includes data from students, teachers, and school principals. The ICCS assessment is organized around three dimensions: a content dimension focusing on civic society, civic principles, civic participation, and civic identities; a behavior domain exploring values, beliefs, attitudes, and behavioral intentions; and finally a cognitive domain assessing knowledge, reasoning, and analyzing (Schulz, Fraillon, Ainley, Losito, & Kerr, 2008). Another wave of the ICCS is set to launch in 2016.

National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP)

Supported by the National Center for Education Statistics, The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has been measuring student progress since 1964. Downloading the freely available data requires a restricted-use license.⁶ Fortunately, NAEP has a data explorer tool freely available online. The tool allows researchers to create tables and charts that can provide important insights into social studies research. Fitchett and Heafner (2013) utilized this tool to analyze connections between social studies teaching and student achievement. They also have examined

⁵Website for the International Civic and Citizenship Study: <http://iccs.acer.edu.au/>

⁶For more information regarding restricted-licenses see: <http://nces.ed.gov/statprog/instruct.asp>

differences in the predicative achievement of subgroups and the association with instructional practices and learning contexts (Heafner & Fitchett, 2015).

NAEP administers assessments to students in grades 4, 8, and 12, in 12 different subjects. Social studies scholars will likely be interested in assessments on civics, economics, geography, and United States history. The civics assessment measures students' civic knowledge, intellectual skills, and civic dispositions. The economics portion reports the results of three content areas, which include the market economy, national economy, and international economy. The geography portion measures cognitive and content outcomes. The four themes of the United States history portion explore change and continuity in American democracy, the gathering and interactions of peoples, cultures and ideas, economic and technological changes and their relation to society, ideas and the environment, and the changing role of America in the world. These data are rife with opportunities to examine student learning outcomes.

In addition to content specific examinations, NAEP has conducted additional studies useful to social studies researchers. The NAEP High School Transcript Study provides information about the types of courses that graduates take, how many credits they earn, GPAs, and the relationship between courses taken and patterns of achievement. The transcript study includes information related to civics, geography, and U.S. History. The National Indian Education Study (NIES) is designed to explore the conditions of education for American Indian and Alaska Native students. Finally, additional studies include assessments regarding the achievement gaps, charter schools, inclusion of students with disabilities, and linking with international assessments such as the TIMMS.⁷

Survey on the Status of the Social Studies (S4)

The recent study, *The Status of the Social Studies (S4)*, provides the most social studies oriented large-scale dataset of teachers in the United States. Indeed, the study addresses the need for more large-scale research to build foundational knowledge regarding present-day social studies teaching and learning (Fitchett, Heafner & VanFossen, 2014; Heafner et al., 2014; Passe & Patterson, 2013). The project surveyed over 11,000 elementary, middle, and high school teachers, in 44 states, exploring important issues related to social studies education (Fitchett & VanFossen, 2013; Passe & Fitchett, 2013). The data and codebook are openly available online.⁸ Survey items covered a wide array of topics including measures of school contexts, curricular emphases, teaching strategies, and professional issues. Resulting studies provide a complex picture of the state of social studies teaching in various regions across the nation (Passe & Fitchett, 2013).

⁷Trends in International Mathematics and Sciences Study.

⁸The Status of the Social Studies: <http://arc.irss.unc.edu/dvn/dv/UNCCdata>

A Word of Caution: Avoiding Pitfalls of Big Data and Data Analytics

In the final section of this chapter, we offer caution in work with big data and in conducting secondary data analysis. Large-scale data-based research is not without limitations. Acknowledging the boundaries of data interpretations will strengthen the overall quality of research. Avoiding some of the pitfalls of big data can push social studies research to a more rigorous and influential policy level.

Limitations of Interpretation

Big data has the potential to produce findings necessary to inform policy and improve the learning experiences of students. However, the objectivity of data analyses cannot be separated from the interpretations of political power brokers to implement educational reform in the name of big data (Henrig, 2012, 2013). The unintended consequences of NCLB, such as the marginalization of social studies or the elimination of the fine arts, provide a basis for these concerns. Scholars have issued concerns regarding the validity of basing important decisions on the findings of secondary analysis (Kane, 2012; Torney-Purta & Amadeo, 2013a). Indeed, by making claims beyond what data support, researchers could mislead policy makers and educators. Likewise, when policy strives to achieve purposes far removed from the original research design, data interpretations are misguided (Feuer, 2010).

The meaningfulness and defensibility of data-based policy resides in the original purposes of the assessments, such as NAEP's goal to measure content knowledge or ILSA's intent to compare educational systems across nations. Feuer (2010) contends that no assessment system is likely to adequately satisfy the many purposes for which it is used. The challenge for policymakers is figuring out the criteria to accept or reject findings of even the most advanced comparative designs so as to avoid unintended outcomes of narrowly focused educational reform. Ravitch (2010) highlights comparable limitations when data are misused for politically charged agendas that fail to consider the reliability and validity of data applications. Similarly, international data comparisons lead to national concerns in the U.S. but the methods used to drive educational reform in the U.S., i.e. teacher accountability and high stakes testing, do not mirror strategies or structures in leading countries, like Finland or Japan. As Henig (2012, 2013) suggests, policy decisions derived from data do not operate outside the political realm and should be considered in light of their ability wield power and influence. Politics controls what data are collected, who will be included within data, who has access to data, and how are data applied. Inferences and judgments drawn from data results need to be operationalized within the validity of assessments, guided by research expertise, and balanced with complex, multi-layered educational goals of all stakeholders.

To avoid such mistakes, data analysts and reviewers must have a common understanding of the limitations inherent in the data and methods when working with big data. In addition, data are political and yield power and control. Taking steps to use politics to protect and defend high-quality data and well-informed application can avoid unintended uses as well as outcomes of big data. With this knowledge, findings from secondary datasets can produce rigorous research necessary for the improvement of education. The subsequent sections summarize key limitations of interpretation researchers should consider when conducting and reviewing analysis of existing datasets. Heeding our statistical recommendations will help researchers avoid some of the pitfalls when working with large datasets and conducting secondary data analyses.

Scaling with Item Response Theory (IRT)

Many large-scale studies, such as the IEA ICCS and the NEAP, use some variation of Item Response Theory (IRT) to create scales measuring a trait or ability. More specifically, IRT scaling is a psychological theory based method of mental measurement that measures a trait more accurately than the simple summation of multiple test items (de Ayala, 2009; Osterlind, 2009). In contrast to the wide use of IRT scaling, the public often believes that ‘you score a test by adding the scores for items’ (Braun & Mislevy, 2005). Torney-Purta and Amadeo (2013a) suggest this lack of knowledge regarding IRT scaling can lead to misunderstandings of research findings. For example, when IRT scaling combines several survey items, the researcher decides upon an arbitrary mean and standard deviation. The scale for civic knowledge on the IEA ICCS study has a mean of 500 and a standard deviation of 100. However, a researcher could just as easily use the scale of 50 and 10, thus making the differences between two groups appear superficially smaller. Similar scaling is applied to other data sources, like NAEP. Thus, researchers must be clear regarding the scaling methods they choose. In addition, findings should make specific mention means and standard deviations when discussing variables and relationships.

Consideration of Distributions

Policy reports commonly rank countries based on aggregate student achievement in order to compare one country’s success in subjects such as math, science, or civic knowledge in relation to other countries. However, scholars criticize the practice by pointing out this method fails to consider distributions that exist within those rankings (Carnoy & Rothstein, 2013; Torney-Purta & Amadeo, 2013a). For example, scores of students in the United States tend to be bimodal, meaning that students score either high or low, with fewer in the middle (Torney-Purta & Amadeo, 2013a). Alternatively, some countries have more normal distributions. Thus, simply ranking countries ignores the complex nature of student outcomes as well as cultural

differences data do not take into account. Focusing on aggregate data provides an overly simplistic understanding of a phenomenon under investigation.

Following the critique above, researchers should exercise caution when aggregating data. While this can provide a description of relative importance there are limitations. A level of familiarity is required to understand findings. Instead, more sophisticated research questions focus on the nature of the distributions and the relationships that underlie. In other words, questions should explore relationships between individual demographics, community contexts, and process-related learning opportunities in the school and community in relation to certain outcomes (Torney-Purta & Amadeo, 2013a, 2013b; Torney-Purta, Andolina, & Amadeo, 2010). For example, rigorous research assesses differences in achievement distributions, as described above, by incorporating relevant factors that may produce the differences between countries, such as poverty and economic inequality (Carnoy & Rothstein, 2013; Fleischman, Hopstock, Pelczar, & Shelley, 2010; Gonzales et al., 2008; Wilkenfeld & Torney-Purta, 2012). These studies provided more accurate, useful, and relevant evidence regarding the nature of student outcomes than can be achieved by simply ranking countries or groups based on aggregate achievement. Although, being able to explore research questions that include a multitude of measures requires suitable data. Fortunately, most large-scale datasets allow for such complex data analysis.

Statistical Power and Effect Sizes

The large number of observations within big data sources provides a tremendous advantage for researchers. Such large N studies provide ample *statistical power*, or probability of correctly rejecting the null hypothesis (Liu, 2014; McKnight & McKnight, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In other words, power represents the likelihood that a relationship that actually exists has a chance of demonstrating significance through statistical analysis. Thus, having a suitable sample size becomes paramount to having statistical power necessary to show a significant relationship. Software programs, such as NCSS PASS, STATA, and IBM SPSS, can calculate the suitable sample size necessary to show a relationship given the desired statistical methods. However, the large sample sizes inherent to big data mostly make power analysis unnecessary.

While a large sample size provides benefits, a major pitfall exists. With a large enough sample size, the probability of finding a significant relationship or mean difference becomes nearly certain. Thus, rejection of the null hypothesis may be trivial. More directly, the strength of the relationship found may be minuscule leading to an overstatement regarding the importance of the findings. To solve this problem, researchers should consider the difference between *statistical* significance, assessing whether a relationship exists, and *substantive* significance, which determines the strength of the relationship. While uncovering weak relationships can have value, researchers should temper their discussions based on the effects size of the given relationship. Limitations arise with statistical significance because this

process confounds the degree of impact and the size of the sample. Statistical significance, while informative in determining if an impact is present, does little in explaining how much an intervention (or variable) matters. This later focus is where effect size offers information regarding the substantive significance of results.

Effect sizes measure the magnitude of difference (e.g. how much of an effect between two groups). Effect sizes describe “the degree to which the observed relationship differs from zero” as well as measure “the strength of the relationship of interest” (Morgan, Reichert, & Harrison, 2002, p. 15). Determining if effects are large or small, substantive or trivial, guide in interpreting results and determining significance. Effect size allows for explanations beyond p-values to explicate population effects, or in simpler terms, describe what the study means to the field. In addition, effect sizes create a standard measure for comparing outcomes on the same scale. This allows for comparison of findings across studies and is helpful in meta-analyses.

There are many different methods for assessing substantive significance, or effect size, depending on type of statistical methods applied (see Grissom & Kim, 2012; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). These methods fall into two general categories: (a) those that compare standardized mean differences and (b) those that measure associations such as correlation and explained variance. A common method for testing differences between means is Cohen’s *d*. Cohen’s *d* allows for interpretation of effect size estimates relative to other effect sizes. Cohen (1988) suggests general definitions and scales for small ($d < .30$), medium (d ranges from $.30$ to $.50$), and large effects (d ranges from $.50$ to $.80$).

The second category of effect size measures includes correlation indicators (e.g. *R-squared*) and indicators that account for the amount of variance between variables (e.g. eta squared). One method of characterizing the strength of a relationship involves calculating the proportion of variance explained. The proportion of variance is represented by the symbol R^2 and is sometimes referred to as the coefficient of determination. It is calculated as a regression line which ranges from zero (no predict value) to one (perfect predictive accuracy). It accounts for how well a model explains the dispersion or variance of data from the regression line. Simply put, the explained variance measures how good the regression line predicts the actual scores for any given data set. More complex designs, including ANOVA and regression, can use *partial* η^2 (eta squared), to show the proportion of variance (plus error) in the dependent variable that attributed to the effects of the independent variable.

Measures of effect size become more complicated when implementing advanced methods such as multi-level modeling, structural equation modeling, and weighting. In addition to the methods described above, there are many other ways of assessing effect size including, comparing standardized coefficients, standardizing variables into the same metric and then comparing unstandardized beta coefficients, or adding variables of interest to regression analysis and assessing changes in R^2 .⁹ In sum, the method of assessing effect size depends on the statistical methods

⁹Proportion of variance explained in multi-level modeling.

utilized. More importantly, any research conducted using large datasets should consider the strength of relationships, in addition to statistical significance.

The Importance of Weighting

Difficulty using survey weights may lead to researchers to avoid using big data. Indeed, the commonly used stratified sampling designs often require weighting (see ShROUT & NAPIER, 2011). However, the representative sample provided by such datasets, which often requires weighting, presents one of the important advantages of using large datasets over self-collected data. While weighting can be troublesome, having a clear understanding of some key issues, such as strata and clusters, can illuminate their importance.

Most large-scale designs utilize a stratified sample design, which divides the population into groups or “strata” (ShROUT & NAPIER, 2011). During data collection, each stratum may have different proportions of respondents selected with varying probabilities. For example, when surveying teachers, a research group might divide them by state and attempt to survey every teacher within that state. However, response rates would vary across different states; perhaps the sample has 30 % of teachers in Missouri and 21 % of teachers in Kentucky. As a result, the data becomes less representative. Survey weights can adjust for the differences between the distribution of the sample and population.¹⁰ Therefore, weights control for the appropriate proportional representation of individuals in the target population.

In addition accounting for variations across strata, cluster samples often take multiple observations from a *primary sampling unit* (PSU), such as zip codes, countries, or schools. However, more observations from the same PSU may not add as much information as a single observation in a different unit. For example, students in the same school may have more in common compared to students in a different school. Perhaps all students in a single school score very highly on a measure of civic knowledge, while students in other schools score much lower, on average. Consequently, observations made on individual students cannot be assumed to be independent of each other. Left unaccounted for, such clusters can bias results. Levy and Lameshow (1999) refer to this loss of information as a *design effect*. Thus, a researcher cannot assume the independence of patterns within the data, considering they may exist within a particular PSU. Therefore, accurate statistical models must consider this limitation when making estimates.

In sum, statistical analysis requires survey weights anytime the outcome varies across strata or clusters, or when making an overall estimate of the population mean or standard deviation. Understandably, survey weights may be troublesome to navigate. Fortunately, common statistical analysis programs such as SPSS, SAS, HLM, AM, and STATA have capabilities to work with complex survey designs. Moreover, user guides for the respective datasets have suggestions as to which weighting

¹⁰The weight is typically the reciprocal of the probability of sample selection (ShROUT & NAPIER, 2011).

variables are appropriate for the desired analysis. Finally, there are numerous sources in print and online for both novice and advanced data analysts to assist with survey weights.

Causation and Correlations

Because of the large sample size of big data and the high probability of obtaining significance by chance, caution is needed in building statistical models. Although this is true for any statistical analysis, the enormous number of potential correlations in very large datasets substantially magnifies the risk of finding spurious correlations. A good example is when data dredging is used to fish for significance within any given data set. In a high-tech, mass information collection world, data dredging is actually a common practice. Yet, these processes pose a challenge especially when multiple datasets are compared. Given that it is possible to find correlations in very large datasets without understanding causation, researchers must be privy to what the data actually represent. For example, NAEP measures students' predictive content knowledge and links knowledge, skills, and concepts directly to curriculum; whereas, PISA measures literacy broadly and uses data to rank educational systems by country. Low scores on NAEP do not directly cause a lower international ranking; nor does a lower ranking predict that students will perform poorly on the NAEP. However, declining international rankings may be an indicator of an educational system that is not effectively preparing students, which may be supported by associated low NAEP scores. Likewise, data from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, or OECD, used in conjunction with SASS teacher salary data can provide a context for understanding salary compression issues in the USA by comparing salary growth in other countries (c.f. Boser & Straus, 2014).

What must be understood is that correlations show the existence of a possible relationship between variables. Correlation does not imply that one variable causes another; however, observed correlation provides evidence of conditions in which outcomes are predictable. Causation assumes that an event, such as a change in one variable, produces another event or outcome. While correlated variables do not necessarily cause others, the existence of certain variables provides a consistent context in which outcomes can be expected. Thus, causation can be cautiously interpreted when certain statistical conditions are met (Vogt, 1999). Consequently, statistical relationships offer interpretive significant insights that can help explain complex school, learning, and instructional contexts. The key to successfully examining big data is guided by fundamentally sound research design. Big data researchers need to ask appropriate questions to create a hypothesis, design a test, and use the data to determine whether that hypothesis is true. This makes secondary data analysis an important contemporary, twenty-first Century skill, and one that we contend should have a place in social studies education and teacher preparation.

Concluding Thoughts

Opportunities for large-scale analyses in social studies are expansive. The studies we present in this chapter showcase how secondary data analysis and using large datasets are important in addressing questions relevant to our field. Taking into account our recommendations and cautions for working with large datasets, high-quality, rigorous research designs have the potential to broaden our collective understanding of social studies and education. As big data continue to grow, which we contend is inevitable, there is much wisdom to be gained from the *vox populi*. Easily accessible large data sets and secondary data analysis provide valuable prospects for researchers and teachers to examine and interpret persistent issues and topics relevant to social studies education. Big data holds promise for expanding existing theoretical positions while also promoting new ways of thinking within the field.

Using large datasets and secondary data analysis does not have to be the privilege of statisticians and quantitative-oriented researchers. We encourage future researchers to expand their epistemological and methodological horizons by using secondary datasets to either jumpstart a research project or examine an existing line of inquiry at the macro-level. There are numerous researchers within social studies or associated fields (i.e. political science, geography, and economics) for collaboration. The recently founded College and University Faculty Assembly SQUARSS group (Supporting Quantitative Understanding, Analysis, and Research in the Social Studies) includes members who have substantial expertise with secondary datasets and would be an asset to an interested researcher.

Opening awareness to the value of multiple, sophisticated statistical approaches to answer discipline-specific questions and tackle educational policies are important steps in expanding the knowledge of the field while also increasing the fields' political presence. Big data are political and politics is highly susceptible to data-based agendas. What social studies researchers choose to do with big data, large datasets, and secondary data analysis will greatly impact the field in relation to other disciplines as well as inform and expand the frame of well-established research practices. The quantitative research designs discussed in this chapter document discipline-specific patterns that can work in tandem with qualitative research to advance understanding of complex educational contexts prevalent in social studies. In closing, big data, large-scale data, and secondary data analysis have the potential to create new opportunities for increasing social studies relevance in this ever-changing educational landscape.

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Chapter 20

Stand(ard) and Deliver: Yet Another Standards-Based Framework and the Ground-Level Work of Preservice Teacher Education

Todd Dinkelman, Kimberly Logan, and Alexander Cuenca

Introduction

Standards-based educational reform has not only become a fixture of U.S. schooling, but of schools and colleges of education as well. Teacher educators do not need to work long in the field before encountering a new standards-based framework that, for better or worse, influences their work (Sykes, Bird, & Kennedy, 2010). In social studies teacher education, these standards-based mandates often complicate a field rife with competing visions of what social studies should be and do (Au, 2009; Evans, 2006). Even within programs whose faculty shares a clear and coherent vision of “good” social studies teacher education, questions remain regarding how teacher educators should or can respond to yet another set of skills, performances, or dispositions to be adopted by their preservice teachers.

Our intent is not to argue for or against standards-based reform, but to provide a window into how such reform is navigated “on the ground” in teacher education. These mandates *do* something to teacher education programs. Yet it remains unclear exactly *what* they do, and more scholarship is needed surrounding how teacher educators and education students act upon these mandates once their programs adopt them, particularly in an era when “accountability” initiatives spread more and more from k-12 education into higher education (Zeichner, 2014). Does the adoption or imposition of a new set of teacher education standards change what happens in our programs? Do these standards mean anything to the preservice students who pass through our programs? Policy makers likely assume the answer to both questions is yes. However, we suspect the answers are more complicated. This paper contributes

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to the conversation of how (or if) standards-based reform influences pedagogical decisions in university-based teacher education.

Again, standards-based reform is nothing new. Teacher educators have adopted (or ignored) mandates for decades (Edelfelt & Raths, 2004; Labaree, 2004). The Common Core curriculum, the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium standards (InTASC), and now edTPA assessments (formerly the Teacher Performance Assessment), represent a recent wave, often promoted by state departments of education, licensing bodies, and accrediting agencies. edTPA alone is either in use or on its way for use in 33 states in the United States. Even though created for different purposes and manifested in different aspects of teaching and teacher education, these reforms all share a foundation in the idea that standards and accountability effectively center the work of learning to teach. In a reform context framed by two decades of attacks on public and teacher education in the United States, these standards-based reforms seem different from what came before (Zeichner, 2010). For example, some teacher educators have discovered edTPA, as a high-stakes and externally controlled performance assessment, forces them to cede control of how they evaluate, support, and focus the work of the preservice teachers who complete their certification programs (Au, 2013). For many teacher educators, this encroachment on the agency of teacher educators is a shift worth noting.

In light of these new reforms, we go inside our own contexts to share some of what happens in our teacher education classrooms as we help our students interpret and “meet” such standards. Our field cannot know how teacher educators adopt and adapt to these mandates if we do not share our pedagogical choices. This research contributes to a needed conversation surrounding the influence of high leverage standards-based reforms on social studies teacher education. In particular, we share how we interpret the language of InTASC Model Core Teaching Standards through our visions for social studies teacher education – visions collectively steeped in the goals of democratic education. We focus on InTASC standards because of their “compatibility with the recently released Common Core State Standards” (CCSSO, 2011) and alignment with edTPA (SCALE, n.d.). Additionally, our own State Department of Education has mandated InTASC as the official standard set for all state-approved preservice teacher preparation programs. Regardless of whether we supported, or even understood, these standards, our program has been charged to employ them in our instruction, curriculum, assessments, and field experiences. But what does this charge mean for our pedagogical decision-making as teacher educators, and how do these choices influence our students? In other words, what do these standards look like “in action?”

In what follows, we answer these questions by providing an analysis of one part of the InTASC standards. Our intent is to unpack its conceptual meanings and pedagogical implications in the context of a particular social studies teacher education program. We highlight how we interpret the language of the first InTASC general category – the learner and learning – in ways that align with our pre-established visions of “good” social studies teacher education. By sharing our interpretations, we reveal the reflexivity of teacher educators as the crucial filter in standards- and

accountability-driven teacher education reform. Then, we share examples of written work provided by our preservice students.

These examples illustrate something more about the ways our pedagogical decision-making, framed as it was by a standards-based document, influenced the learning of our students. Of course, the story we tell here speaks only to our own experiences, and we do not mean to suggest that our work with standards typifies work done elsewhere. However, we argue for a rethinking of social studies teacher education research and practice that shifts attention from the standards themselves. We refocus the conversation to the work of those who interpret, adopt, and learn from them. Obviously, the field benefits from all sorts of research on standards-based teacher education reform. At the same time, the actual practice of teacher education in all of its varied contexts must be a part of the research and practice conversation in order to gain a richer understanding regarding standards-based mandates.

When Theory Meets Practice: Unpacking the Standards

How features of teacher education programs work together and for what ends represent two large-scale areas of research that could use more attention, especially in social studies (Adler, 2008; Armento, 1996). Over the last two decades, theoretical and empirical research trends in teacher education (Cochran-Smith, Feiman-Nemser, McIntyre, & Demers, 2008; Zeichner, 1999) have opened up spaces for scholarly exploration of the inner workings of teacher education. For example, a growing literature on methods courses and field experiences has begun to dig deeper into the conditions, practices and effects of preservice teacher education (Clift & Brady, 2005). Some of this work has been done in social studies (e.g. see Conklin, 2008; Hawley, 2010; Journell, 2013; Manfra, 2009). Yet this important scholarship is only in its beginning stages.

In an important sense, the method of inquiry employed in this work is conceptual analysis, given that nearly every standards framework typically represents a vast collection of concepts deemed fundamental to effective teaching and learning. At the same time, a central argument of this chapter is that the meaning, influence, and value of these frameworks derive not so much from the concepts themselves, but through the manner in which teacher educators working in specific contexts interpret them. Real teacher education reform is not simply about reshuffling and rearticulating ideas about good teaching in a standards document. Change also happens in the thousands of different moments in thousands of different places in schools, colleges, and universities, when preservice and inservice teachers and teacher educators come together to enact their own visions of teacher development and growth.

The method of inquiry in this work grounds itself in the experiences of the authors: Todd, an experienced teacher educator with nearly two decades of teacher education experience; Alex, an early-career professor of social studies education; and Kim, a recent Ph.D. in social studies education. The work of all three overlapped

in the same teacher education program over a several year span. As a self-study, our means of looking into these standards is supported by our belief that the latest standards frameworks are largely window-dressing until we know how teacher educators interpret and use them. Self-study methodology, as defined by LaBoskey (2004), organized our inquiry as self-initiated and focused, improvement aimed, interactive, and used to understand practice primarily through the use of qualitative methods, and reliant upon “exemplar-based validation” (p. 852). For LaBoskey, self-study “suggests that the validation of the local knowledge, the approximate, suggestive knowledge, thus generated must be ongoing” (p. 860). The logic of the inquiry thus brings together a situated, collaborative, and conceptual analysis that we hope makes visible the means of interpretation we bring to this instance of “standards-based” reform in teacher education.

To address the “how” of “reform in action” in social studies teacher education classrooms, the authors drew from their experiences teaching a secondary social studies student teaching seminar centered on “unpacking” a standards-based framework. We choose not to pitch this inquiry as a “wisdom of practice” study (Wilson, 2001) in the sense that we do not present our work as an exemplar. We simply acknowledge that our distinct experiences and work in this setting played an absolutely essential role in helping us to develop the separate conceptual analyses we bring to interpreting the InTASC standards.

Our history with this particular student teaching seminar was not framed by the specific language of the InTASC standards addressed here. For much of Todd’s history with the course, that particular standards document did not exist. Instead the course was organized to address the standards in another standards-based document – the Georgia Framework for Teaching (GSTEP, 2005). In both form and content, a “crosswalk” comparison of the Georgia Framework and InTASC revealed remarkable overlap. Both identify, address, and are organized around sweeping domains of teacher work – knowledge of students, student learning, assessment, planning, content knowledge, e.g. Each domain breaks down further into lists of sub-standards related to that domain. The “sameness” or “construct equivalency” of the two documents opened up the opportunity for us to draw on our past experiences in this student teaching seminar to center our analysis on InTASC standards. In this study, we address the InTASC standards as the new charge from the State for our program, and because of its centrality to increasingly popular standards-based reform initiatives, such as edTPA and the Common Core.

For each standard within the four general categories of the InTASC framework, authors wrote separate interpretative accounts structured by three questions:

1. *What do you hope your student teachers will understand/question about this Standard?*
2. *What questions or challenges do students have regarding this Standard?*
3. *What sense do student teachers make of the themes found in this Standard?*

We brought these accounts together in a single, electronically shared document. In a variety of meeting formats – asynchronous and synchronous writing, video and face-to-face meetings – we explored similarities and differences in our individual accounts. Our findings are a reconstruction from this collaborative analysis. We

present this reconstruction dialogically, in a script format, to help the reader understand the interpretations we brought to this study. The result is an account of the tensions, pitfalls, affordances, questions, and productive openings we find in the InTASC mandate. In this way, we offer the results as a window into the sense-making of three social studies teacher educators who share a similar vision of what it means for teachers to work toward the democratic promise of social studies education. As such, we argue the dialogue below *is* the analysis. We invite readers to employ LaBosky's "exemplar validation," as they position themselves in, and hopefully continue, the conversation in light of their own teacher education contexts.

Talking Standards: Goals, Challenges, and Examples

What follows are the ways we thought about and responded to the first InTASC standard on Learner Development under the InTASC category: *The Learner and Learning*. We chose to focus on this standard to illustrate the complexity of just one fraction of the larger InTASC standards. Again, the contextual frame for the discussion is our experiences in Student Teaching Seminar (hereafter referred to as Seminar), the final course in our preservice teacher education program, a weekly university-based class taken concurrently with the student teaching field experience. More than any other course or field experience, this course distinguishes itself as the place on the program map that asks preservice teachers to explicitly and systematically address the language of standards frameworks. Indeed, when we have taught the course, the standards framework in place that particular semester largely sets the curriculum for the semester. Presently and until the next round of standards rolls off the presses, InTASC standards frame the Seminar.

More than the particular standards themselves, the way we use the standards is what says the most about our intentions for the course. We do not "teach the standards" in a linear, problem-free manner. Instead the standards mark off *problem spaces* for our collaborative inquiry in the course. Seminar is about making sense of the standards, or developing deeper and more sophisticated understandings of what the standards mean. Even more, the course is about asking questions of standards, exploring critiques of standards, and looking broadly for the ways in which they speak to our developing practices as social studies educators. The process of interrogating standards is carried out in a community of practice, as student teachers come together weekly from their middle and high school classrooms. In a sense then, the star of the show is less the standards themselves, and more what we do with them.

Below we list the InTASC standard, discuss our goals and challenges with such a standard, and describe how we have seen students interpret the themes found in the standard. We supplement our conversation by sharing several examples of work completed by student teachers who learned in our student teaching seminars, in pedagogical spaces that brought our interpretations of standards-based frameworks to life. We conclude with a discussion of what our work in this inquiry suggests about rethinking social studies education.

Standard 1: Learner Development

The teacher understands how learners grow and develop, recognizing that patterns of learning and development vary individually within and across the cognitive, linguistic, social, emotional, and physical areas, and designs and implements developmentally appropriate and challenging learning experiences.

What Do You Hope Your Student Teachers Would Understand/ Question about This Standard?

Kim: When it comes to Standard 1 and Learner Development, I first hope that my student teachers will respond to their students as “whole people.” My focus immediately goes to the phrase in this standard, “patterns of learning and development vary *individually*.” I want preservice teachers to recognize that their students have different ways of viewing the world and the classroom, that there is not a “one size fits all” approach to learning. At the same time, I want them to understand there are common ways students learn – such as asking questions, discussion, reflection, and problem solving. I think the tension here is what I see as the two sides of the coin of learner development: one side is individual (*cognitive, linguistic, social, emotional, and physical areas*), the other side is the prevalent ideas about how people learn or learning theories. The trick for me is to help student teachers see that you can speak to individual difference while also using approaches built on more general ways of learning. I do not have a background in educational psychology, but I hope through discussions on the different ways that students learn to further student teachers’ thinking about pedagogical choices.

Todd: Kim’s reference to the field of educational psychology is right on the mark. Of course, no lone educator sits down and writes single-handedly an all-encompassing, comprehensive framework for teaching, such as the InTASC Standards. Such nationally prominent frameworks develop over time by committee, or by lots of committees. You can see the interests of different groups representing perspectives on teaching and learning across this extensive statement of good teaching. In particular, this standard reflects the contributions of educational psychology. Learner growth and development over time, patterns of learning, theories of intellectual development, learning styles, multiple intelligences theories, child and adolescent development – all of these owe much to research and practice in educational psychology for their places on the map of these standards.

When I lead Seminar through this section, I am up front about my own educational biography. I took the requisite educational psychology courses required of me in the various certification and graduate programs I completed. I found them all interesting, some more so than others. However, my path in teaching and teacher education was guided more by educational foundations than educational psychology. The two traditions are not exactly opposing, but they do carry different emphases,

questions, and ways of thinking about the questions of how people develop and learn. I find both of these two domains of educational studies valuable for the different problems they identify. At times, they complement each other. Still, I make it clear to students that I am not an expert in educational psychology. It's a productive admission because I find over and over again that student teachers aren't experts either, and they sometimes express worry that they can't remember what they learned in prior teacher education courses. In our teacher education programs, like most, they have taken a required educational psychology course, just as they have taken an educational foundations, or the "school and society," course. Farther along in the program, now as student teachers some semesters later, some tend to be not all that confident about what they remember from either.

I do think it's important for student teachers to pose perhaps the most fundamental question in educational studies – how do people learn? If earning a degree in education means anything, it should mean that student teachers have something to say about how students learn. Their expertise on this fundamental question should extend beyond what anyone who hasn't studied education might offer up. That idea seems like a pretty uncontroversial statement to me. Yet I am almost always struck by how that question seems to stop so many student teachers in their tracks. How do people learn? How do *their* students learn?

The answers I want them to consider draw from several sources. Of course, I want them to consider various theories of teaching and learning. I want them to think deeply about the cognitive, linguistic, and social aspects of productive classroom and school environments. They should think about the different developmental places their students might find themselves. They should look for the "patterns of learning and development" that the standard highlights. If their looking is made more insightful by consideration of multiple intelligence theories, then all the better. In the best Seminar discussions, we eventually get to these concerns. However the starting point is how students learn. Do they learn content from daydreaming, as powerpoint after powerpoint flashes by, through copying guided notes? Or do students learn from encountering and struggling with problems embedded in the content?

Another important feature of Seminar is the work we do to unpack cliches. With this standard, I want them to slow down and work both to find the truth and to look skeptically at the idea that "every learner is different." I mean, the idea is indisputable – every learner is unique. Differences among learners matter. Yet I don't want them to use this idea as the stopping point for inquiry about the challenges particular students face. It's all too easy for a student teacher to employ the "every learner is different" idea in a manner that dispenses with the challenge of working to understand what this phrase might mean for a teacher who faces a class of 30 students. For all of the attention they encounter to the idea of individual differences, I want them also to consider that perhaps many, most, or all people also share a lot in common in the way they grow in understanding. I challenge them to consider that, perhaps at its root, learning happens when people encounter questions and problems that interest them, when they work to construct new meaning by merging some of what they already understand with new knowledge.

Given what we know about what does, or more accurately does not, happen in many school classrooms, I also really want them to think about the notion of *challenging* learning experiences. Here I refer not to the challenge many students face – putting up with the slow, mindless passing of time so familiar to many. I also don't mean the other familiar challenge of what Postman and Weingarten referred to as “playing let's pretend.” Let's pretend what happens in classrooms is really important to students. Let's pretend the flood of information in a textbook, lecture, PowerPoint, and handouts is interesting to students. Let's pretend students are intellectually or emotionally engaged by the curriculum. Rather, I want student teachers to draw an unbreakable association between “challenging” and “learning experiences” through the idea of drawing students into questions and problems that they have an interest in exploring. I want student teachers to consider that this is the fundamental challenge at the center of teaching and learning. How might they respond to this fundamental challenge?

Alex: When I attempt to unpack this standard, I see an important distinction among understanding, recognizing, and designing and implementing. I rely on the idea that the “understanding” of how learners grow and developed has been elsewhere in the curriculum of our teacher education program. I then ask my students to consider how those understandings have become more nuanced as they have been applied to specific learners in practice. In what ways have those understandings helped them recognize patterns of learning? How have those understandings help them see the variance of learning across individuals? How have those understandings provided insights into the design and implementation of learning experiences?

What I attempt to get my students to see is that recognition is also coupled with valuing the differences of learners. Oftentimes my student teachers have struggled with the ability to see this difference as a value in their classroom. It is this struggle that I've seen turn into a deficit mentality that I attempt to anticipate during the Seminar. Once we can move from simply recognizing to recognizing *and* valuing, then I think students are able to work on designing and implementing. Of course, in the life of a fifteen week seminar, recognizing and valuing is generally not resolved in a single 3-h course meeting. However, I believe that the conversations during the seminar foster growth in this direction.

What Questions or Challenges Do Students Have regarding This Standard?

Kim: When I worked with standards-based frameworks in the past, I had student teachers complete a worksheet for each standard that requires them to: rewrite the standard in their own words; list questions regarding the standard; provide examples of what they do during student teaching that relates to the standard; list ideas of what they might do in the future; and then talk about how the standard relates to their overall teaching rationale. This worksheet has been the starting point for

unpacking standards and for the discussions in Seminar. Todd initially created these worksheets and many instructors have continued to use them in their student teaching seminars as a way to generate discussion and further understanding of the standards. The worksheets establish the means to trouble the standards and create the “problem spaces” that organize our work together throughout the semester.

Our classroom discussions typically take place in small groups first and then with the whole class, and the dialogue often leads to more questions and seemingly better understanding of the goals and purposes behind each standard. Even though the discussions can be very engaging, I often do not know how to assess my students’ learning. For example, I appreciate when a student teacher shares his or her struggle with a particular standard. But I want the discussion to be more than cathartic. There should be a place for student teachers to share their struggles, but I do not want them to stay in the place where they see a standard as impossible or impractical. It is difficult to know how to mediate these moments since the pressure student teachers experience is real and each placement is different. One thing I often do is have student teachers who are experiencing some success in the area, or focus of the standard, share their stories. These examples from the field demonstrate the ways that the goals of the standard are possible.

Regarding learner development, student teachers often struggle with addressing individual difference, feeling it is unrealistic to individualize instruction considering the number of students in their classrooms and other responsibilities. I think there are common misconceptions of what a standard like this is asking. In other words, some student teachers may view this standard as an unrealistic expectation to create individual lessons for all students. It can be difficult for them to understand that you can account for individual difference with a general lesson plan. If they do feel this standard is completely idealistic, then they write it off as impractical theory to be shed at the college door, especially if they are in a student teaching placement where they feel overwhelmed. If they feel they are “behind” in covering content, “how students learn” or individual difference takes a backseat to “covering the material” by any means necessary (survival). The focus may become about pleasing the department in their school placement, being able to say, “Yes, I covered the material I was expected to cover.” This also relates to the focus on designing “challenging learning experiences” at the end of Standard 1. Some student teachers think it is unrealistic to challenge all students. They do not feel they have the time or resources.

Todd: Over the many times I have led Seminar, I have come to see the problems student teachers encounter with this standard as somewhat predictable. How do people learn in general? What differences among students can you get better at, as Alex notes, “recognizing” in your classrooms? How does a growing understanding of individual difference shape your instructional and curriculum choices? Here is the challenge Kim encounters. I attempt to lead the consideration of differences along the path Alex suggests. I too want to avoid the “name then blame” risks of individual differences, the potential that once differences are recognized, they become reified and seen as deficits. I worry a bored student in the back of the classroom who passes time by sketching in a notebook will become a “bodily kines-

thetic” learner who, once so named, will not be seen capable of learning through reading or engaging classmates in authentic, disciplined conversation. So part of what I do is try to “push back” against the inevitable turn toward “learning styles” discourse.

Another related caution I often bring to our shared inquiry is what I hope will turn into a nuanced appreciation for the complexity of individual differences. For example, *knowing about* multiple intelligence theory is not the same thing as a practicing teacher having a *working understanding* of multiple intelligence theory. Student teachers need to know the latter takes time to develop. I ask student teachers to consider what sort of learners they themselves are. How much do you know about your *own* state or stage of “cognitive, linguistic, social, emotional, and physical” development to speak confidently about how you learn best? More than a few are caught off guard by this question. I suggest that there are few others in our lives we know as well as ourselves. If we have difficulty identifying and articulating how we learn best, how much more difficult is it to make the same sorts of claims for a class of students we don’t know all that well, for three or four classes of 30 students each? My intention here is not to suggest that the lens of “learner development” is so complex to be unusable. Rather, I hope to have student teachers approach the entire range of individual differences in a tentative manner. Wherever individual learners are in their development matters. Discerning *how* these differences matter is something good teachers develop over time, and the challenge of discernment never ends. This ongoing challenge of discernment really is one of the great joys of teaching.

Alex: Like Todd, I believe that a fundamental question that students must be able to answer as they leave a teacher preparation program is: How do students learn? Luckily, there is an entire book dedicated to that very question published by Donovan and Bransford (2004) titled *How Students Learn*. I generally assign the introduction chapter from that book to set up our conversation. In that introduction, the authors lay out three principles: (1) engaging prior understandings; (2) the essential role of factual knowledge and conceptual frameworks; and (3) the importance of self-monitoring. These three principles become the starting point for our discussion about the various differences that exist within the classroom. In particular, the principle of engaging prior understanding provides the most direct pathway to address how individual differences influence learning. I use the following quote to start our conversation and my line of questioning for the discussion: “new understandings are constructed on a foundation of existing understanding and experiences” (p. 5).

I begin with a broad question for my student teachers: Given your experience so far, what kinds of prior understandings and experiences will help your students learn? The question usually invites stories from the field, and I use these stories to further probe their experiences to help them make sense of how teachers ought to extract prior understanding and experiences, and how these understandings and experiences differ in the classroom. Moreover, I work to help students see the value of these differences. As I mentioned earlier, at times, as student teachers work to make sense of what prior experiences and understandings matter, they fall into a deficit mentality. It is here where I attempt to question this mentality, and where in

the past, other students have questioned each other about deficit considerations. We work through the other principles in a similar fashion. I solicit stories from the field, and then as a group we work together to probe not only what the principle means, but also how the principle operates in practice. Throughout this process however, I'm mindful to highlight how individual differences matter and must be recognized and valued in the classroom.

Todd: As Kim addresses, one concern is the sheer numbers of students school teachers are expected to consider as individuals, all with arguably unique learning development profiles. Is it realistic to expect student teachers to assess each of their students along social, emotional, cognitive, physical continua? The idea of differentiated curriculum makes more sense in a university-based teacher education classroom than in the stressful environment of classrooms. Those first learning to teach often find difficulty in providing a "passable" lesson plan for an entire and single class, let alone differentiated plans that meet the needs of so many different students at so many different places developmentally.

Besides the complexity posed by sheer numbers of students, the many different kinds of developmental patterns highlighted add another layer of complexity. Consider that each type of development – "cognitive, linguistic, social, emotional, and physical areas" – is distinct. Yet they also relate to each other. That is, one's cognitive development surely has something to do with one's linguistic development too, even if the relationship isn't always clear. I also find some types of development more difficult to even conceptualize. Although they are certainly "emotion-rich" places, schools often aren't explicitly considered as spaces for cultivating emotional development. Do teachers know enough about their own emotional development to understand and guide the development of their students? Viewed both separately and in combination, the standard calls for student teachers to have remarkably sophisticated knowledge of the development progressions suggested by particular (and related) developmental theories, presumably acquired in formal study or through experience, in order to put them to use in working with diverse students. There are very real limits to the extent to which we can expect preservice teachers to have picked up this sort of knowledge.

Let's play the complexity concern even further. Let's assume student teachers could be expected to have enough knowledge of learner development in all the various guises suggested by this standard. Even if student teachers have a working idea of what these distinct, yet overlapping sorts of development mean, there's still the issue of how they are to judge which sorts of development are relevant to what learning settings. It's a lot to judge that students' linguistic development is a factor at play in a given learning moment, as opposed to, say, their emotional development, or maybe none of these personal dimensions account for this instance of classroom life at all. In this moment, perhaps what best explains a room full of disengaged students is the uninspiring work put before them. Returning to a point both Kim and Alex made earlier, student teachers who understand that developmental differences among students factor into the success of teaching still struggle with the assessment issue of how sorting out how these differences matter in real-time teaching settings.

Although complexity poses a whole host of questions for student teachers, another concern stems from just the opposite – the risk of oversimplification. As already noted, the “name then blame” risk is ever present. Once an individual difference is noted and named for particular students in particular contexts, those differences can become reified in ways that limit expectations teachers bring to these students in other settings. “Slow-learner,” “immature,” “visual learner,” and other labels may become fixed. The oversimplification here is the reality that students show different features of their development in different settings. As well, students change. The whole idea of development hints at a progression or growth toward something else, something more. Once affixed, though, labels can work to discursively fix students in an overly simple category.

Another sort of oversimplification runs the opposite direction and skips specific labels altogether. Here the very idea of individual developmental differences suggests that “everybody is different.” The idea of students as unique individuals can turn towards an end to further deliberation about what these differences mean for teaching and learning. What sense is there in attempts to sort out where students are emotionally, linguistically, physically, cognitively, when the reality is everybody is different? In Seminar, I’ve repeatedly seen resistance to labels. “I don’t like to label students.” “Every student is an individual.” Not just for this standard, but also with standards that speak to cultural diversity. This oversimplification becomes a way of doing an end run, consciously or not, around serious reflection about what differences – developmental, intellectual, cultural, social – might mean for what we do as teachers to respond to these differences.

As with nearly all of the standards in this framework, another persistent challenge student teachers consider is the impression they get about how “learner development” is playing out in real school settings. Simply put, student teachers report that they do not see models of this standard put to practice in classrooms and schools in positive and productive ways. They report that “learner development” is often used in ways to *limit*, rather than to foster, student access to “appropriate and challenging learning experiences.” They hear that “these kids can’t handle” an activity that might push the boundaries. We know full well that many teachers use differences as dead-ends, rather than detours to more productive end points and further inquiry.

A very real danger is student teachers dismissing a perceived call to differentiate instruction, and the broader “learner development” standard itself, as grand sounding rhetoric that has nothing to do with the worlds they encounter in field placements. Out of the gate, with the very first standard, the lesson becomes “these standards are overly idealistic” and not to be taken seriously. This is precisely why I am an advocate for an intensive student teaching seminar, one that creates space for this sort of risk. If teacher educators do not help student teachers consider these very real concerns, if student teachers are left on their own to resolve these tensions, then the opportunity to shape how teachers will respond to “high standards” is easily lost. Can we be sure that their school experiences will help them work through or with these tensions in ways that leave new teachers on a trajectory of professional growth? Where else do student teachers get the messages that good teaching devel-

ops over time, that it's OK not to have the complexity figured out the first month or two of student teaching, the first years of their careers? Where else do students come to see that asking the right questions of these far-reaching standards is at the very core of good teaching?

Alex: I echo many of the same issues Todd and Kim have already highlighted. The notion that a teacher can capture the individual differences of 180 or so students sometimes seems like a preposterous notion. As a result, the entire notion of individual differences becomes dismissed because the numbers seem so overwhelming. Moreover, the most "individualization" many of my student teachers see in school are scores from standardized tests, which often tell them very little about the factors that this particular standard highlights. Depending on the school where a particular student teacher is at, the data produced by standardized tests become the one true indicator of individuality. Because the culture of these schools place such an emphasis on the metrics of learning, the challenge lies in both persuading and empowering student teachers to capture and utilize the other individual factors that influence learning.

Kim: What I think our analysis reveals is that a serious and close reading of this standard can lead to a sense of exasperation by both teacher educators and their students. When you tease apart all that is expected in this one standard, and really take it to heart, it is easy to become defeated and reject such a daunting call. After all, how many student teachers, and even teacher educators, can honestly say they know with any certainty how to successfully address the cognitive, linguistic, social, emotional, and physical areas of – as Alex says, 180 or so – students every day? However, it is important to point out that teacher educators and their students do take standards like this one and "do something" with it. In other words, standards, even grand ones, can be used to further dialogue surrounding (in this case) learner development. Even though standards can be deemed unrealistic and too intricate, teacher educators can take the meaning behind the standard and help student teachers re-think their pedagogy.

What Sense Do Student Teachers Make of the Themes Found in This Standard?

To answer this question, we turn to the voices of two students. Our choice to share these particular work samples is not to suggest that these students were typical or representative of the many student teachers who have passed through our program. Nancy and Amanda were high-achieving preservice social studies teachers who completed our program in different years. Todd was the Seminar instructor for both. At the end of the student teaching semester, students in our social studies education program create an e-portfolio to elaborate and reflect upon their views on the standards discussed in Seminar. The main task of this assignment is for student teachers to put into words a standpoint description, as they exit the program, of how they understand the meaning of the standards.

Below we share examples from two e-portfolios. Nancy's and Amanda's work (Boxes 20.1 and 20.2) illustrate how two student teachers conceptualized learner development at the end of their student teaching experience and after completing Seminar. We begin with each student teacher's description of her understanding of learner development, and then provide the artifact that demonstrates the standard "at work" in the student teaching classroom.

Box 20.1: Nancy on Learner Development

It's important for teachers not only to understand the different cognitive theories about learning, but also to get to know his/her students on an individual level. Knowing students' individual differences and ways of learning is just as important as knowing cognitive theory as a whole. If you know your students' individual learning styles, then you can tailor your instruction to...ways they learn best, improving the quality, speed, and amount of learning each student does. Teachers also need to be aware of the stage of development our students are at. This means understanding what age they are; how physically, mentally, and emotionally mature they are; and how much they have developed socially. We must be aware that our students are not adults; they are still growing and maturing, and therefore they interact, feel, and learn differently than adults do. For example, a 9th grade class will have different skill sets, ways of thinking, ways of interacting, emotional maturity, and learning styles than a 6th grade class or a 12th grade class. These developmental differences are a fact of life, and we must take them into account in our teaching....

Finally, this standard does not only mean knowing about students' individual needs and learning differences. It also means differentiating planning and instruction to meet those needs and differences. It is not enough to know that my students have individual differences, and what those differences are. I must then use that knowledge to create an individual learning experience for each student that best suits his/her specific needs. In practice, it is almost impossible to differentiate so much that every student is learning in a unique way; instead, teachers should do their best to vary instruction, using different methods that meet the different needs of their students, and then try to differentiate within the lesson as much as possible.

For example, if I have a student that I know does not work well in groups and learns better when she can do the work on her own, then I could differentiate for that student by allowing her to work alone. Or, if I know that some of my students are gifted I can differentiate for them by expecting them to go into greater depth and detail on written assignments than the other students. I could grade my gifted students more rigorously and yet grade the other students on a different scale that is tailored to their needs; in this case I would be differentiating my grading based on my knowledge of my students' expectationities (sic).

(continued)

Box 20.1 (continued)

Differentiation can be subtle, but it is necessary, because all students are different, and to treat them as if they were all the same is a fallacy that will lead to poorer learning experiences... teachers should know about their students' individual differences and use that knowledge to effectively differentiate their instruction, so that every student is learning in a way that suits him/her....

During my student teaching seminar, I learned a way to differentiate in my planning rather than just in my instruction and grading: plan projects that are more open-ended, with multiple options that students can choose from. For example, a classmate in my student teaching seminar came up with an alternative assessment called a "think tac toe": an open-ended ended project for which students could choose any three elements from a set of nine as long as the three choices made a straight line on the handout, which was set up like a tic-tac-toe grid. This assessment represents differentiated planning because it had options that would suit different learning styles: students could write poetry, create artwork, create a crossword puzzle, or make some cognitive maps, among other options. Students could choose among these several options based on their interests and how they learn best. I really liked this "think tac toe" assessment, because as I stated before I had trouble figuring out how to build differentiation into my lesson plans from the beginning, and this assessment seems like a good way to do that. I hope that I can continue to collaborate with my colleagues in the future, so that I can learn as much from them as I have from my classmates in student teaching seminar.

Box 20.2: Amanda on Learner Development

You can have the best lessons in the world, but if you are not letting how students learn inform your teaching then you will miss the mark. It was very hard for me to figure out how some students learned during my student teaching experience. I had always loved history and it always came easy to me. So I would become frustrated when it would take several tries for a student to grasp one tiny concept. "How can it be so hard?" I would think, "Isn't this common sense?" But it wasn't, not for them at least. I had to realize that how I learned in school was vastly different than most students. This realization made me panic because I realized that all students learn in very different ways. How could I be responsible for teaching so many different learning styles? However, in Seminar when we discussed this domain, I found some solace. We talked about that-though all students learn differently there are some universal truths too. All students must feel safe and respected for worthwhile learning to take place. If they are fearful of criticism or feel written off, then how can they push themselves to the high levels of learning... They also

(continued)

Box 20.2 (continued)

need very clear and explicit directions when trying something new. Something that seems common sense to me may be completely new to them. Thus giving clear directions on tasks I would even consider simple, like writing an outline, is imperative to help students learn. Students must also be given several tries, time, and patience to reach many goals in my rationale such as critical thinking and multiple perspectives taking. These are skills they are not often asked to perform and each try, even if unsuccessful, is a step towards learning how to master them. Finally the teacher must realize that students learn by activities such as solving problems they care about, solving puzzles, developing schema and as Grant Wiggins proposed, "Learning how to ask questions." Without activities like these students are not learning, but simply regurgitating arbitrary facts. ... this does not call for teachers to completely understand every students (sic) learning style because it is impossible. Rather we must start with the truths we do know about student understanding and start from there on our quest for worthwhile high level learning...

Every person is different. This includes every student, teacher, and even the person reading this e-portfolio. Just as one pair of pants would not fit all these different people, one approach to teaching will not fit all students. Teachers must design lessons that are suited to their students' unique development, learning styles, and areas of exceptionality. The first step in achieving this standard is getting to know your students. If you don't have any idea about where your students are developmentally, what their learning styles are, or their areas of exceptionality than how can you adapt your lessons to match them? This is why understanding students as whole people...is so important. In my World History class there was a broad range of developmental levels, learning styles, and areas of exceptionality. I had to decipher what they were through the course of the semester and as I did I was able to develop lessons that were tailor fit for my unique class. I did this by analyzing what activities helped what students the most, what activities they seemed to struggle with, and by having them take learning style quizzes and surveys. In this way my class ceased to be an educational factory that looked at students as identical products to be created and shipped out. Instead, it turned into a personal and realistic place where each person's skills, learning style, and exceptionalities were taken into account.

By taking these things into account in my lessons there was a greater chance for worthwhile learning and student engagement to take place. This occurrence can be likened to working out in a group aerobics class at the gym versus with a personal trainer. The group aerobics class may be somewhat beneficial as it is exposing you to exercise. However, your results would be much greater with a personal trainer who had tailored a unique plan based on your fitness level, goals, interests, and weaknesses. Working with the trainer would help you understand why you were working out the way you were and

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Box 20.2 (continued)

how to do it for yourself instead of just mindlessly following the group aerobics instructor. I want to be each and every one of my student's personal education trainer. I want to get to know each of them and what they are capable of, what teaching methods are most effective with them, and how their areas of exceptionality affect their learning. Then, just as a personal trainer would, I will develop a unique plan to address these needs and then configure it into a larger plan for the whole class. Education is not one size fits all, just as the pair of pants I mentioned earlier. That is why teachers need to take on a role similar to a personal trainer to assess student's abilities, learning styles, and areas of exceptionality to create personalized plans, both for the individuals and the class as a whole, to foster worthwhile learning and student engagement.

These examples provide insights into the ground-level work of students who struggled to make sense of the standard addressing learner development. In this assignment, preservice teachers are challenged to consolidate their thinking one last time before launching into professional practice. In our view, neither student formulaically reproduces the language of the standard, but rather each explores the evolving beliefs she holds at the end of her program, as well as what she has yet to understand. Both acknowledge struggling with differences in how learners develop. Nancy responds to the challenge of individual difference by planning lessons and assessments that give students different options to engage course material. Amanda acknowledges that every student learns differently, but she also looks to "universal truths" to anchor her pedagogical responses to individual diversity. Nancy points to the role Seminar played in creating a collaborative space to explore these ideas. She ends with the hope that she will find similar opportunities to collaborate with colleagues in the future. These perspectives, these interpretations matter. We would like to believe these are the understandings and questions two promising new social studies teachers took with them into their new careers.

The voices of both students echo the discussions shared in their respective Seminars and reflect the experiences they had as student teachers in charge of social studies classrooms. In these brief selections, we see ideas and lines of thinking that leave us fairly satisfied about where these two early-career teachers stood at the moment they left our program. Are their interpretations in line with, or reflective of, the intentions and hopes the authors of the standards had in mind? Are they in line with the interpretations of the legions of educators who will mark "satisfactory," "above average," or "not good enough," on the "performance" assessments of student teachers based on new standards-based reform documents? Both questions are hard to answer, of course. For our purposes, this glimpse into what students do with a standard vis-à-vis our own intentions and practices signals a productive place for

more inquiry, both formal research and more informal discussion within the profession. Without both a discerning look and intentional dialogue about the meaning and the actual interpretations that teacher education makes available for students learning to teach, we argue the standards themselves, as words on a page, have limited value for advancing the field.

Conclusion

Our “public” unpacking of this one particular part of the InTASC framework reveals the ways in which teacher educators make professional sense of “yet another standards framework,” as well as some insights into what student teachers can do with the standards. The methods of inquiry described above reveal the intellectual work we undertook to bring carefully considered, vetted, and arguably idealistic “standards-speak” about teaching and learning to the ground-level of enacted teacher education. In turn, the work of Amanda and Nancy also shed light onto the way we used standards to prompt teacher growth.

We can step back from our collective analysis of this particular aspect of the InTASC standard to make several general observations about this work. First, the standards, and the assessments that spring from them, give the appearance that teacher educators share a common language and vision. Yet the very meaning of the concepts can be considerably divergent. Even among teacher educators who share a similar vision of “good” teaching, our analysis revealed differences in how these standards are interpreted and enacted. If standards are taken seriously, we argue such differences feature prominently in teacher education. Second, we were reminded of the value of collaborative inquiry as a means for developing understanding about teacher education both in general and within our own program context. Third, our work provides an example of how standards might be used to create problem spaces for the intellectual work of exploring teaching and learning in social studies education. The Seminar encouraged student teachers to individually and collectively question standards, rather than to accept them uncritically.

Fourth, our work on this project illustrates the sheer complexity around meaning making and pedagogy in standards-based reform. From this standpoint, we argue that the sheer size, reach, and internal logic of comprehensive standards documents, such as InTASC, may very well encourage their actual *disregard*, all the while giving the appearance of promoting defensible visions of good teaching and program coherence. That is, the nature of standards frameworks, replete with unstable constructs packaged to capture everything that teachers should know and be able to do, risk deflecting the very kinds of engagement and dialogue we believe are crucial to the field.

Across all of these points, our call to rethink social studies teacher education is a call to extend research and discussion about standards-based reform from debates surrounding mandates, impositions, and policies to include the pragmatic work of teacher educators who marry these mandates with particular visions of good teach-

ing. As social studies teacher educators, we cannot ignore the ubiquitous presence of standards-based reform in our field. Their presence, especially in the form of each subsequent wave of “new and improved” standards claims a lot of attention in the field, as well it should. Almost overnight it seems, teacher educators are told to adopt new standards frameworks, change assessments to suit these new frameworks, and report their accomplishments to state and professional accreditation agencies in time-consuming ways that divert considerable attention from working with students (Johnson, Johnson, Farenga, & Ness, 2005).

We opened with the idea that these frameworks *do* something to teacher education. To learn more about this question, we believe we need greater research and consideration around what happens in teacher education classrooms, the visions enacted in such spaces, and the ways in which college- and university-based teacher education experiences work together with standards-based reform to promote preservice teacher learning in social studies and other content areas. The words of Nancy and Amanda provide evidence that the standards can be put to productive use in helping preservice teachers pose fundamental questions central to their work, such as how students learn, how teachers take into account individual differences to promote powerful learning, and what teachers need to do to best serve all of their students, many of whom are not like them. In our view, this is a key aspect of what teacher educators have to offer their own students. Indeed, this may be the most important contribution our work, especially that part of our work housed in university-based settings. We need courses that challenge preservice teachers to dig into the possible meanings of standards, see what understandings and practices they privilege, and find therein the openings to more powerful forms of teaching and learning. Unfortunately, the current literature on social studies teacher education provides limited examples of how, or even whether, teacher educators in our field are making good on this promise. So what directions might we take to address this shortcoming?

Rethinking social studies teacher education includes broadening the research base on social studies teacher education to include more self-studies, practitioner inquiry, descriptive accounts, and evaluations of innovative approaches to social studies teacher education. Although research on social studies teacher education has taken up this charge to some extent over the last two decades, we wonder whether more and different kinds of opportunities need to become available for sharing and discussion what we do as teacher educators, why we do it, and, crucially, to what effects. Would these opportunities mean rethinking how the field shares research in conferences and journals? Would these opportunities mean pushing back against merit and reward structures in higher education that undervalue any faculty work tied to the messiness of actual work in teacher education? Is the creation of these opportunities part of the same struggle that a much larger community of social studies teachers faces in the same and current reform context, as they themselves encounter another set of mandates that overlooks what they actually do in the classroom? At the very least, we hope to continue the dialogue of what mandates look like in our work as we wrestle with, adopt, and adapt them.

Reform that does not take into account the lives and work of teacher educators charged with converting *standards talk* into *standards action* is likely to suffer the same fate as standards in public schools. It becomes mere window dressing, but window dressing of a particularly pernicious kind. Such hollow reform mandates may very well have the same influence on teacher educators that the standards and accountability movement has had on the lives of many social studies teachers, as it has led to demoralization, alienation from the productive aspects of their work, and a sense of growing disrespect for the profession. We worry that the latest standards frameworks might be dismissed as the same old wine in a brand new bottle, grand sounding rhetoric ignored by teacher educators weary of reform initiatives imposed from the outside.

We hope to rethink standards-based reform in social studies education by focusing on the work of teacher educators – *standards action*, instead of debating the merits of whatever new mandate is coming next. After all, it seems standards-based reform is not going away any time soon. We believe dialogue on how standards are implemented, and hopefully used in productive ways, can benefit the field and perhaps influence the discourse surrounding the latest reform.

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Chapter 21

Supporting the Political Practice of Social Studies Teaching Across the Teacher Education Continuum

Kevin W. Meuwissen and Marcy L. Berger

Cadence¹ is an enthusiastic pre-service teacher who spent several planning periods conducting think-aloud protocols with high school students, aiming to better understand how they read and interpret conflicting sources of historical evidence. Cadence found that the think-alouds, while time consuming, offered powerful insights into how her students make sense of those sources' contents, purposes, and contexts; and hence, she proposes to her cooperating teacher a series of small-group think-aloud lessons focused on deep reading of discrepant historical accounts. Yet her cooperating teacher recoils, explaining to Cadence that, with so much material to cover, they simply do not have enough time to spend several lessons looking intensively at just a few documents.

Rebecca is a popular, third-year middle-school teacher whose district is required by the state to implement a set of new and contentious standardized tests. She learns that an upcoming board of education meeting will afford teachers time to share their experiences adapting to the tests and the Common Core State Standards with which they are supposed to align. In conversation with colleagues, Rebecca expresses her intent to participate in the meeting; while she aims to be diplomatic, she believes it is important for community members to hear about the ways in which the tests and standards impact teachers' instructional priorities and resources. Her department head advises her otherwise, indicating that newer teachers in the district ought to keep their policy positions to themselves, lest they be branded rabble-rousers so early in their careers, without the political capital and job protections earned over time.

Joe, in his tenth year, teaches an elective course called Comparative Religions. He invites a Baptist pastor and a Jewish rabbi to attend a class session and discuss the community service roles of their organizations. During time reserved for

¹ All names of individuals and schools are pseudonyms.

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questions, one student asks the guests to talk about their positions on gay marriage. While the question is off-topic, Joe permits it, and both visitors respond. The rabbi discusses his journey toward affirming same-sex marriage – a position with which many students nod in agreement – while the pastor explains his viewpoint that, ultimately, gay relationships are condemned in the Bible and could contribute to social instability. After Joe asks the pastor to explain the basis for his claim, one student – a member of the pastor’s congregation – complains to her parents that Joe treated the pastor unfairly, prompting a phone call to Joe’s principal.

Cadence, Rebecca, and Joe are three social studies educators at different points in their careers, yet they all face a common challenge: mediating the political dilemmas of the teaching profession. Their experiences are not fictitious; they are real teachers, in real public schools and classrooms in the United States. Joe’s predicament, which invokes questions about the place of controversial public issues in the school community and teachers’ positioning relative to those issues, is a persistent one in social studies education (Hess, 2009; Kelly, 1986). We often think first and foremost of circumstances like his when considering the intersections of politics and teaching. But Cadence’s problem, which centers on curricular and instructional gatekeeping, or the practice of deciding what educational ends have value and what resources to allocate toward those ends in light of competing interests, also is overtly political (Thornton, 2005). Further, Cadence’s interaction with her mentor demonstrates that making curricular and instructional decisions often requires teachers to negotiate multiple authorities that impact those decisions. Finally, Rebecca’s dilemmas are myriad, implicating local power dynamics, teachers’ advocacy roles and free-speech rights, and the impacts on teachers of high-stakes tests as accountability mechanisms.

Much has been written in the last decade about teachers developing professional knowledge and pedagogical practices. By comparison, the notion that teachers must learn to act politically within the institution of schooling, in situations like Cadence’s, Rebecca’s, and Joe’s, has received less attention. Yet the political nature of teachers’ work – enveloped, for example, in national controversies about the use of standardized tests to evaluate teaching performance (e.g., Baker et al., 2010) and local decisions about how to mediate external curriculum and testing mandates (e.g., Meuwissen, 2013) – is indisputable. Our central argument in this chapter is that professional learning opportunities, from pre-service teacher education through in-service professional development, must acknowledge and powerfully represent social studies teachers’ political roles and, in turn, scaffold their political practices. Put differently, if our charge in this book is to rethink social studies teacher education in ways that advance twenty-first century citizenship as a curricular and pedagogical goal, then we ought to consider seriously what kinds of political stances and capacities social studies teachers should have, and thus, what kinds of stances and capacities teacher educators should support, in order to achieve that goal.

How does what we propose here represent a rethinking of social studies teacher education? After all, we imagine that many teacher educators already acknowledge the political dimensions of teaching, perhaps via conversations with candidates about accountability pressures in schools or course texts that position public

education as a space for democratic dialogue and social change. Yet there is astonishingly little empirical evidence that reveals how political practices and discourses actually manifest in social studies teacher education programs. We assume that those practices and discourses are idiosyncratic – that some teacher educators embrace and foster them while others do not. Further, given the National Council of Accreditation for Teacher Education’s (NCATE’s) charge that teacher educators move toward “programs that are fully grounded in clinical practice and interwoven with academic content” (NCATE, 2010, p. ii), it seems conceivable that the political dimensions of teaching might be emphasized decreasingly, if they are emphasized at all, in formal programming. Alternatively, we posit the politics of teaching not as a backdrop, but *as practice*. We think that pre-service and in-service teacher educators should grant teachers’ political practices, like mediating conflicting professional norms and policy demands and brokering the standings of public policy problems in the curriculum, the sort of status and attention they bestow upon their classroom instructional practices, like assessing student work and coordinating discussions.

We begin with the contention that social studies teaching inevitably involves regular, multidirectional political activity, even though educators may attempt to keep politics out of their work to avoid conflict and accusations of bias. After explaining what we mean by the political roles and practices of social studies teachers, we discuss two examples – one in a pre-service context and the other in an in-service context – that illustrate the kinds of circumstances in which teacher educators might help teachers cultivate those roles and practices purposefully and productively. Our examples help us lay out grounds for this chapter’s final section: recommendations for supporting social studies teachers’ political activity through pre-service and in-service teacher education.

We suggest that teacher educators bear three important responsibilities if they are to prepare professionals for today’s school-institutional contexts. First, they must encourage teachers to situate political activity in strong educational purposes and consider the conceivable consequences of that activity for their students, their communities, and themselves. Second, they must not only facilitate inclusive and productive forums for deliberating contested educational issues, but also they must demonstrate potential pathways from deliberation to impacting policy and practice. Finally, they must help teachers forge and nurture sustainable social and political networks, linking them to resources that support ambitious teaching and meaningful activism.

The Inevitability of Political Activity in Social Studies Teaching

All this talk of resisting policy stresses me out. I didn’t go into teaching to be an activist; I went into teaching because I love history, and I want to help high school kids love history, too. Alexa, pre-service secondary social studies teacher

Like Alexa, many prospective teachers are loath to think that engaging in political action is an upshot of their chosen profession. But of course, teachers act politically all the time, collaterally and overtly, on large and small scales. We define the political as a situation that involves problems of public concern, in which people deliberate and act upon those problems, and in which mechanisms of power and authority play into those deliberations and actions (Dewey, 2012/1927; Latour, 2007). In some circumstances, the mechanisms at hand are governmental, like the state policy that ties Rebecca's performance evaluations to her students' standardized test scores. Such mechanisms are subsumed in more circuitous systems of activity, which manifest as "echo chambers" that circumscribe how people think about teaching and its purposes (Cornbleth, 2008). Cornbleth defines echo chambers as "prevailing discourses... [that] delimit, shape, and dominate questions of educational quality, equity, and student achievement. Alternative conceptions of the issues are effectively excluded from the public main stage" (p. 2166). Cadence's pressure to cover content and scrap her think-aloud lessons, with their considerable potential to strengthen learners' critical and reflective capacities, is a consequence of an activity system in which narrow curricula and high-stakes testing demands, aligned with a prevailing construct of history as collective memory, steer teachers' priorities and codes of conduct (Au, 2007; Engeström, 1991).

The State Policy Context

Apple (2011) and Giroux (2009) maintain that public schools in the United States are inherently and inevitably political. The state supports them; they are constructed to benefit the commons; citizens debate what children ought to learn there and what purposes that learning serves; and those factors play powerfully in political narratives. Australian scholars Reid, McCallum, and Dobbins (1998) concur, explaining that any interaction with the curriculum – an artifact of public deliberation over what values and resources should be passed on to future generations – constitutes political activity. Further, school communities are populated with children and adults who come from different backgrounds, understand the aims and consequences of schooling differently, and bring those things to bear in social settings where some voices and experiences carry more influence than others. Joe's dilemma clearly demonstrates this confluence of divergent values in the curriculum and community.

Giroux (2009) observes that public schools often are held responsible for broader social and economic problems, and thus, the demands placed upon them reflect the particular political discourses of their time. For example, the current movement to regulate curricula and instruction, use carrot-and-stick policies to hold teachers accountable for student achievement, and correct alleged failures by privatizing schools and stripping educators of professional assets reflects public concerns over economic instability and demonstrates elite political actors' success at perpetuating the narrative that public education primarily bears responsibility for these concerns

(Hursh, 2013). This accountability agenda – a product of the longstanding tradition of charging American schools with generating a competitive and efficient workforce – inhibits alternative educational rationales and pathways, including the cultivation of an active, politically tolerant democratic citizenry via situated civic experiences (Kliebard, 1987; Levine, 2012).

The Local Institutional Context

Teachers engage in political activity on a local scale, with school administrators, colleagues, and learners. Alexa's objection conjures up the old mythology that teachers can remain politically neutral, close the classroom door, and just teach social studies without the interference of external authorities. Dispelling that mythology, Spillane (2002), Stillman (2011), and Stein and Coburn (2008) demonstrate that school leaders filter policy mandates and organizational priorities to teachers via ethos messages, pressure points, material resources, and shared leadership opportunities. We find political activity in the ways teachers adapt ethos messages, advocate for themselves and their students in response to pressure points, utilize and demonstrate the impacts of material resources, and command particular roles within shared leadership opportunities.

The classroom also abounds with authority negotiations, not the least of which is teachers' dependence on students' willingness to participate in what goes on there. Cohen (2011) describes a direct relationship between ambitious teaching and potential student opposition: "because changes that are risky and difficult for [students] threaten practitioners' prospects, they have incentives to define improvement in such a way that [students] will not resist... for modest improvement may be better than resistance or failure" (p. 14). As Pace and Hemmings (2007) report in a review of research on classroom authority, teachers engage in various practices to mitigate risk and attain students' buy-in, including the use of humor, personal narratives, and collaborative learning opportunities to build social cohesion; the use of bargains and reward structures, including grades, to negotiate goal completion; and the use of contracts and sanctions when those negotiations fail. Via these interactions, students internalize particular political values – for instance, what rules are firm and what rules are malleable, what roles different students play in the classroom, and what kinds of speech are valid and what kinds are not (Bernstein, 1977).

Teaching for informed civic action presents a unique gatekeeping dilemma. We know, for example, that effective civic educators are strongly committed to active citizenship as an educational outcome, and that they prioritize critical media literacy, productive discussion, the development of political tolerance, and participation in governance as means (Campbell, Levinson, & Hess, 2012). We also know that a range of possible civic educations exist, from conveying the structures of government in a traditional classroom setting to connecting learners with their communities to address public problems. Evidence suggests that the latter can strengthen adolescents' commitments to future political participation; yet many social studies

educators take the former approach, using civics and government textbooks as de facto curricula, focusing abstractly on government functioning, and imploring students to be personally rather than socially responsible citizens (Kahne & Spote, 2008; Lopez & Kirby, 2007). This approach, which has a veneer of non-partisanship, is grounded in curricular and instructional precedent; it requires fewer human and material resources and is less politically risky than an action-oriented approach, but it also is less ambitious and may undermine, rather than promote, civic engagement and complex understandings of public problems (Saavedra, 2012; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). Put differently, social studies teachers may think that textbook civics circumvents controversy and, in turn, constitutes an apolitical move, but in fact, doing so conveys several important messages: that political processes are clean and procedural, that uncomfortable disagreements should be avoided, and that civic action largely involves working within rather than changing social, political, and economic conditions (Hibbing & Theiss-Morse, 1996).

Framing the Politics of Social Studies Teaching

Our point thus far is that social studies educators inevitably are political actors, even those who try not to be. When teachers decide to keep their heads down and quietly acquiesce to the demands placed upon them, they choose to be a more passive kind of political actor – one, we suspect, policy makers appreciate as they hastily launch reform initiatives into the educational milieu. While those policy makers influence teachers' work by mandating and normalizing particular artifacts and practices, teachers also have the power to resist or reinterpret those things to fit alternative possibilities (Meuwissen, 2013). Activity theory is a useful tool for thinking about how mechanisms of power affect social studies teachers and, in turn, how teachers exercise their agency in light of those mechanisms, "which allows for critique and revision" (Roth & Lee, 2007, p. 210). To more fully understand teachers' work, it is important to look at the systems in which that work is embedded – specifically, their norms or rules, community dynamics and divisions of labor, and artifacts – and the different directions in which power and authority flow within those systems (Engeström, 1999).

Teachers' power to act must be framed by purposes that guide how they mediate institutional rules and roles, artifacts, and community dynamics. We find the compass to be a fitting metaphor for these purposes. A compass allows its user to see the pathway from present circumstances to desired ends, yet it also requires that person to exercise agency to navigate obstacles that emerge along the way. This is in contrast to global positioning technologies, which are designed to absolve users of the need for agency through calculations and commands. We are reminded of a memorable scene in the American television series *The Office*, when two characters drove their vehicle into a lake because their GPS device told them to do so. With strong compasses, teachers are less likely to follow external directives simply because they are issued and more likely to critically assess the ways their own purposes align with those directives and their conceivable consequences.

We suppose that teachers' compasses are built from parts that are concomitantly professional and political and oriented toward what they perceive are the larger purposes of education. For those who support informed democratic discourse and participation among their students as key pedagogical aims, compass parts would include the principles of pluralism and tolerance, prioritization of learners' political efficacy and engagement, and the knowledge needed to systematically investigate, interpret, and advance arguments about social circumstances and their political implications (Colby, Beaumont, Erlich, & Corngold, 2007; Hess & McAvoy, 2014; Parker, 2003; Selman & Kwok, 2010). Let us imagine the history teacher who regularly asks students who benefits from particular historical narratives and why it matters that certain accounts are included in or left out of the historical record. She does this because she believes it is important for students to critically approach the vast information they encounter in and beyond the classroom, paying special attention to the purposes and perspectives represented in that information. This orientation could pose dilemmas for her as she makes curricular and instructional decisions, particularly if there is a misalignment between her pedagogical aims and the contents of high-stakes tests that impact others' judgments of her effectiveness (Leonardatos & Zahedi, 2014). What makes these dilemmas political are the risks associated with speaking honestly and assertively about her practices and intents as a subordinate or colleague of those who respectively administer or support policies that confound them (Journell, 2014). These risks demonstrate the importance of teachers' compasses. It is crucial, then, for teacher educators to support the assembly of those compasses and effectively represent their relevance to the work of teaching.

Supporting Politic-Positive Social Studies Teaching

You know, seeing politics in a negative light isn't the only option. It also means trying to positively influence people and contribute to the professional culture in your school; and freeing yourself to make a tough decision because you've got strong grounds for it... When you disagree with colleagues, and you decide to hear them out and try to find a way to move forward together rather than just disengaging with them, that's also a political decision. Steve, fifteenth-year social studies teacher and department administrator

As Steve suggests, there is more than one way to look at the political arena in which social studies teaching takes place. The avoidance narrative, demonstrated above in Rebecca and Alexa's examples, portrays political activity negatively, as something that generates tension and distracts teachers from their work. On the other hand, acknowledging, understanding, and learning to work within their political milieus could help teachers think more critically about their practices and be intentional and strategic in their public deliberations and actions. It could even help them bring about change in their schools.

What follows are two examples in which social studies teachers and teacher educators unpacked their political circumstances and developed strategies for working within and against them. In the first example, Cadence, Alexa, and their colleagues

in a graduate-level, pre-service teacher education program conducted qualitative investigations of their adolescent students' historical and political thinking and social studies learning experiences, ultimately generating curricular tools and instructional strategies that aligned with the results of their investigations. Their political discourse and compass tuning came during discussions about mismatches between those tools and strategies and the norms, practices, and artifacts that candidates found in their student teaching placements.

The second example centers on a professional development program for middle-level and secondary social studies teachers that involved collaboratively designing, implementing, and refining instructional strategies aimed at strengthening adolescents' capacities to interrogate and build arguments using historical evidence. Steve, quoted above, was the executive director of that program and took on the challenging role of mediating his district's increasingly restrictive policy controls with the professional autonomy teachers needed to try new approaches and learn from their professional development experiences. We highlight two teachers in the program, Roz and Elaine, whose participation provided them with a network for mediating and making room for curricular and instructional change within their district's increasingly stifling climate.

We chose these examples – one pre-service and one in-service – because they demonstrate the importance of teachers' compasses to their political activities. Further, they reinforce Steve's characterization of political challenges as opportunities for social studies teachers to act with agency, decisively and influentially, in the interests of their students, school communities, and themselves.

Deliberating Sources and Consequences of Authority in the Pre-service Context

The *How Students Think (HST)* project is a pivotal component of the first methods course in Olmstead University's graduate-level, secondary social studies education program. The course runs concurrently with a field experience during which candidates gradually progress from observing and assisting to co-teaching with classroom mentors. For the half-semester project, candidates collect evidence of students' thinking about and experiences with social studies from several sources, including: (1) classroom observations using a semi-structured protocol that focuses on three different learners' interactions with the subject matter, the teacher, and other students; (2) structured interviews that compare adolescents' views about the purposes and processes of learning history and civics with their cooperating teachers'; and (3) verbal reporting protocols with individual learners that require them to read and explain their thinking about conflicting political arguments and sources of historical evidence. Following a series of biweekly discussions about candidates' progress with the *HST* project, pairs of pre-service teachers synthesize their findings and design instructional tools that correspond directly with what they learned about

adolescents' historical and civic thinking through the project. Then, they try those tools out in the field.

With striking regularity, the *HST* project introduces prospective teachers to power dynamics and gatekeeping dilemmas within their placement classrooms and schools. Typically, that introduction goes something like this: by observing and listening to adolescents' social studies experiences and delving deeply into how they read and interpret historical texts and discrepant political positions, candidates discover unrecognized or underutilized social resources for teaching and learning; yet they also find that the pressures to rush through a relatively fixed curriculum, align classroom assessments with high-stakes tests, and sidestep potentially contentious subject matter along the way inhibit the recognition and utilization of those resources. Further, they learn that few teachers engage in the same kinds of qualitative, systematic investigations of student thinking that the *HST* project embodies. Clinton explained as follows:

[My cooperating teacher] kept calling [the *HST*] that university project, in kind of a derogatory way... When I asked her, I mean, doesn't it make sense to base your teaching on understanding how kids think and learn, she said, of course; I already do that with tests and quizzes and homework. But to me, test and quiz results just don't serve the same purpose... I tried explaining what I was getting out of [the project], but she just responded like, well, when you've got a real teaching job, you won't have time for that kind of thing.

Clinton's exchange with his cooperating teacher was steeped in both interactional and institutional politics. Within it, we find a student teacher with very little power cautiously entering a contested space with an experienced adviser who plays a role in his career advancement; we find judgments about how teachers build expertise and attain the authority to make curricular and instructional decisions; and we find echo effects of the imperative to cover curriculum and focus on testable content. On the last two points, it seems that Clinton's and his cooperating teacher's compasses were pointed in different directions.

As noted, pre-service teachers and their methods course instructor routinely deliberate on the *HST* project's evolving revelations and vexations. Oftentimes, those vexations and the resultant discussions hinge on contested issues and turn toward the political. For example, Joaquin prompted a lengthy conversation with this comment:

I don't see a lot of people asking the kinds of questions we're asking [about students' thinking] and collecting this kind of data. There's a lot of talk about data-driven decision making, but this isn't what they mean. They mean tracking test scores and stuff like that, which is fine, but – I don't know, is it the best way to get to know your students? Probably not. Personally, I think there's too much having data just to have data.

Joaquin's comment elicited various responses from colleagues in his cohort. One passionately argued that policy makers and school leaders use data as surveillance mechanisms to remind teachers that those in powerful positions are always watching them. Another keenly observed that no one in her placement school ever invoked data-driven decision making in the context of successful practice: "it's all about focusing on deficiencies and using data as a cop-out when people start to ask why

we're doing what we're doing." Still another expressed frustration with those points of view, explaining that test item analyses and data walls illuminate important patterns of student performance that she and her cooperating teacher might overlook otherwise. "And I don't mean to sound cynical," she added, "but if studies like [the *HST* project] were sustainable in schools, wouldn't we see more teachers doing them?"

In light of the conversation's increasingly *Crossfire*-like tone, the course instructor posed two ideas drawn from Hargreaves and Fullan's (2012) work – (1) the recommendation that educators "be evidence-informed, not data-driven" (p. 171); and (2) the argument that "[data] only measure what has been tested; and people only test what they feel they can measure" (p. 172) – and facilitated an exploratory discussion around those ideas using a public policy deliberation model (Melville, Willingham, & Dedrick, 2005; Parker, 2003). During that conversation, course participants clarified how and why the discrepancy between being evidence-informed and data-driven is a practical dilemma for teachers. Then, they shared examples of and perspectives on that dilemma, drawing from relevant interactions within their placement schools and discussing the consequences of those interactions. Finally, they articulated goals for gathering and using evidence to inform their social studies teaching and proposed various modes of achieving those goals. Cadence, for instance, suggested that teachers who see value in *HST*-like studies of students' thinking might place their findings alongside test item analyses, in settings like department meetings, faculty meetings, and open houses, and use them to engage colleagues, administrators, and parents in conversations about different forms and functions of evidence as a decision-making tool.

We present this example as a singular event, knowing, of course, that the conditions for powerful deliberation develop over time. These conditions include fair and effective moderation, opportunities for trust- and relationship-building, and a foundation of ideological tolerance, all within the context of actionable problems that connect to participants' values and experiences (Hess, 2009; Levine, Fung, & Gastil, 2005). Yet even in this one circumstance, pre-service teachers began tuning their compasses toward evidence-informed rather than data-driven instruction and considered the trade-offs associated with grounding social studies teaching largely in what is easy to measure. More broadly, they seemed to accept and imagine their roles as political actors in an institution with particular norms, divisions of labor, and policies and practices that reinforce those things.

Networking to Negotiate Institutional Controls in the In-Service Context

Roz and Elaine are middle-level and secondary social studies teachers respectively, who participated in a federally funded, school district-wide professional development program from 2009 through 2013 called *Teachers As Historians*

(*TAH*). The purposes of the program were to strengthen teachers' substantive and conceptual knowledge for teaching and pedagogical strategies for supporting adolescents' historical reading, writing, and investigative capacities. To facilitate these purposes, *TAH* program coordinators grouped participants according to their grade levels and subject areas into lesson study teams, through which they designed and taught common lessons, gathered evidence of student learning during those lessons, brought that evidence back to their groups for analysis, and then redesigned and implemented follow-up lessons based on their reflections. With support from program coordinators, the teams designed their lessons around historical thinking, analysis, and argumentation practices shown promising in educational research (Bain, 2005; Monte-Sano, 2008; Reisman, 2012; Van Drie, Havekes, & Van Boxtel, 2012; VanSledright, 2002). Around 40 teachers participated in the program each year, with each lesson study team consisting of six to eight participants.

Simultaneously, Roz's and Elaine's Lakeside City School District (LCSD) was in upheaval. During the program, an unpopular superintendent who vowed to disempower the union and increase teacher accountability came and went; several schools closed for failing to make adequate yearly progress under federal No Child Left Behind statutes, and then reopened under different names and organizational frameworks; the state enacted new teacher evaluation policies that tied teachers' performance ratings to high-stakes test scores; and the Common Core State Standards came to pass, which brought about a decrease in social studies instructional time in the elementary schools and new expectations for reading and writing competencies in the middle and high schools. Consequently, *TAH* program coordinators faced a number of contextual challenges in their efforts to help teachers rethink history teaching and learning. They decided to acknowledge those challenges and their implications with participants throughout the program, framing its activities as follows: how do we provide students with new opportunities for powerful historical thinking and understanding while also easing the effects of policies and circumstances that constrain our efforts?

Roz's and Elaine's compasses pointed strongly toward that question in the thick of sometimes confounding policy messages and the echo effects they generated. Elaine, for instance, found that *TAH* program coordinators staunchly supported student discussions of conflicting historical evidence while her school building leaders did not:

Complicated historical problems take time; but we're not encouraged [by school administrators] to go into that kind of depth. We're encouraged to get them to pass the tests. And they're mostly multiple-choice. There's nothing on those tests like [the kinds of open-ended questions we address in the *TAH* program]. So the pressure coming from building leaders is, I mean, what do they really have to get into groups and discuss if the goal is really to know enough to answer some multiple-choice questions?

Roz made a similar point, explaining that conflicting priorities among different offices within the LCSD made the process of managing multiple authorities challenging. She noted:

I'm bound by state standards and tests, a city curriculum and instructional format, a required number of assessments per marking period; and now we're told to do formative assessment certain ways in our classrooms... And we have to test them multiple times because we need test results for this and that, so we know our widgets work... Are you kidding me? Can I just teach and let them dig into something?

Teachers as Historians program leaders and participants represented their work not just as an opportunity to develop their professional knowledge and instructional practices, but also as political activity. Coordinators relentlessly promoted the program's aims, teacher and student learning goals, and annual evaluation results in the district's schools, and they worked to prop up participating teachers as curricular and instructional leaders in their buildings. Steve, the program's executive director, noted, "some principals are completely on board [with the program's purposes and intents]; some are indifferent, or even opposed to how we do history teaching and learning; and then there are others who just don't know anything about what we're doing." Consequently, Steve and the other program coordinators helped participants adapt their history teaching to, and in some cases resist, school leaders' priorities and *modi operandi*. Program leaders and teachers also constructed the lesson study groups as professional networks, through which participants built trust in each other over time via shared experiences and peer critique, and then drew upon that trust to strategize the demands of administrators in their schools. These professional networks served as safe, consistent spaces to conduct the difficult and prolonged work of curricular and instructional change amidst the tumult of shifting state and LCSD policies and priorities.

Networking is an important component of social studies teachers' political activity – one that teacher educators and professional development coordinators should support overtly. We define political networking as building alliances that: (1) help teachers unpack their schools' political circumstances; and (2) advance particular educational goals, face down common barriers to achieving those goals, and contribute resources to address those barriers. A key goal within Roz's and Elaine's lesson study groups was to satisfy the competing demands of substantive historical investigation and expeditious content coverage. To do this, they took an approach that Cornbleth (2009) calls strategic redefinition, whereby teachers reinterpret educational goals and practices proffered by those in power to advance modifications or alternatives. For instance, Roz's group couched its lessons, which involved classroom discussions about relationships among historical phenomena (Van Drie, Havekes, & Van Boxtel, 2012), in the Common Core State Standards' language of seeking to understand others' perspectives, evaluating claims and the reasoning behind them, and writing well supported arguments. By collectively underscoring their lessons' direct alignment with the standards and deemphasizing the implications for covering (or not covering) tested content, Roz and her colleagues positioned their work alongside specific norms and artifacts that administrators valued and to which they also were beholden – a strategy that *TAH* coordinators encouraged and reinforced by helping teachers adapt policy language to their own pedagogical aims.

Supporting Political Practices in Social Studies Teaching

We talk a lot [in this class] about looking for balance; you know, balanced information, balanced points of view, things like that. But balance isn't always the right objective, because sometimes one opinion isn't just as good as another. Some arguments and positions have stronger evidence to support them, or maybe they're more ethically defensible than others. And it needs to be okay for us to acknowledge that without putting each other down, and without feeling upset for being challenged. Noah, second-year high school social studies teacher, speaking to his Peace Studies class

Noah's remark came during a class discussion marked by vehement disagreement about whether or not the United States was obligated to intervene during the Rwandan genocide. That disagreement crested when one student claimed that rejecting international intervention because it would cost the United States resources, and because the international community usually "condemns American interference" in the world, is just as reasonable and credible as supporting it on the grounds of seeking justice and exercising compassion for victims. We share this example not only because it illustrates the delicate mediation that many social studies teachers are called upon to demonstrate in their teaching practice, but also because Noah's comment represents a compelling orientation for teachers' and teacher educators' political compasses. Indeed, some positions on learning and teaching have stronger evidence to support them and are more ethically defensible than others.

In the state policy context, for instance, new evidence suggests that value-added models (VAMs) of teacher effectiveness "are not meaningfully associated with the content or quality of instruction," and thus, basing teachers' performance evaluations and professional improvement plans on them may be fallacious at best and unjust at worst (Polikoff & Porter, 2014, p. 16). Yet VAMs and the standardized tests that inform them proliferate within states' and school districts' teacher evaluation systems, including Roz's and Elaine's, fundamentally impacting teachers' professional priorities and prospects without a clear understanding of what they actually measure. In the local institutional context, the teachers represented in this chapter contend with a number of concurrent and sometimes conflicting factors. They include administrative pressure to condense complex curricula and homogenize students' writing in ways that align with narrow high-stakes tests, despite evidence suggesting that these approaches may not support powerful social studies learning (Au, 2007; Monte-Sano, 2008). Further, administrators sometimes reinforce these pressures with pacing assessments designed to ensure that teachers follow district-approved instructional units in a timely fashion.

Tensions like these warrant careful deliberation and strategic action. How might teacher educators encourage such things in ways that are politic-positive? Grossman et al. (2009) suggest three core methods associated with fostering teachers' – particularly novices' – learning and development. First, teacher educators must clearly and authentically portray specific practices and their implications. Second, they must help novices atomize those practices, so that teachers understand their component parts and purposes, in context. And third, they must generate opportunities for

novices to build their own practices via that atomizing process and try them out in real situations. While some have applied Grossman and colleagues' framework to the development of teachers' instructional strategies (e.g., Boerst, Sleep, Ball, & Bass, 2011) and curricular visioning (e.g., Conklin & Hughes, 2013), we believe it also works as a way to support social studies teachers' political practices.

Supporting Productive Political Deliberation and Demonstrating Pathways to Action

Alongside activities like the *HST* project, which can illuminate school norms and demonstrate the need for effective curricular gatekeeping, case methods are promising tools for deliberating the political practice of social studies teaching (Merseeth, 1996). Relevant cases would facilitate analysis of a specific political dilemma, targeting teachers' choices and constraints, the social circumstances in which that dilemma is situated, the ways power and authority flow within those circumstances, and the conceivable consequences of addressing the dilemma at hand in certain ways. Rebecca's and Joe's situations at the beginning of this chapter might constitute reasonable introductions to complex cases, as could Roz's and Elaine's professional development experiences. So, too, could larger-scale activities like those described by Johnson and Slekar (2014), who discuss the challenges of building a grassroots coalition via social media, blogs, and other online technologies around resisting the proliferation and inappropriate uses of standardized testing. Activity theory, with its foci on community norms and dynamics, divisions of labor, and mediating artifacts, would be a useful tool for decomposing such cases. Ultimately, we believe it is important for pre-service and practicing teachers to recognize and engage with a range of perspectives on teachers' political roles, from strategic compliance and redefinition as ways to "work within" to modes of pressure and resistance as ways to "work against."

Yet the practice of reading and discussing a case does not guarantee productive deliberation, as novice teachers might not fully understand the case, consider the case's nuances from different points of view, or interpret it on sound evidentiary footing (Cherubini, 2009). Furthermore, cases that invite discussion of controversial political problems could become fruitlessly quarrelsome. Consequently, it behooves the teacher educator to utilize a strong model for deliberating cases of political activity in social studies teaching. One model that teacher educators could adapt is study circles, in which diverse groups of up to a dozen people plus a facilitator use experiential accounts to identify how a problem manifests from different perspectives, explore viable solutions to the problem, and plan a course of action (Scully & McCoy, 2005). Teacher educators, serving as facilitators, might construct such groups around any number of educational problems, inviting pre-service teachers, cooperating teachers, and other relevant stakeholders to meet and talk regularly about contested issues like school race relations or funding and program cuts. Parker

(2003) and the authors in Gastil and Levine's (2005) edited volume lay out several other deliberative models, including National Issues Forums, which bring organizations together around common problems and ground rules for discussing and acting upon them, and town meetings that draw in participants remotely using electronic communications technologies.

As we suggested above, an important upshot of deliberation is public action; yet as Levine et al. (2005) explain, the pathways from small-scale to larger-scale discussion and from deliberation to action are bumpy, in practice. Even teachers who are savvy gatekeepers in their classrooms or effective strategists within their departments may find it difficult to impact larger district, state, and national conversations and initiatives. Granted, most political dilemmas present themselves locally; and oftentimes, public deliberations simply do not compel power brokers to change positions or amend policies. That said, teacher educators might emphasize cases that strongly link deliberation with action, such as the evolution of the standardized testing boycott in Seattle's Garfield High School from 2012 through 2013. Further, teacher educators can demonstrate the connection between deliberation and action by modeling participation in civic forums, from school board meetings and community working groups to state legislative hearings on education policies, and inviting pre-service and practicing teachers to participate alongside them. Finally, since dialogue and public action overlap – as long as the dialogue is generative and continuous – teacher educators can encourage social studies teachers to listen intently and extensively to policy discussions, to ask powerful, pragmatic questions about the effects of policy on their teaching, and to find ways to share their experiences so the public better understands the implications of policy for learning and teaching.

Helping Social Studies Teachers Cultivate Sustainable Social and Political Networks

Finnigan and Daly (2012) and Bryk and Schneider (2002) convincingly argue that robust social networks, through which peers share knowledge and other resources in high-trust environments, are vitally important to teachers' growth and effectiveness. Yet we know how challenging it is to cultivate those networks. Grossman, Wineburg, and Woolworth (2001) explain that fault lines within teachers' networks can develop around participatory and interactional norms, subgroup identifications, a lack of opportunities for authentic interaction, and the directions of teachers' compasses, practically and politically. Negotiating those fault lines can take a substantial amount of time, motivation, and effort, but doing so is essential, particularly given the aims of this volume. As Grossman, Wineburg, and Woolworth (p. 1000) note, "if teachers themselves cannot reclaim a civil discourse and an appreciation and recognition of diverse voices, how can they prepare students to enter a pluralistic world as citizens?" Further, collaboration within and among teachers' networks is pivotal. For example, the *Stand with Spencerport* initiative, which employed community

forums and speeches, correspondence and meetings with state officials, and dissemination via websites and social media outlets, convened more than 60 teachers at a New York middle school in an effort to lobby state policy makers to reconsider the implementation of New York's controversial Common Core tests.

Teacher educators should connect pre-service and practicing teachers to professional development opportunities and advocacy groups through which they might forge powerful working relationships with like-minded others. As Roz, Elaine, and their colleagues in the *Teachers as Historians* program got to know each other and collaboratively explored the effects of new instructional strategies in their classrooms, their network evolved into a community of practitioners striving to make room for historical investigation in the midst of a sea change associated with new state standards, teacher evaluation demands, and student data management requirements. Those teachers were fortunate to regularly interact with colleagues in their district who experienced similar policy pressures. Others who are more isolated might find encouragement in professional organizations or regional groups targeting specific educational policies and problems.

Though we use the term "like-minded others" to describe membership in such groups, they may be quite heterogeneous, ideologically. For example, several advocacy organizations exist in New York around refusing or "opting out" of the Common Core assessments. Yet while some participants rally around the demoralizing and curriculum-narrowing effects of high-stakes tests and their exacerbation of resource inequities across school districts, others see the assessments and the standards on which they're based as flagrant government intrusion into the affairs of communities that ought to be able to teach their children whatever they please. This calls up an earlier point: when it comes to the political activities in which teachers participate, the directions of their compasses matter.

Student teaching and new teacher mentorship also can be avenues for reinforcing the importance of political networking. Most teacher educators, we imagine, try to connect their candidates with cooperating teachers who are effective at designing curriculum and instruction, using evidence of student learning to inform their teaching, fostering rich and inclusive learning communities, and communicating with parents and administrators. The same criteria usually apply when administrators link new teachers with mentors in their districts (Yusko & Feiman-Nemser, 2008). To this list of important considerations, we would add another: the strength and visibility of those cooperating teachers' and mentors' political activities, within and beyond the school.

Arguably, many experienced teachers reach the apexes of their careers by following the pathway Alexa articulated toward the beginning of this chapter. They keep their heads down, eventually acclimate to their school institutions, and attempt to mitigate political pressures along the way by focusing on classroom instruction. Achinstein (2006) suggests that more politically active mentors can guide new teachers' compasses in a politic-positive direction and enlarge their political networks. They do this by helping novices read their school climates, ask good questions of the right people, and address points of conflict favorably – three crucial elements of student and self advocacy. Just as a skillful cooperating teacher can

point out classroom interactions and instructional nuances that a candidate might not see otherwise, so, too, can she reveal and contextualize subtle political norms and dynamics, concurrently conveying that new teachers are agents who can affect those norms and dynamics.

Conclusion

Rethinking social studies teachers' interactions with politics means also rethinking the kind of teacher education that supports those interactions. Our argument is not that teacher educators should simply explain to candidates that their chosen profession is a politically charged one. Anyone reading this chapter knows that such explanations, even with striking evidence and seductive details to support them, could elicit nods of interest and concern initially, with little enduring effect on practice. Instead, we believe that teacher educators must do the following things, overtly and repeatedly:

- They should powerfully represent and atomize political activity in teaching – i.e., multidirectional flows of power and authority among teachers and institutions – and help novices build nuanced, well-reasoned political stances and practices, driven by clear aims that are grounded in what is good for students and their school communities;
- They should proficiently facilitate deliberations of controversial issues that affect teaching – framing problems, moderating the rules of engagement, drawing participants into the discussion, and helping participants look ahead toward future action – and encourage teachers to act publicly and decisively via those deliberations;
- They should help social studies educators cultivate productive and sustainable political networks and demonstrate how pivotal those networks and their resources are to the development of what Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) call teachers' social and decisional capital; and
- They should be positive models of political activity themselves, making transparent their own political stances and practices, how they arrived at them, and how they interact with networks to advance them.

We teacher educators know that there are risks associated with these assertions, particularly the last one, which involves acknowledging rather than concealing our own views and commitments while simultaneously trying to ensure that other perspectives are expressed and heard fairly (Kelly, 1986). What, however, are the alternatives? One is steering our curricula and conversations away from political positions and practices – in essence, simply teaching teachers about subject matter learning and instruction and, thus, continuing to nullify the political practices of social studies teaching within the teacher education curriculum. Another is communicating that we all hold equally valid positions on controversial educational

issues, which belies Noah's astute observation that some standpoints are more empirically and ethically grounded than others.

We find neither of these alternatives acceptable at a time when teachers increasingly are pushed out of important policy decisions – particularly at state levels, where flooding public education systems with multiple poorly warranted, rapidly implemented reforms seems to be a national trend. Further, defining and expressing teachers' political roles and practices clearly represents an open controversial issue in and beyond teacher education. Public discourse proliferates about whether or not teachers should broadcast the implications of policy pressures on their practices (Warren, 2014), let alone actively resist what Yohuru Williams (2014) calls “[bullying] by politicians, pundits, and public administrators, quick to blame teachers for problems in the schools.” During a conversation at a recent academic conference, another teacher educator lamented to one of us:

I can't think of any other field with such weak political advocacy in response to absolutely withering attacks on its professionals. If the best teachers can do is hope that these attacks just go away on their own, or create a bunch of Facebook communities and collectively complain about how bad things have gotten, we're doomed.

No matter one's position on this allegation, it is hard to argue that teachers' political positions and practices are not complex, contested spaces. While the suggestions in this chapter certainly are meant to support teachers like Cadence, Rebecca, Joe, Clinton, Joaquin, Roz, and Elaine in their efforts to navigate the pressures of social studies teaching, we also hope that teacher educators consider how they might apply to broader arenas of educational politics, which we believe could use a strong dose of active, democratic twenty-first century citizenship.

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