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## Table of Contents

<b>Editor’s Notes: Social studies in theory and praxis after crisis</b>	3
<b>Iowa Council for the Social Studies response to recent legislation</b>	6
<b>ICSS Conference Announcement</b>	7
<b>Theory and Research</b>	
<i>Hello From the Other Side: Breathing Life Into Death and Grief with/in the Context of Social Studies Education</i>	8
Bretton Varga, Cathryn van Kessel, Mark E. Helmsing, Rebecca C. Christ	
<i>Exploring Curricular Ambiguity, Erasure, and Political Invisibility of the Asian Americans in the Secondary Social Studies Curriculum</i>	30
Kyle L. Chong	
<b>Theory and Practice</b>	
<i>Washington and Du Bois: Using Historical Figures as Exemplars for Discussing Public Issues</i>	58
Rebecca Macon Bidwell	
<i>Secondary Social Studies Teachers’ Perceptions and Use of Differentiated Instruction on Students’ Affective Learning Outcomes</i>	73
Cathy G. Powell	
<i>Professional Development in the Wake of a Pandemic: Zooming into the Future</i>	107
Ronald Morris and Denise Shockley	
<b>Call for Articles Winter 2022</b>	127

### **Editor's Notes**

Greetings from the editorial staff of the *Iowa Journal for the Social Studies*!

We hope that all of you are having a safe start to your summer.

The second issue of the 2021 year comes in a time in which we see the beginning of the end of the pandemic; however, we continue to see the difficult path to achieving the American goal of civil rights for all Americans and we see the threats to our democracy from within and outside of our nation. This fall we will see a “return to normal” but the editorial board believes the new normal cannot be the normal silence on the contentious and controversial issues that shape how we teach. As Martin Luther King Jr. stated

A time comes when silence is betrayal . . . The truth of these words is beyond doubt, but the mission to which they call us is a most difficult one. Even when pressed by the demands of inner truth, men do not easily assume the task of opposing their government's policy, especially in time of war. Nor does the human spirit move without great difficulty against all the apathy of conformist thought within one's own bosom and in the surrounding world. Moreover, when the issues at hand seem as perplexing as they often do in the case of this dreadful conflict, we are always on the verge of being mesmerized by uncertainty; but we must move on.

We believe that the call to limit the teacher's ability to teach an honest and full history is truly an attack on our profession, our schools, and our democracy. It is for this reason the *Iowa Journal for the Social Studies* will continue to be a space for researchers and teachers to share all perspectives and all curriculum.

In the first section of the journal theory and research, the articles from Varga, van Kessel, Helmsing, & Christ and Chong provide new social studies research that expands how we should envision and teach social studies.

Varga et al. offer a fresh look at death and grief in social studies education and offer different ways to think about educators' roles in helping students explore and cope with these two fundamental phenomena of life. They contend that despite the presence of death and grief surrounding students' everyday life, especially in the context of the COVID-19, the two topics have been long neglected in the curriculum. In order to support students in coping with death and grief, the authors suggest a conceptual framework that weaves together the concept of necrocene and necropolitics in the context of death anxiety. In particular, the authors propose examining death in three avenues – in curricula on law and the courts, in curricula on COVID-19, and in curricula on international conflict. Essentially, Varga et al.'s article is a timely response to the challenges of teaching social studies in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic and its aftermath.

Chong illuminated how 5 Asian American Panethnic Community (AAPC) teachers in the San Francisco United School District navigate insufficient curricular representation of AAPC communities within the social studies curriculum. The article highlights not only how teachers see opportunities to shape curricular inclusion but also how the space to do so competes with

other minoritized groups, including Latinx and Black folx. These tensions are particularly evident among these participants teaching in a community in which AAPC represents a larger portion of the population and are too often viewed through a model minority lens. Negotiating these spaces and tensions created additional labor for these teachers, both emotional and otherwise as to the burden of curricular inclusion too often rests on grassroots efforts. Chong's article highlights the need for change and normalizing of AAPC roles in history, especially in the wake of Asian American hate crimes across the nation.

In the second section of the issue, the authors: Bidwell, Powell, Morris & Shockley describe new ways of teaching social studies, teacher praxis, and visions of professional development.

In *Washington and DuBois: Using Historical Figures as Exemplars for Discussing Public Issues*, Bidwell highlights the importance of using civil discourse to discuss public issues, emphasizing the important role dialogue plays in a healthy democracy. This article provides a nice example of an activity not only aligned with the dimensions of the C3 Framework but also using primary sources to teach social studies in high school. While the content focuses on two civil rights advocates in the late 1800's, Booker T. Washington and W.E.B. DuBois, Bidwell grounds the study in current research surrounding the use of discussion in the classroom, specifically the discussion of controversial public issues, the importance of discussion to active citizenry, then makes connections explaining how activities such as taking the perspective of another help students practice the skills they will need to take action.

Powell, in a qualitative multi-case study, seeks to explore how secondary social studies teachers perceive differentiated instruction and perceptions of their experiences using DI on students' affective learning outcomes. This article addresses a gap in the literature about how secondary social studies teachers make sense of DI, especially in the context of increased attention to the diversity of our classrooms. Powell finds that students experienced affective learning outcomes such as valuing and internalization when teachers differentiated their instructional strategies. Powell's findings suggest that teachers seek to go beyond state-mandated test performance as evidence of learning, but are attending to affective domains through their instructional practices. This article is of particular interest to researchers and teachers looking to sharpen their critiques of high-stakes testing's dominance of our concept of student learning in social studies, and providing further evidence of the need for differentiated instruction in secondary social studies.

Morris and Shockley share how a school district in rural Appalachia quickly adopted Zoom as a means to keep their staff connected during the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic. Working tirelessly over a period of forty days, the superintendent and office staff members learned how to use the platform from different professional developments hosted by numerous individuals willing to share their knowledge. These opportunities not only built a stronger sense of community among the staff but also strengthened their confidence and abilities while using Zoom. Morris and Shockley show readers that Zoom, a platform designed to keep people digitally connected, has the potential to fill the human interaction void caused by the pandemic when structured in a continuously supported and engaging manner. The lessons learned from Morris and Shockley's research suggest that social studies classrooms can benefit from using Zoom as a conduit to share valuable information, involve students in various learning processes, and foster a classroom community.

We want to thank everyone who submitted articles for this issue of the Iowa Journal for the Social Studies. A special thanks to our reviewers and their hard work. We would also like to thank the Executive Board of the Iowa Council for the Social Studies for allowing us to take up the mantle of editing IJSS. Lastly, we want to thank all of the readers of the IJSS.

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## **ICSS Response to Recent Legislation**

As an organization, the goal of the Iowa Council for the Social Studies (ICSS) is to provide support and guidance for social studies teachers in Iowa in order to effectively implement the social studies standards approved by the Iowa School Board in 2017. The mission of ICSS is to promote, support, and provide leadership to improve social studies education in all Iowa classrooms - as a non-partisan organization. ICSS realizes Iowa educators, like all Iowans, have a variety of political views, and Iowa's educators work in districts with unique populations, cultures, and a variety of political ideologies. The organization's vision is to ensure that all students have a high quality social studies education, and so our support and guidance needs to address the needs of all of our members.

Recent Iowa legislation is raising concerns for educators across the state because the potential teaching and legal impacts are currently unknown. In the current climate, teachers have serious and legitimate concerns about how this legislation may impact what and how they teach. The ICSS, like teachers and school districts across the state, is waiting for guidance from the Iowa Department of Education, to formulate a definitive plan for how to best support teachers. The ICSS will continue to monitor the situation, communicate the effects of current legislation to decision-makers, and provide updates to our membership. ICSS encourages educators and individuals to communicate with their state legislators about this recent legislation.

2021 Iowa Social Studies

# *A Whole New World*

Iowa Council for the Social Studies Conference  
Marriott West Des Moines  
October 4, 2021

Equipping Teachers as Leaders in a New Era:

- Engaging in Inquiry
- Finding & Evaluating Sources
- Communicating Conclusions/Taking Action
- Teaching with Technology

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## **Hello From the Other Side: Breathing Life Into Death and Grief with/in the Context of Social Studies Education**

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**Abstract:** This article leans on concepts of the necocene (McBrien, 2016) and necropolitics (Mbembe, 2003, 2019) to theoretically situate how and students can confront potential insecurities caused by death and its resulting grief (Becker, 1975). Specifically, we ask: How might educators honestly and directly position death in social studies classrooms to attend to socio-political conditions that actualize, manipulate, and subvert divergent ways we experience and navigate grief? Moreover, this article explores death and grief in historical and contemporary contexts to cultivate nuanced understandings of how we (i.e., humans) come to understand ourselves, each other, and the world around us. Accordingly, social studies as an educational discipline is teeming with opportunities to confront and explore various implications and understandings of death and grief.

**Keywords:** necocene, necropolitics, death, grief, social studies



## **Introduction**

As we write this article, we acknowledge how educators are providing instruction in extraordinary times. Along with (virtual) pedagogical and curricular challenges stemming from the COVID-19 crisis, educators must find ways to connect with/to students in a world replete with death and concomitant grief. Death, a significant source of human anxiety, is often suppressed, excluded, or avoided as a lived experience of our lives (Bengtsson, 2019). However, in our current moment, at the time this article was written, educators cannot avoid acknowledging and encountering death all around us, given that over two million people worldwide have died from COVID-19 while others continue to struggle with infections (World Health Organization, 2021). Responding to this journal issue's call for transformative education practices and orientations rooted in justice and equity, we are of a collective mind that confronting death and grief is an essential—albeit often overlooked—aspect of social studies education seeking "to help young people make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world" (NCSS, 2008, para 1).

Despite Spinoza (1677/1996) (in)famously stating a “free-man should think nothing less than death because wisdom in the modern era is focused on contemplations about life, not death” (p. 131), we contend such equivocality of death and grief in social studies education is highly troubling as it neglects an extensively vital aspect of students’ emotional/cognitive development of perspectives towards each other and the world (Stevenson, 1995). Death is embedded in social studies curricula as a reflection of humans’ lived experiences across time and space (e.g., historical accounts of war and conflict; representations of violence and violent events; geographies of natural disasters; examinations of genocide). Because engaging with the ongoing

death of our planet may be the biggest challenge we face as humans (Russell, 2017), we wonder: How might social studies educators teach for/about death in ways that are honest/direct and attend to socio-political conditions that actualize, manipulate, and subvert divergent ways we experience and navigate grief? We believe such engagements are essential for social studies educators and students. These healthy engagements with death can lead to a deeper, more complex understanding of “how the human comes into being, again and again” (Butler, 2004, p. 49).

In this paper, after providing definitions of death and grief, we offer educators three interrelated concepts for their teaching and curriculum: necropolitics (Mbembe, 2003, 2019); the necrocene (McBrien, 2016); and death anxiety (Becker, 1975). These concepts can help educators and their students explore entanglements of life, death, grief, and social studies. We provide several entry points for educators to engage students with death and grief in historical (e.g., law and courts) and contemporary (e.g., Covid-19, international conflicts) contexts to help students attune their thinking and feelings within a world grappling with cessation and destruction of life amidst numerous overlapping planetary crises, from climate to nature to pollution and from racism, extremism, and capitalism. We orient these examples in an approach that cultivates a “healthier attitude towards death [... and a] vital new relationship with life where one might help us learn and grow with respect to the other” and our (e.g., human) surroundings (Affifi & Christine, 2019, p. 1146). We conclude the paper by discussing some implications of these engagements and offer several suggestions for educators.

### **(Re)Defining Death and Grief**

Notwithstanding the limitations of definitions writ large (Kripke, 1972; Putnam, 1973; Wittgenstein, 1958), and the challenges of reducing death to an all-encompassing concept

(Chiong, 2005), we argue that foregrounding several coordinates of how death is expressed in classrooms and the world can be productive for educators. According to Gert (2006), vital to any conceptualization of death is not death's characteristics but rather how educators conceptually deploy death. From this perspective, "the task of defining death is to make explicit the ordinary meaning of the word 'death' that is implicit in how people commonly and correctly use the word" (Bernat, 2018, p. 400). Considering the use of 'death' is especially important within the (nuanced) context of social studies education. Working alongside McMahan (1995) and Lizza's (1999) definition of death applying to the "demise of the human organism" (Bernat, 2018, p. 401), our conceptualization of death also extends beyond what is merely human and involves the nonhuman and inhuman within the world, such as irreversible ecological departures; disappearances related to the landscape; loss of glaciers, rivers, and other ecological deaths.

Grief,<sup>1</sup> meaning "deep sorrow, especially that caused by someone's death," comes from Old French *grever* meaning "to burden." *Grever* is based on the Latin *gravare*, from *gravis*, meaning "heavy" or "grave." Grief is heavy (both "of great weight" and "very important or serious") as well as grave (both "a place of burial for a dead body" and "slowly; with solemnity"). Despite these definitions, COVID-19 has caused many to (re)think what it means to grieve. With this in mind, this article illustrates how grief exists in and beyond social studies teaching and curriculum through these various definitions, recognizing that "[w]e are remade in times of grief, broken apart and reassembled" and that "[t]here is some strange intimacy between grief and aliveness, some sacred exchange between what seems unbearable and what is most exquisitely alive" (Weller, 2015, p. 1).

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<sup>1</sup> All definitions and etymologies stemming from the word "grief" in this paragraph come from the Apple Dictionary Tool, which pulls from the New Oxford American Dictionary (Stevenson & Lindberg, 2010).

### **Theorizing Death in the Necrocene**

How might we cope with death around us in good ways? It can be hurtful to try to force a ‘silver lining’ upon tragedy, yet neither do we want to sink into abject despair or fall prey to the harmful psychological effects of being constantly reminded of death. To meet this situation with grace, we need a way to name the issue at hand (i.e., contexts replete with death) and consider the associated emotional terrain. To this end, this article suggests a conceptual framework for educators that weaves together concepts of the *necrocene* (McBrien, 2016) and *necropolitics* (Mbembe, 2003, 2019) in the context of *death anxiety*, the ontological insecurities humans can feel when forced to navigate experiences involving death (Becker, 1975).

Instead of referring to our current geologic time as the Anthropocene—which denotes the impacts humans have had on planetary climate and environments—environmental historian Justin McBrien (2016) reimagines the term more accurately as living in the necrocene. This calls more critical and urgent attention to the underlying (and often unpalatable) defining feature of the Anthropocene: the acceleration of death in/on the planet. As a critical concept, the necrocene allows us to grasp the ontological significance of ongoing extinctions of animals, plants, peoples, languages, and cultures—a process of “becoming extinction” (McBrien, 2016, p. 116). Drawing a comparison with necrosis, cell death and the extinctions at present are the result of traumatic injuries, and the autolysis afterward is a process of “self-digestion in which a cell destroys itself” (McBrien, 2016, p. 117). Although perhaps extending the necrocene beyond its original intent, in the context of COVID-19, we see long-standing socio-political forms of necrosis and autolysis in this “new era of death” (Clark, 2019, p. 11).

The necrocene includes long-standing acts/threats of death in both the *biosphere* and *humansphere*. Despite the symbiotic entanglement of both spheres, in the necrocene, death is

perpetuated, enacted, and sustained through the (re)development of *human* technologies.

Although expounding upon the dis/advantages of technology is beyond this article's scope, acknowledging humans' role in the production of the necrocene is necessary if we (i.e., humans) are to make radical shifts in our thinking that disrupt patriarchal, economic, and consumer-based practices. In addition to human technologies that have created the necrocene, humans have devised ways to think about each other that creates and perpetuates death.

Philosopher and political theorist Achille Mbembe (2003) conceptualizes necropolitics as "the generalized instrumentalization of human existence and the material destruction of human bodies and populations" (p. 14). As such, mortality is "decoupled from the project of living—a direct relation to killing that renders impossible any subterfuge in a hallucinating disavowal of death in modernity" (Puar, 2007, p. 33). This is why Russo Lopes and Bastos Lima (2020) argue "environmental, cultural and human annihilation come hand in hand. This creates, to use Mbembe's (2019) terminology, a 'death-world' that COVID-19 has made grimmer" (p. 93). The challenge for social studies educators, then, is to examine the moments and examples within our curriculum that demand our students to reckon with this "death-world" we inhabit, and, through resistance, solidarity, and critical awareness, can work towards addressing. To do so, we next discuss how social studies educators can teach through examples of necropolitics to better illustrate the political forces and ideologies upholding the destructive violence we are witnessing in the necrocene.

Students confront necropolitics in many different contexts. Necropolitics is at work when the state uses technology in warfare and militarized regimes of control, such as drone strikes, torture at the Abu Gharb prison and the Guantanamo Bay Detention Camp, and the enforced isolation and confinement of peoples in the Gaza Strip. Students also confront necropolitics

when examining less militarized ways the state perpetuates death through less direct forms of violence, such as the U.S. government's actions in the wake of the water crisis in Flint, Michigan; the devastation of Hurricane Katrina in Louisiana; and the Trump administration's deliberate inaction during the coronavirus pandemic. Helping students see how the state regulates actions supporting life and death relates to how Mbembe (2005) highlights "the life in death" in how "the taking of the enemy's life is the privileged dialect of history" (p. 18). Indeed, the taking of the enemy's life appears in almost every unit taught in history courses in lessons on war, conquest, and imperial expansion students study. From this perspective, necropolitics serves as a useful concept for students to learn how death is absorbed, navigated, and remembered in complex and contingent ways (e.g., cultural practices, political postures, media depictions).

Necropolitics, as we understand it, is a particularly insidious form of sociopolitical necrosis (i.e., cellular death caused by injury or disease) and autolysis (i.e., cellular death caused by the original organism itself). Governments employ necropolitics to manipulate and control their people using "the language of survival" and even the governmental right to physically harm or kill others (Braidotti, 2013, p. 122). Students can consider how the language of survival uses necropolitical thinking in white supremacy<sup>2</sup> through examples such as the colonial notion of "exterminate all the brutes" in Africa in Joseph Conrad's *Heart of Darkness* (Conrad, 1899/2007); to the extermination of racial and ethnic groups in the Third Reich; to anti-immigrant chants of "send them back" at President Trump's "Make America Great Again" rallies. From the War on/of Terror to the killing of Black lives by police in the United States, the

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<sup>2</sup> Despite the American Psychological Association (2010) recommending that racialized identity markers be capitalized, we followed the lead of Hawkman and Shear (2020) and uncapitalized white. We see this decision as a way to confront white supremacy in educational and research-based contexts.

social studies curriculum widely consists of examples when necropolitical thought naturalizes death for the purpose of survival.

The social studies curriculum widely consists of examples of death resulting from practices intended to target certain populations deemed inferior. This positioning results in some lives (e.g., Black lives, Asian American lives, Indigenous lives, queer lives, Palestinian lives) to be deemed expendable and un-grievable (Butler, 2004). Murder becomes necessary, and even heroic as fellow humans are fetishized into a sort of evil (Becker, 1975). Consider, for example, how necropolitics informs commonly taught social studies lessons on the U.S. military's use of atomic warfare on/in Japan during the Second World War. When educators solicit students' beliefs on the justification of the bombings, a necropolitical lens provides for a more ethical and just analysis that does not leave the annihilation of so many lives as something that simply 'had to be done' to end the war, but, rather, as a way to conceptualize how the state authorizes who is allowed to live and who is allowed to die, and whose deaths are allowed be grieved (U.S. soldiers) and whose deaths are considered justifiably expendable (Japanese nationals).

But if these considerations can be so powerful when instances of death emerge in our curricula and classrooms, why are so many educators and students reluctant to face death in social studies? One way of thinking about this resistance is through the concept of death anxiety. Drawing from cultural anthropologist and psychologist Ernest Becker (e.g., 1975) and his influence on existential, experimental social psychology, we seek to help educators cut out the necrotic tissue of trepidation in our curriculum and meet our ontological insecurities towards death with more grace. Because humans can imagine our eventual death in the absence of an imminent threat (instead of merely fearing it when our time has come), humans can (over)compensate, triggering unhelpful or even destructive tendencies. Although human

motivation is complex and layered, anxieties regarding ontological security play a significant role in human behavior: Were these anxieties to remain unchecked, they would interfere with many effective forms of thought and action, and so humans developed a defensive psychological system to keep thoughts of human mortality away from our consciousness (Solomon et al., 2015). Denial, as well as our threat and defense responses, has led to much misery: “men have been the midwives of horror on this planet because this horror alone gave them peace of mind, made them ‘right’ in the world” (Becker, 1975, p. 116)—and we particularly appreciate the diagnoses from McBrien (2016) and Mbembe (2003, 2005) regarding some of the forms that these horrors take.

The question then lingers: How might we develop a more beneficial relationship to real or imagined deaths in order to thrive while we exist in this form on the planet? Drawing inspiration from Simon Critchley (2009),

[I]f we can begin to accept our limitedness, we might be able to give up certain fantasies of infantile omnipotence, worldly wealth, and puffed-up power that culminate in both aggressive personal conflicts and bloody wars between opposed and exclusive gods. To be a creature is to accept our dependence and limitedness in a way that does not result in disaffection and despair. It is rather the condition for courage and endurance. (p. 248-249)

To develop such courage and endurance, the authors of this article posit that we need to be attentive to death and grief in many contexts, including social studies education.

### **Exploring Death and Grief Through Social Studies Education**

As the National Council for the Social Studies NCSS (NCSS, 2008) proclaims, a significant component of social studies education is the story of history in that: “Studying the



past makes it possible for us to understand the human story across time” (para. 5). As educators, we need to lead our students through processing events in the past and how the events influence the present while also considering that each of us (educators, students) have different positionalities toward that content. We must also take into account that historical events are always already political and potentially traumatic.

Engaging with grief and having empathy for other people’s suffering is complex and challenging (Zembylas, 2009, 2011a, 2011b, 2018, 2019). In what Razack (2007) refers to as “stealing the pain of others” (p. 376), empathy often can be conceptualized as a double-edged sword. When social studies educators and students engage with historical, social, and political events in which trauma has been enacted and operationalized, one’s feelings frequently become centered, thus occluding the grief and ultimate humanity of others (Hartman, 1997). Put another way, the closer pain/suffering (be)comes, the more the actors experiencing pain/suffering begin to dematerialize, replaced by the beholder (Asad, 2008; Bauman & Tester, 2013; Hartman, 1997; Jacobsen & Marshman, 2008). For example, during a lesson constructed around primary sources depicting acts/results of violence, students may dwell upon their individual affectual reactions to the images instead of considering the implications of violence on those in/beyond the resources. To avoid this—when engaging with trauma-based topics—educators should emphasize the various ways in-human/ness is produced within the context of grievability. For example, perhaps instead of dwelling on how students *might* feel under the circumstances depicted in the resources, educators could ask: How will the lives of those depicted in the images be grieved?

To further explore these possibilities, we offer three examples of how educators and students can explore death and grief in social studies education. First, we situate death and

dying within civic, political, and legal contexts of U.S. court cases, and we follow that with examples of death and grief within curricula about the COVID-19 pandemic and, lastly, within teaching about international conflict.

### **Death and Grief in Curricula on Law and the Courts**

With COVID-19, one of the most sanctified and fundamental rights of U.S. citizens—the right to vote—has been challenged in new ways. While the 2020 election brought a record number of voters in the United States (Montanaro, 2020), because of concerns about COVID-19, its resulting illness, and potential death, the process of voting was confronted with new challenges. The CDC (2020) issued tips for staying safe while voting and stated that “Voters have the right to vote, regardless of whether they are sick or in quarantine” (para. 8); because of the increased safety concerns, there was widespread absentee voting, voting by mail, and early voting (see, for example, Deliso 2020; Desilver, 2020). While these efforts were in place for many locales, many Americans still voted in person on election day. And there was the case, for example, of an election judge supervisor in Missouri who tested positive for COVID-19 days before the election. Rather than quarantine at home, she worked the polls and died shortly after election day (Salcedo, 2020). All of these elements require(d) that voters face notions of potential illness and possibly death and grief while participating in civic duty and engagement.<sup>3</sup>

Death in relation to what might be called ‘civics’ is further seen in relation to the issue of euthanasia. For example, studying various rulings from U.S. court cases can help students plot out how death informs many debates within our civic and political lives. Starting in 1976, with the case of Karen Ann Quinlan, the U.S. judicial system has become involved with how much

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<sup>3</sup> We acknowledge the disparages of the current U.S. system of voting and lack of access many communities of color must endure. Moreover, we are of shared mind that this flawed system (of voting) often forces some community stakeholders to choose between working and voting—which can be a contributing cause of death and grief.

influence people have over the circumstances of their deaths. While the Quinlan case introduced the phrase “right to die,” the U.S. Supreme Court would not hear its first “right to die” case until 1989, in *Cruzan v. Missouri*. Ruling in favor of Missouri, the court’s watershed decision resulted in the requirement of advanced health directives for patients that desire to be taken off life-support, given the appropriate medical circumstances. These court cases illuminated a new mosaic of public thought/interpretation on death, specifically the philosophical contradistinction between killing and being allowed to die. Although the Supreme Court ruled that there was no constitutional “right to die” in *Vacco v. Quill* (1997), this contentious issue remains unsettled nationally. As of 2020, six states (California, Colorado, Hawaii, Oregon, Vermont, and Washington) and Washington D.C. have all adopted death with dignity or physician-assisted dying statutes that seek to empower people with control over how/when they will embrace death.

The (un)certainities and (un)exhaustiveness of death are not new. However, we suggest that thinking of death as being that “nothingness, that hollow darkness which is forever stalking the living, anticipating that twilight upon which it may exercise its right to return ashes to ashes and dust to dust” (Locke, 2016, p. 15) only promotes curricular, pedagogical, methodological, and theoretical paralyzation. With that in mind we ask: Can we be uncertain and exhausted by death yet work towards becoming *unparalyzed* in ways that help students develop more complex perceptions/postures/conceptualizations of death? As the civic-ness of death (e.g., voting and elections, court cases, environmental policies, and legal decisions) continues to remind us (e.g., teacher educators, researchers), there is a strong possibility that students will be faced with making death-related decisions in the future.

### **Death and Grief in Curricula on COVID-19**

Death and grief are also politically inf(1)ected, requiring social studies educators to

acknowledge how certain deaths are grievable while others are not. For example, the U.S. Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) (2021), recognized “increasing evidence that some racial and ethnic minority groups are being disproportionately affected by COVID-19” (para. 2.; see also, Godoy & Wood, 2020). Educators must crucially consider how they will position and present different communities to students through questioning the choices made when grouping others by positionalities that have the potential to violently erase or dehumanize by race, ethnicity, class, location, sexuality, gender, ability, age, religion, and culture. When these groupings are made in relation to intersecting structural violence, educators must foreground the effects of any disparities for students. For example, lessons about the unequal distribution of resources, access to care, and responses to suffering during the COVID-19 pandemic need to include considerations of how structural racism exacerbates the already magnified effects of racism on public health for Black, Indigenous, and other peoples of color in the United States (Gayle & Childress, 2021; Yearby, 2021).

Additionally, the conversation between ‘opening the economy’ and ‘saving lives’—while simplified unhelpfully into a binary—presents lives as expendable for saving the economy or the American way of life. For example, Indiana Republican U.S. Representative Trey Hollingworth is reported to have said: “Both of these decisions will lead to harm for individuals, whether that’s dramatic economic harm or whether it’s loss of life. But it’s always the American government’s position to say, in the choice between the loss of our way of life as Americans and the loss of life of American lives, we have to always choose the latter” (as quoted in Flynn, 2020, para. 3).

The COVID-19 pandemic makes clear that necropolitical issues affect every aspect of the regulation of life and death through seemingly common-sense personal and public responses to

the pandemic. Educators can help students consider how political dimensions of mortality inform every aspect of learning about the pandemic, from strategies of containment proven to be contentious, such as mask mandates, lockdowns, and travel restrictions; to the production, distribution, and consumption of masks and other personal protective equipment; to risk-based approaches advocated by public health organizations routinely challenged, rejected, and vilified by both popular and political pressures.

### **Death and Grief in Curricula on International Conflict**

We also see political inflection of death and grief outside of COVID-19. For example, in 2019, the then-U.S. President Donald Trump ordered the U.S. military out of Northern Syria so Turkish-backed forces would be able to target and begin killing Kurdish civilians and soldiers who had long supported U.S. anti-terrorism efforts in the region. Framing this decision, Trump remarked, “[l]et someone else fight over this long-bloodstained sand” (The New York Times, 2019, 1:10). On October 9, 2019, Turkey launched an offensive into Northern Syria (paradoxically named Operation Peace Spring), resulting in the displacement of 300,000 people and the killing of over 70 civilians. After unfavorable media coverage regarding this withdrawal of troops, on October 15, 2019, President Trump condemned Turkish aggression(s) and imposed sanctions on Turkish ministries. Despite the inherent meaning of Trump’s words, we argue that referring to Syria as “long-bloodstained sand” was an act of governmentality, priming public perception in a way that conceptualizes death and violence as being (culturally) agreeable and inevitable. In the act of nation-building, the ethos of Trump’s framing of Syria triggered the process of disavowing the mourning of those he surely knew would be killed by his decision to relocate troops within the region.

Thus, death’s tendrils touch us all in distinct ways and impact our

perceptions/interactions daily (Caswell, 2010). Every student—to varying degrees—is reminded of death (sub)consciously, not only through the vehicle of personal trauma (loss/aging/grief) but also through social studies curriculum where students are exposed to a (re)arrival of past and current events fraught with complex emotions. However, this coverage of international conflict, rarely examines the nuances and intricacies between the socio-political conditionalities of the living/dead or the corresponding cognitive effects and emotional affects of engaging with such themed topics (Locke, 2016; Simon & Eppert, 1997). We urge educators to consider these aspects when teaching about any historical or present-day traumatic event.

### **Conclusion**

COVID-19 has impacted essentially every way of life for humans (and perhaps even for nonhumans) over the last year and counting; however, it has impacted particular communities, ways of life, areas of our world, aspects of our (human and nonhuman) living *differently* based on socio-political-racial-ethnic-economic and anthropocentric and/or necropolitical contexts. Despite the positive impact on the environment—as evidenced by a sharp reduction in highly reactive air pollutants caused from the operation of human-made machines (e.g., cars, factories, equipment) (Muhammad et al., 2020), the COVID-19 pandemic has caused massive amounts of death and resulting grief through the unjust necropolitics of deciding who gets to live and die through inequitable distribution and allocation of care and resources. It is important for educators to understand and make sense of the fact all communities have not experienced death and grief from the global pandemic in the same way. Specifically, COVID-19 has had more destructive implications for/on Indigenous and other marginalized/racialized communities, in addition to

their already precarious relationship(s) with national governments (see, e.g., Power et al., 2020 and Russo Lopes & Bastos Lima, 2020).<sup>4</sup>

What can we do now in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic, as it continues to take on new twists and turns around the world, that enables social studies education to reckon with the ethical and political responsibilities of our curriculum to equip students to face death in socially just and anti-oppressive ways? As suggested by the examples discussed above, we believe that thinking with theoretical tools situated within various contexts of death and grief (e.g., necrocene, necropolitics, death anxiety) can be generative tools to help educators/students engage with, process, and interrogate critically the many socio-political positionings of death. We encourage the social studies education field to not only reckon with how we position death and mortality in political, ethical, and psychological ways, but to enact what the call for this special issue urges: thinking a new future for social studies that makes spaces not just for surviving, but for thriving. The work required to make such spaces, however, requires pausing—at times anxiously and grievously—to ask who is not with us to thrive into the future, who has not survived as a result of necropolitical forces in the past and present, and what must we call forth in our own selves to face directly death from global inequities, violent conflicts, and environmental catastrophes? The concepts and examples we think through in this article are offered in the hopes educators and students can learn the world from the other side.

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<sup>4</sup> We also want to recognize Indigenous and other marginalized/racialized communities' active response to the COVID-19 pandemic and their ongoing resistance to national governments' necropolitical stances/actions, exacerbated by COVID-19 (again, see, e.g., Power et al., 2020 and Russo Lopes & Bastos Lima, 2020).

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## **Exploring Curricular Ambiguity, Erasure, and Political Invisibility of the Asian Americans in the Secondary Social Studies Curriculum**

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**Abstract:** This qualitative study of Asian American high school social studies teachers in San Francisco seeks to apply AsianCrit to make a case for further expanding and nuancing the Asian American Panethnic Community's (AAPC) representation in the social studies curriculum as normalizing the minority panethnic community's political visibility, rather than minoritization of this community. To make this case, I use data from five teachers analyzed through an AsianCrit lens to showcase the [strategic anti-] essentialization of the AAPC in social studies teachers in an AAPC-plurality district as cautionary for districts elsewhere in the country. This study seeks to contribute to the field of social studies education's understanding of the complex tensions between a community-generated panethnic label, and the imposition of essentialism on the AAPC in social studies classrooms.

**Keywords:** *Asian Americans, curriculum, secondary, social studies, U.S. history.*

*“Those early anti-Chinese sentiments would raise eyebrows today for a younger, less weary generation. Perhaps it was this innate understanding of ‘our place,’ which forged such strong community bonds within Chinatown where everyone ‘knew’ everyone else.”*

— The Rev. Harry Chuck, *Eulogy: Elizabeth Hall.*

My aunt, Elizabeth Hall, became Principal of Spring Valley Elementary in 1957, the first Asian American principal in the San Francisco Unified School District (SFUSD). She would say that the Greater Chinese American Community (GCAC), knew ‘our place.’ At her funeral in 2003, she was eulogized as working to ‘shield’ Chinese youth from racism. Growing up in San Francisco, my parents’ attempts to downplay anti-Asian racism could have been to ‘shield’ me from discrimination, perhaps out of desire for me to simply enjoy our community’s hard-won rights to citizenship, attend public schools, or learn translingually. Shielding me from the extent of anti-Asian racism, and our complicity in anti-Black racism, gave me a false security that racism was nonexistent, while the absence of Asian Americans in the social studies curriculum left my community’s history my mostly white classmates’ imaginations.

My ancestors referred to San Francisco by its Cantonese name, *Gum Saan* (Gold Mountain). I grew up, however, without learning about Mamie Tape, Vincent Chin, or Alice Fong Yu. In the wake of COVID-19, a new wave of anti-Asian racism, and the murders in Georgia, social studies education should consider the forces underlying the AAPC’s minimal presence in the social studies curriculum, and the harm caused to students of Color already feeling invisible at school because they are presumed to be ‘doing fine.’ However, seeking nuanced AAPC social studies curricular representation ought also come without further erasing Black folx’ prominent contributions to history which have also been absent from the curriculum. How AAPC teachers approach our curricular absence is, therefore, critical to greater AAPC curricular representation.

A curriculum that counters white supremacist logics, then, ought to center the intellectual legitimacy of teachers of Color's counterstories (An, 2016). AAPC secondary social studies teachers' perspectives on the SFUSD curriculum offer several implications for how educators nationally advance AAPC representation and contribute to the field of social studies education's efforts to de-center whiteness in curriculum. My goal is to show how AAPC-identifying teachers resist the curricular erasure of the AAPC without further erasing Black and Brown voices who have also been erased in social studies.

This qualitative study of AAPC secondary social studies teachers in the SFUSD seeks to answer the following questions: (1) How do five AAPC-identifying SFUSD secondary social studies teachers respond to AAPC curricular erasure in their praxis? (2) what do these teachers believe is needed to normalize, rather than minoritize, AAPC narratives in the secondary social studies curriculum? I argue that social studies education should resist lumping of the AAPC in the secondary social studies curriculum, which includes distinguishing between minoritization as separate demographic and political concepts, towards normalizing political visibility to guide curricular decision making as justification to center counterstories in social studies.

### **Theoretical Framework**

AsianCrit, an extension of critical race theory (Bell, 1991; Delgado & Stefancic, 2017), seeks to center the unique experiences of the AAPC. This study is grounded in critiques of the opaque boundaries of panethnic markers ("Asian American"). This framework highlights the AAPC's unstable placement in the social studies curriculum because of a lack of clear consensus on who is AAPC, as well as how racist Model Minority and forever foreigner stereotypes compound to create a curriculum that sees AAPC histories as irrelevant.



Without consensus about *what* classifies one as AAPC, the competing definitions of ‘Asian’ are a necessary starting point. Hsieh and Kim (2020) parse the ethnoracial labels and connect anti-AAPC racism to ambiguity of labels, such as Asian Pacific Islander Desi American, leading to internal interest convergence which negatively impacts folx from the Global South. This internal interest convergence could see the AAPC’s needs conflated with the GCAC’s, erasing Pacific Islanders’ and South[East] Asians’ needs (Espíritu, 1992; Lo, 2016; Rodriguez, 2018). A panethnic term also recognizes East Asian, especially Chinese, domination of the panethnic community’s minimal representation in social studies (An, 2016).

‘Chinese’ as an ethnoracial label, like ‘Asian,’ implies several identity markers including national, ethnic, or linguistic identity, each containing differing inclusiveness of ethnic minorities, Indigenous peoples, and diaspora (Ang, 2001; NoOutsider, 2017; Yip, 2009; Zhao, 1998). Subsequent migration fleeing Chinese and American imperialism informs power dynamics within the AAPC. Thus, “GCAC” is useful in research set in San Francisco wherein the GCAC contains several groups that coexist despite lingering political tensions (Lo, 2016; Chuck & Chuck, 2019). Consequent terminological conflation between Asian, East Asian, and Chinese reinforces lumping multiple groups into one ‘Asian American’ label (Ngo & Lee, 2007). Further, exoticized ‘Asian values’ stereotypes give way to the Model Minority Myth which stereotyped Asian Americans as submissive and obedient (Espíritu, 1992; Lee, et al., 2017; Ngo & Lee, 2007; Schuman, 2009). Consequent Model Minority Myth stereotypes are harmful to communities within the AAPC, especially South[East] Asian [Americans], who face additional discrimination compared to East Asian Americans (Rodriguez, 2020b). As a result, the AAPC is unstably positioned in discourse about racism in America (Kim, 1999; Leonardo, 2009; Lee, et al., 2017).

Stereotypes imposed upon the AAPC reinforce white supremacist ideology through expectations of assimilation, whilst preserving artificial binaries between East-West, Black-white, and American-foreign (Leonardo, 2009/2013; Ngo & Lee, 2007). Further, in acknowledging racism as endemic in American education, the whitewashing of the curriculum, and communities of Color's representation, critical race theory is helpful to expose the many technologies of anti-Blackness across education (Au, et al., 2016; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995).

AsianCrit extends Ladson-Billings and Tate's (1995) framework of critical race theory in education and Chang's (1993) concept of Asian critical legal studies to address the specific experiences of the AAPC (Iftikar & Museus, 2018), and revokes permission for curriculum to enact "symbolic and physical violence against all non-white students" (An, 2020, p. 150). AsianCrit's tenets, (1) Asianization, (2) transnational contexts, (3) (re)constructive history, (4) strategic (anti)essentialism, (5) intersectionality, (6) story, theory and praxis, and (7) commitment to social justice seek to extend corresponding CRT tenets by speaking to the AAPC's precariousness as a multinational, multiethnic community that shares a single label (Iftikar & Museus, 2018; Museus, 2013).

The key tenets in this study are Asianization, strategic anti-essentialism, and (re)constructive history which center the ways in which AAPC folx are made 'Asian' through white supremacy and nativism, the historical invisibility of the AAPC in curriculum, and centering AAPC folx' ability to "intervene in the radicalization process" (Iftikar & Museus, 2018, p. 940). These tenets help locate the minoritization that teachers experience, especially given the difficulty of locating 'norming' across curriculum and teaching, especially since curriculum that features little AAPC history to deconstruct in the first place (An, 2016). These tenets also set up the simultaneity of intra-AAPC tensions and interest convergence, impeding trust and coalition with

other communities of Color by acknowledging ‘positive’ stereotypes, like the Model Minority Myth, as technologies of anti-Blackness by tacitly consenting to a ‘proper’ way to be a person of Color in the United States (Lee et al., 2017).

### **Literature Review**

The growing body of AsianCrit literature extends CRT, like other ‘Crits,’ to “generate a critical race perspective that focuses on a specific racial, ethnic group” (An, 2016, p. 250). Since Museus’ (2013) book on students in higher education, a growing body of work has emerged using AsianCrit in K-12 social studies education. AsianCrit in social studies, An (2016) writes, seeks to expand the explicit curricular narrative of AAPC involvement in antiracist praxis whilst also subverting Yellow Peril and Model Minority tropes embedded in the curriculum (Rodriguez, 2018). Importantly, AsianCrit builds solidarity with other communities to reject anti-Blackness and Asianization in the AAPC. Lingering tensions within the AAPC persist, especially between newcomers and more established families (Chuck & Chuck, 2019) and the absence of AAPC narratives in curriculum (An, 2016; Au et al., 2016; Rodriguez, 2018) that do not further marginalize South[East] AAPC folx (Ngo & Lee, 2007), such as the Filipinx community (e.g.: Curammeng, 2020; Francisco-Menchavez et al., 2018). In elementary social studies, Rodriguez and Ip (2018) applied the (re)constructive history tenet of AsianCrit to consider how coalition and solidarity were built into their history teaching.

Similarly, Rodriguez (2018, 2019, 2020a, 2020b) has advanced the field’s understanding of how the AAPC is framed in the social studies curriculum in history and civics, with particular attention to how the AsianCrit tenet, story, theory and praxis, promotes cultural citizenship education to social studies educators. In particular, Rodriguez’ (2018) work also considers the unique experiences of Southeast Asian Americans, and how their counterstories speak back to the

East Asian dominance of the AAPC. This dominance of the AAPC's minimal representation also extends to children's literature, as many books that feature AAPC stories are written by cultural outsiders (Rodriguez & Kim, 2018). An (2016, 2017, 2020) builds on AsianCrit in social studies education by speaking back to both social studies curriculum and social studies standards as "a source of psychological and physical violence against Asian Americans" (An, 2020, p. 47). This body of literature shows the above theoretical stances to foreground the interconnectedness of curriculum, teaching and student perspectives in social studies teaching. A gap that persists in literature on how secondary teachers address AAPC curricular erasure in secondary social studies, and how AAPC teachers navigate the perceived burden of addressing curricular absence themselves. This study explores how teachers interact with Museus' (2013) concern that there is little AAPC history in the curriculum to *reconstruct* and builds on An's (2020) work to further disrupt AAPC erasure from the social studies curriculum.

### **Methodology**

This qualitative study was conducted with five AAPC-identifying high school social studies teachers working in the SFUSD selected from the recommendation of local AAPC teacher organizations. Based on email conversations, teachers were then selected to create a proportionally representative sample of the American teaching force on the basis of gender identity (NCES, 2020). The setting of this study is important because of San Francisco's unique demography as a plurality 45% AAPC urban intensive district, and the rest of the district 28% Hispanic, 14% white, and 8% Black (Milner, 2012; ProPublica, 2020). The SFUSD's AAPC teachers represent 23% of SFUSD teachers (Reese, 2019), compared to 5.8% of California teachers (CDE, 2020 July 9), and 2% of teachers nationally (NCES, 2020).

### **Participants**

Five (N=5) AAPC-identifying high school social studies teachers in multiple schools in the SFUSD were selected for this study with the help of interlocutors in the SFUSD and The Association of Chinese Teachers (TACT) which represents AAPC teachers serving in the SFUSD. These teachers were selected because they represented a breadth of experiences, subject-area specializations, and levels of interaction with anti-racist initiatives in the SFUSD. Participants were further selected using email conversations in which I screened to make sure participants were in-service secondary teachers with experience teaching before the COVID-19 pandemic. Participants identified as cisgendered womxn (n=4) and men (n=1). Participants were all American-born, but only some disclosed being children of immigrants (n=3). Participants taught courses in 10th grade World History, 11th grade US History, 12th grade American Democracy, elective courses in Ethnic Studies (considered Social Studies in the SFUSD), and AP U.S. History.

### **Data Collection and Analysis**

Data was collected through semi-structured interviews (Weiss, 1994) between May and July 2020. Five interviews were conducted virtually due to COVID-19. Each interview lasted 60-75 minutes. To establish participant relationships, we spoke off-record during which I mentioned my relationship with the SFUSD, and mutual connections with participants.

Interviews (Appendix A) invited participants to self-identify racially and ethnically, whether these identities match those others perceive them to be, how long they have taught in the district, and the courses they teach. I followed up with questions about AAPC teachers' unique needs and challenges at the district level, inquiring about the extent teachers believed the existing level of AAPC curricular representation was sufficient. The interviews focused on how they have addressed perceived gaps in representation, which led to unstructured parts of the interview. Interviews engaged the question of perceived competition between communities of Color for

curricular representation before I asked the explicit question. The first pass of transcription was completed using an automated transcription service (Temi). After the transcript was created, a second pass was completed by hand to ensure accuracy. Analysis utilized emerging and predetermined codes informed by the AsianCrit tenets of Asianization, strategic anti-essentialism, and (Re)constructive history (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Iftikar & Museus, 2018) for teacher perceptions of curricular minoritization of the AAPC, and perceptions of disrespect, resulting in codes such as “family histories,” “panethnic coalition,” and “emotional labor.” The aforementioned AsianCrit tenets inform these codes by centering the counter-narratives these teachers are using to teach against the curriculum. Social studies concepts of solidarity informed other codes, such as “inter-community solidarity,” “teacher or student confusion about identities,” and “belonging.” These codes are predicated on the AsianCrit stance that (counter)storytelling is positioned oppositional to the curriculum.

### **Statement of Researcher Positionality**

I am an adoptee raised by an American-born Chinese family in San Francisco. I was raised outside of Chinatown which is seen locally as a privileged identity marker. I identify as a member of the AAPC, and am ethn racially Taiwanese-Japanese American, which causes me to be lumped into the GCAC as “Chinese” (Lo, 2016). I do not speak Mandarin or Cantonese, and was raised in an English-medium household, and educated in monolingual private schools. Throughout the interviews, it was unclear whether my monolingual upbringing, or my private education positioned me as a privileged outsider in this research, as both were brought up by participants, usually when I asked clarifying question such as which textbooks teachers used.

While Chinese-passing, I position myself in this study as privileged because my fifth-generation GCAC family is seen as part of the ‘establishment’ professional class (Chinn, 1989;

Chuck & Chuck, 2019). I, therefore, cautiously position myself as a cultural insider (Banks, 1998) even whilst my insider-outsider positionality makes me hesitate doing so in this paper.

### **Findings**

AsianCrit tenets of Asianization, strategic anti-essentialism, and (Re)constructive history ground this analysis. Guided by these tenets, data reveals: 1) the violence of gaps in AAPC curricular representation leading to the feeling of competition for curricular visibility, and 2) the undermining affect this curricular environment has on cultivating humanizing solidarity between various communities. These findings demonstrate an opportunity to trouble assumptions that demographic growth equates to growing AAPC sociopolitical power and curricular visibility.

### **Curricular Competition and [Dis]respect**

The AAPC is largely absent in the social studies curriculum, thus making *reconstruction* of history difficult (An, 2016/2020; Rodriguez, 2020b). Participants agreed about the AAPC's insufficient curricular visibility, and how Asianization creates greater stereotypical racialization of AAPC folx. However, participants diverged on how this harms students of Color. Two participants, Ken, a high school history teacher, and Alicia a high school ethnic studies teacher, were clear that current AAPC curricular representation is insufficient:

Alicia: Absolutely not.... What I personally worked on a lot in ethnic studies more recently was trying to show this interconnected relationship between Asian Americans and Black folx in this country. (Interview 1, 08 June, 2020)

Ken: It's insufficient... it's... shocking, if you look at the railroads in the U.S. history textbook, there's no mention of the Chinese or the Irish. It's just seen as "the railroads." ...it's all separate, there's a little mention on how these

groups are working together for the common good. (Interview 3, 30 June, 2020)

Alicia corroborates Hsieh and Nguyen's (2020) idea of teacher education that encourages teacher coalition, especially in context of the extent to which she "had to unlearn a lot of what was taught" (Interview 1, 08 June, 2020) to her. As a result, Alicia corroborates Wertsch's (2000) arguments for the importance of the students' family histories as a filter through which students engage with curriculum for an ethnic studies course she designed with colleagues. Ken a high school history teacher, corroborates Kim (1999) and An's (2020) analysis that "whites valorize Asian Americans relative to Blacks... who do not complain about the status quo" (p. 146) insofar as the erasure of the GCAC in westward expansion is absorbed into white history.

Strikingly, Ken goes on to mention how cases like *Tape vs. Hurley* should be shown as connected to cases like *Brown vs. Board of Education*. He asks "how do those two separate incidents actually connect with the common good?" (Interview 3, 30 June, 2020). Ken points to how the portrayals of *Brown* or the transcontinental railroad in the curriculum are contrary to his family narratives, and seemingly contrary to his experience suggest the erasure of instances of coalition between communities of Color. Consequently, Ken shows how teachers can position their (counter)narratives against the explicit curriculum and also the potential for competition, rather than teacher coalition (Hsieh & Nguyen, 2020), between communities of Color when social studies courses are organized chronologically. Consequently, an implicitly racialized curricular organizing principle, he suggests, means that students are not seeing themselves in the curriculum, but also may not see themselves as part of America's history.

This dual-absence resembles An's (2020) discussion of forever-foreigner stereotypes as a form of racialization, and that space need be *created* for AAPC representation, as if it were



ancillary to the explicit curriculum. Participants suggest that both of these challenges show the emotional labor teachers absorb to fill gaps in course materials whilst trying to expose students to their histories, whilst balancing other communities' representation. An (2020) highlights the importance of "curricular transformations through organized actions" (p. 150), but when multiple groups feel in competition with each other for curricular space, coalition and strategic anti-essentialist teaching can be elusive.

Several teachers discussed the reification of instructional time. Respondents discussed how California's framework created the perception that adding to the curriculum is easier than replacing what is in the curriculum. Carrie, for one, describes her choices in determining curricular representation.

Carrie: I'm going to make a choice, I weave in demographics that represent our students or represent narratives that they have to know... and that's where the competition comes in. These are the things, this is a time you have... I think there is going to be competition for time and materials and how much you can give students. It is very emotional[ly] exhaustive to be teaching, to be juggling your time management, and to be emotionally monitoring yourself... because of the [curriculum's] impact it has on children's lives. (Interview 4, 01 July, 2020)

Carrie's response, in her resignation to the curriculum's white-centricity, suggests that limited time can yield essentialized, and reductive, portrayals of AAPC folx. She also acknowledges the labor that goes into acquiring reliable information to present to students. Valerie and Audrey shared in Carrie's critiques, adding that teachers are assumed to make 'appropriate' decisions as to how to balance time and representation:

Valerie: I think there is very much competition for [curricular space]. I think many minority groups struggle to be heard and seen in history, for example...in a high school kind of survey type of history class, it's difficult to cover it all. (Interview 5, 11 July, 2020)

Audrey: ...The way that [curriculum is] presented leaves teachers a lot of discretion. And I think that, For a lot of my colleagues... I'll include myself in this... if you're running out of time towards the end of the year, and you're given a choice that, and let's say you want to get to Vietnam before the end of the school year. And you had a week that most of my colleagues would devote the majority of their time to the Civil Rights movement and maybe a passing skim over everyone else. I've made that choice before. (Interview 2, 23 June, 2020)

Valerie and Audrey both allude to the struggle of communities of Color to be seen in curricular time. Audrey, especially, in the use of the phrase 'everyone else,' points to an implicit racialized curricular organizing principle by implying that the Civil Rights Movement is a 'Black issue,' rather using the opportunity to highlight multiracial coalition who resisted. This masking of curricular erasure in seemingly 'neutral' mechanics of instructional time further suggests the curricular violence against the AAPC by siloing us outside the Black-white binary (An, 2020). While Audrey acknowledges her discretion to highlight marginalized narratives, she implies that it is inconsistent among her colleagues.

Participants also suggest that guidance from the SFUSD is unhelpful for teachers who can already feel complicit in a violent curriculum. A further point of tension tension, for Alicia and

Ken, is a requirement to teach local history, but leaving it to teachers to create the Ethnic Studies framework, respectively:

Ken: we've seen government attempt to mandate the mentions of particular groups of. Like Harvey Milk... in San Francisco history. And I think that's great, but I don't think it's productive because it doesn't show any synergy about how these groups should be, have been working together as, as opposed to being distinct pieces of history...I do think there's competition, but I do not think it's productive or helpful. (Interview 3, 30 June, 2020)

Alicia: I also taught economics and government. That was absolutely informed by the work that I did in ethnic studies. And you could call that an infusion.... There's no guideline for it though, they're...hoping teachers create something. (Interview 1, 08 June, 2020)

Both responses highlight the tension between representations of solidarity and practical considerations of time. Further, a second layer of tension sits between portraying 'everyone' and representing those physically in the classroom. Participants showcase the challenges of curricular interventions that highlight individuals, like Harvey Milk, a leader in the LGBTQ+ movement over, for example, the Third World Liberation Strikes (Chuck & Chuck, 2019). These responses also showcase the ways in which the AAPC can be erased from the civil rights coalition and the need for both constructive and *reconstructive* histories in social studies (Iftikar & Museus, 2018).

Alicia, in describing her involvement in creating the SFUSD Equity Studies Infusion Framework (2019), seeks to respond to this tension. She talks about the grassroots nature of the equity studies framework and its local relevance. Alicia states:

It started from... teachers who [said] “I'm teaching this Eurocentric history in my class. I don't want to do this anymore.” They just met after school and just started developing this curriculum, which is our framework for how we teach ethnic studies now. It's grown and it's developed, so many people have... taken ownership over it... and I think that needs to happen in every community. We can't just take what we have, hand it over, and say “you have to follow this framework.” They have to create something that makes sense for them. ... There's another contingent who is very wary of what ethnic studies is, no real understanding of it, but make assumptions about what students are learning and gaining from the course. There is a lot of attack on the “rigor” of the course. I hear that word come up a lot. [That] the coursework, [is] not rigorous enough....

(Interview 1, 08 June, 2020)

Alicia demonstrates the utility of a subversive and grassroots strategic anti-essentialism described in *AsianCrit* (Iftikar & Museus, 2018). These grassroots efforts can more precisely accomplish both coalition-building and engage her students' positionalities. Alicia also notes that ethnic studies as a content-area is perceived by colleagues as less rigorous and less academic. This pushback over ethnic studies courses' rigor suggests the primacy of traditional assessments in teacher praxis, rather than the interrogation of one's privilege.

### **Curricular Ambiguity**

These findings suggest a gap in AAPC curricular representation, the conflation of GCAC as the AAPC in the social studies curriculum, and the perceptions of curricular competition between communities of Color for curricular representation in social studies rather than coalitional solidarity. As teachers seek to actively position the AAPC in solidarity with other communities of

Color, they concede that the AAPC's plurality in this urban intensive school district complicates students' lived minoritization (Milner, 2012). Participants acknowledged that they have to counteract the feelings of being the 'minority-majority' in the SFUSD, which can inadvertently reinforce reductive portrayals of the AAPC. For example, Audrey and Ken describe student interactions they have witnessed where the tension between majority and representation emerges:

Audrey: Solidarity sometimes is difficult to build. For example, there was one year, [where] the awards at the end of the year was majority [AAPC] scholarship winners, ...our department honors went to Asian students and..., it feels like they're the ones in power.... They make up the majority of ASB because they are the majority of the school. And there's a lot of work being done to try to represent everybody, but there [are] definitely moments where I think that my students were definitely the ones in the majority in positions of power, and as a Chinese American teacher, I always feel a little bit awkward about that because then I feel like I'm part of that, [KC: That power structure, you mean?]. ...yeah, it's just sheer number, I think gives you, officially or otherwise, some power. I always try to get kids to understand that that may not always be the case and that building solidarity is important, but I think that's also hard... there's definitely unofficial segregation. (Interview 2, 23 June, 2020)

Ken: [AAPC] teachers are not always seen as people of Color in San Francisco by our Black students. ...I had a coworker who overheard a conversation where a student brought this up... and made a remark saying, I don't think this came from a place of malice..., "but so are Chinese people of Color?" And I think some of the

Chinese folx gave a side-eye or a double-take and, as his teacher was listening, he heard some locker room banter where African American students said as well, “Chinese people aren't people of Color.” That's something I never thought of. I always thought at the very least people would think we're “Yellow.” That's, a Color...but to know that we're not considered people of Color kind of falls into the Model Minority Myth where we're now seen as part of the white narrative where we're white, or white to some people, where sometimes people don't see the struggles that Asians have gone through. (Interview 3, 30 June, 2020)

Audrey and Ken describe how they observe their privilege as AAPC, specifically GCAC, folx in the SFUSD. Audrey's response suggested that she felt a complicity in this informal power structure, and yet, felt minoritized by the lack of curricular visibility or representation. The tension Audrey and Ken indicate the dissonance of being surrounded by people who look like them, but simultaneously teaching a curriculum which is contrary to their lived experiences or family histories. Audrey and Ken, as a result, show the persistent “racial exclusion” (Rodriguez, 2018, p. 535) that the AAPC experiences, further suggesting the need for (re)constructing AAPC histories.

Audrey expresses discomfort that students appear in positions of power, through academic or extracurricular leadership, making it challenging for her to represent AAPC solidarity with civil rights activism in her teaching. The dual messages of GCAC dominance in the AAPC, and Model Minority stereotyping, thereby problematically suggest GCAC or AAPC identities shield them from discrimination beyond the SFUSD further Asianizing and essentializing a single AAPC experience (Ngo & Lee, 2007).

Similarly, Ken sees conflation of GCAC and AAPC in San Francisco as a literal reflection of their plurality status in the SFUSD, and a consequence of panethnic lumping. The curriculum's

rosy representations of the AAPC both normalize, and reproduce, essentialized stereotypes by not actively reconstructing them. His encounter with students questioning AAPC fold as people of Color is especially noteworthy because of the perception, as Ken suggests, that being in the demographic majority counteracts students' sociopolitical marginalization. Apparent, too, is the curriculum's role in creating what AAPC teachers perceive to be students' majoritarian feelings grounded in Model Minority tropes.

Valerie details her perception of her students similarly to Kim's (1999) discussion of the AAPC's ambiguous situatedness in the Black-white binary. Valerie describes the privilege of being AAPC in San Francisco:

Valerie: I'm hoping they understand [how many things being Asian can mean] because then it becomes this conversation about how, in the Bay Area and in San Francisco, you are a majority, and you do experience certain privileges of being a majority where you don't have to think about certain things. It's there for you. You're kind of a norm in a way, but at the same time you live in a space where you're also still a minority. And that, I don't know if they quite understand all that, yet. (Interview 5, 11 July, 2020)

The 'certain things' implies a false sense of security that demography affords in a densely populated city like San Francisco. Valerie highlights the difference between minoritization being a norm and being *the* norms— meaning that one can be a socioculturally minoritized, despite being part of a numerical majority. She suggests that the AAPC's presence in San Francisco can be both normalized and minoritized. As a result, the difference between an ethnoracial minority community and a socioculturally *minoritized* community is more opaque and feeds into essentialized Model Minority stereotypes (Lee et al., 2017). This distinction impacts South and

Southeast Asian newcomers by positioning the entire AAPC's interests as convergent with the GCAC's (Rodriguez, 2020).

The distinction that Valerie raises between being normalized in demography but not sociopolitical power suggests the utility of AsianCrit as a frame of analysis in this study. Further, the concerns they raise about how the social studies curriculum may not prepare students to leave the safety net of San Francisco because of its unique demography suggests a needed conceptual differentiation between representing the AAPC as a 'minority' that is simply part of living in San Francisco or the United States, and *normalizing* the minoritization of communities.

### **Discussion**

These findings demonstrate the AAPC's ambiguous placement in the social studies curriculum and how curricular erasure caused the AAPC teachers in this study to feel as if they have to compete with other marginalized communities for curricular representation. Next, I build on Valerie's comment above about 'being a norm' to draw conceptual contrast between framing the AAPC as political minority and a demographic majority in cities like San Francisco. This study's implications elucidate a multiplicity of outcomes in strategic anti-essentialist social studies curriculum which constructs history that fosters mutual trust between teachers and curriculum.

The curricular erasure of the AAPC is similar to erasure of Black and Latinx narratives as discussed in other social studies literature (e.g.: King, 2019; Santiago, 2017). The AAPC teachers in this study simultaneously navigate both racism that they experienced, as well as 'deracialization' of their students were experiencing, such as teachers noticing students questioning whether AAPC students are people of Color. These implications also extend to districts where AAPC students are both a demographic minority *and* a sociopolitically minoritized community given how data suggests that explicit curricular change can empower greater sociopolitical visibility for the AAPC.



However, teachers in this study exemplified their challenges as teachers of Color, despite the AAPC's normalized *demographic* majority in San Francisco. Framing the AAPC with this perhaps minute distinction highlights the need for greater curricular, and therefore political, visibility as the AAPC grows in number across the United States. Following recent anti-AAPC racist and xenophobic violence, there is need to consider how essentialist tropes emerge from lumping, Asianization, and how minimal AAPC curricular representation in social studies also represses our potential to be a visible political community in coalition with other communities of Color (An, 2020; Iftikar & Museus, 2018; Rodriguez, 2018). Doing so recognizes that the tenets of AsianCrit themselves are hard to enact without reconstructing AAPC racialization in social studies when the minoritization of the AAPC itself is normalized in the curriculum.

Participants in this study suggest a need to resolve the AAPC's curricular erasure, but also the ambiguity associated with the AAPC's role in civil rights and antiracist work because of the ways in which the AAPC is positioned outside the Black-white binary. Thus, to continue to advance AsianCrit in social studies education is to leverage curriculum as a medium to normalize the visibility of both the multiplicity of folx within the AAPC and our *collective political* presence in American life. Importantly, this means still acknowledging the racialization, discrimination, and exclusion of AAPC folx nationally.

This can take the form of teacher support groups like TACT supporting AAPC teachers as a panethnic coalition in the curricular representation, rather than simply conflating Chinese with the AAPC. The curricular impact of this framing is groups working to expand resources for all teachers to expand the AAPC's curricular representation. These data suggest that to position the AAPC in solidarity with other communities of Color requires challenging the racial exclusion

(Rodriguez, 2018) of the AAPC, thereby reinforcing the ambiguity of the AAPC as a panethnic community of *Color*.

Within the AAPC itself, the seeming internal interest convergence centers East Asians by highlighting only Angel Island, Japanese internment, and The Chinese Exclusion Acts implies that GCAC history is Asian American history. These recitations of violence problematically normalize state-sanctioned anti-Asian violence, but also marginalize South[East] Asian narratives both within the AAPC and the broader curriculum writ large. As a result, the goal of reconstructive history within the social studies curriculum can be understood to both position the AAPC in coalition with other communities of Color and begin to reconstruct the AAPC's history led by cultural insiders, rather than Asianized narratives that social studies textbooks canonize (Rodriguez, 2018).

The importance of normalizing the AAPC as a growing political force also resists Model Minority stereotypes and positions teachers to enact strategic anti-essentialist work with the intellectual legitimacy of their counterstories. With coalition as a curricular organizing principle, social studies teachers can work with Black, AAPC and other communities of Color's histories with solidarity, rather than competition. In practice, this means curriculum organized around students' community, and heritage, practices to set the pace of change in curricular adaptation, whilst also further valuing students lived experience as legitimate knowledge (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Paris & Alim, 2014).

### **Conclusion**

In this study, I have shown that five AAPC teachers in the SFUSD feel that the AAPC's curricular representation is insufficient and that they feel a sense of competition for limited time with other minoritized communities. I have shown that minimal AAPC curricular representation

is problematic and that reframing AAPC's curricular representation can be part of the healing in wake of recent anti-AAPC violence and normalizing the AAPC as a growing demographic *and* political force.

This study was limited by COVID-19 restrictions, especially on student participation, since student voices are absent in this study. Expansions of this study can include virtual classroom observations and conversations with students to learn from AAPC students about how they interact with the explicit and implicit curricular messaging they experience. This study can be expanded to majority-white contexts to consider the affect white teachers have on AAPC curricular representation and can include investigating the challenges teachers may face in expanding their content knowledge beyond their area(s) of study.

However, teachers in this study showed that they see themselves as having agency to combat Asianization in the curriculum despite the anxiety about renewed anti-AAPC violence. The implications of this study also suggest the need to continue to consider AAPC teachers working in contexts like San Francisco as urban teachers of Color.

While my Aunt Elizabeth would be saddened by this recent wave of violence against the AAPC, my hope is that this study will reassure her that she left this teaching community, and field, in good hands as we take up the struggle for recognition of the AAPC's pain, joy, and resilience, as a normal part of American history.

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**Appendix A: Interview Questions and Protocol:**

- 1) Please state your name, title/position, and the district to which you report?
- 2) How do you self-identify ethnically? (To which race or ethnicity do people in your life or work perceive you to belong?)
- 3) How many years have you served as a teacher? Worked in your current district?
- 4) What courses, if any, do you teach?
  - A. What courses, if any, do you teach related to ‘ethnic studies’?
  - B. To what extent are you aware of AB2016, of the California Assembly (2016) which sets out a proposed framework for a California Ethnic Studies curriculum?
    - A. What is your impression of this legislation?
- 5) I am now going to ask you a few questions about your relationship with your students and your faculty/staff/administrative colleagues especially with regard to race? To what extent do you believe your race/ethnicity (or what people perceive to be your race/ethnicity) might affect your:
  - A. Relationships with students?
  - B. Relationships with faculty/staff/administrative colleagues?
  - C. Your teaching style? Classroom routines?
- 6) What unique challenges do you believe Asian American teachers face?
- 7) Speaking generally, what are your feelings about the flexibility of the State of California’s curriculum standards? Why?
- 8) To what extent do you believe there is competition between racial, ethnic, or sexual minority narratives for visibility in California’s curriculum?
- 9) Specifically, Asian American History is only mentioned twice in the California Social Students Framework as essential in Grades Four, Nine, and Eleven, largely relative to the civil rights movement. To what extent do you view this representation as sufficient?
  - A. To what extent might Asian American narratives be understood or related to as separate from Civil rights or social justice activism efforts of the 1960s?
- 10) To what extent do you believe that there are gaps in the representation of Asian Americans in California’s Secondary Social Studies content standards or content framework?
  - A. What gaps do you perceive?
  - B. [If none, why do you believe the current content standards and or framework are sufficient?]
- 11) How, if at all, have you addressed the gaps?
  - A. Have the ways in which you have sought to address the gaps you mentioned been at odds with your district? Why and to what extent?
- 12) Do you feel you are able to address your own cultural or ethnic history in your lesson and unit planning?
- 13) What do you think the curriculum requires in order to better support the intersectional relationships between our PanAsian American and Black/Latinx/Indigenous students?
- 14) What, if anything, do you believe is missing?
- 15) How do you feel about not being able to address your own history to the extent to and or the ads that you might like?

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## Washington and Du Bois: Using Historical Figures as Exemplars for Discussing Public Issues

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**Abstract:** Teaching students how to discuss public issues using civil discourse is a vital skill for the health of democracy. This article focuses on how teachers can use examples of historical figures engaged in discussions of perennial public issues to model the skills needed to participate in a democratic society. The author highlights two important civil rights leaders of the late 1800s: Booker T. Washington and W.E.B. Du Bois. Students use primary sources from the *Plessy v Ferguson* Supreme Court case, Washington’s “Atlanta Compromise” speech, and Du Bois’s *The Souls of Black Folks* to analyze the leaders’ perspectives on segregation laws validated by the Supreme Court. Students write perspective pieces using the voice of either Washington or Du Bois. They also explain why they opposed the other leader’s ideas. Activities such as these help students practice the skills needed to take civic action as outlined in the C3 Framework (NCSS, 2013).

**Key words:** discussing public issues, civic action, C3 Framework

### **Washington and Du Bois: Using Historical Figures as Exemplars for Discussing Public Issues**

The Summer of 2020 has seen extraordinary numbers of people taking to the streets to protest the deaths of unarmed men of color while in the custody of police. Examples of taking civic action, like those on display during the #BlackLivesMatter movement demonstrates the importance of teaching civic education. It is important for civics teachers to include examples of historical figures advocating for different positions on public issues.

Discussing perennial public issues throughout social studies provides civics teachers with opportunities to connect those discussions to models of historical figures taking civic action. The conflict between Booker T. Washington and W.E.B. Du Bois over their respective responses to segregation provided one such example of historical figures engaging in civic discourse about the civil rights movement in the United States during the late 19<sup>th</sup> century. Looking at how leaders like Washington and Du Bois discussed their differences over the issue of segregation provides students with a model for civil public discourse, much needed in today's bitterly divided partisan world (Kornacki, 2018). In this article, the author describes a lesson examining the responses to the verdict in the Supreme Court case *Plessy v Ferguson* of two prominent civil rights leaders: Booker T. Washington and W.E.B. Du Bois. After a brief literature review, the author describes the steps to implement the lesson in a high school U.S. History course. Copies of the handouts and links to the readings have been provided.

#### **Public Issues Literature Review**

In the Harvard Social Studies Project, Donald Oliver, Fred Newmann, and James Shaver, promoted the discussion of public issues as a way to make students better citizens (Oliver & Shaver, 1966). Oliver and Shaver (1966) defined public issues as ways people in the same community differ in how they define their values. When conflict arises, it can usually be

attributed to one of three things: differences in which public issue is being discussed, differences about the facts of the public issue, and differences about the meaning of words or phrases defining the public issue (Oliver & Shaver, 1966). Just like members of a community, these differences can elicit controversy in the classroom when discussing public issues. This potential for conflict is one of the main reasons teachers avoid using discussions of public issues in the classroom (Byford et al., 2009; Hess, 2009). Using lessons focusing on historical figures' past discussions of public issues followed by writing prompts reflecting on their actions helps teachers bring those discussions into the social studies classroom.

The focus on using historical examples of controversy as a means for fostering civic discourse is a method of teaching that has been used across the disciplines (Bruen et al., 2016). Johnson and Johnson (2014) conducted research on using constructive controversy to help students learn how to use political discourse. The authors noted that positive political discourse helps students make informed decisions based on the facts of the situation and the impact on the common good of society. However, they also found that negative political discourse chipped away at the spirit of democracy by fostering distrust and disillusionment (Johnson & Johnson, 2014).

Activities like constructive controversies and structured academic controversies are very similar to those found in the science education literature called backfiring objections. Browne and Clark (2020) argued that innovations in technology spurred backfiring objections, objections made by individuals who argue that society would suffer the consequences and should not be attempted. These ideas were based on the writings by Kieron O'Hara (2011) who wrote about conservatism and the use of backfiring objections to combat social engineering or other

technological advancements. Using controversy to spur conversations about what is good for our society helps students develop the skills needed to be more productive members of society.

Discussing public issues in the social studies helps fulfill the goal of preparing students for participation in a democratic society like the United States. Shirley Engle (1960) argued that the heart of social studies instruction was decision-making. Students preparing to participate in an active citizenry must be able to make rational decisions by considering the available knowledge, the values inherent in a democracy, and the diverse perspectives on the issues at hand (Engle, 1960). Engle and Ochoa (1988) echoed this idea when they stated “Decision making skills and all of the knowledge and attitudes that go into the making of intelligent decisions are at the heart of democratic citizenship” (p. 18). NCSS (2016) argues that discussing controversial public issues helps students develop the willingness to value different perspectives and recognize that reasonable compromise is an essential part of democratic decision-making.

The controversial nature of discussing public issues makes it an ideal vehicle for preparing students to participate in a democratic society (Journell, 2017). Diana Hess (2009) also focuses on the controversial nature of discussing public issues. Discussing controversial public issues makes learning personally relevant to the students because they relate it to their own lives and learning (Hess, 2009). Students become better prepared to participate in a democratic society when they are more informed and are able to talk about politics (Hess & McAvoy, 2015). He explained that an emphasis on discussing politics and political issues helps students practice the skills and tolerance needed for civil discourse in a democratic society (Journell, 2017).

### **The Effects of the *Plessy v Ferguson* Supreme Court Case**

In the following sections, the author describes a series of steps for a lesson in which students analyze the verdict of the *Plessy v Ferguson* Supreme Court case as well as the

dissenting opinion in the case. The verdict by the U.S. Supreme Court established the legal basis for segregation across the Southern United States. Students analyze the responses of two prominent U.S. civil rights leaders in the late 1800s: Booker T. Washington and W.E.B. Du Bois. They examine each leader's position on segregation, discuss their differing views, and summarize each person's perspective through a role-play activity.

### **Analyzing the U.S. Supreme Court Case *Plessy v Ferguson***

First, the teacher asks students how the U.S. government defines equality. Then, give students copies of excerpts from the Declaration of Independence and the U.S. Bill of Rights. An excellent source for important documents of U.S. History is the U.S. National Archives website (<https://www.archives.gov/founding-docs/declaration-transcript> and <https://www.archives.gov/founding-docs/bill-of-rights-transcript>). Display the following question for students: How does each document reflect the democratic principle of equality? Students read the excerpts from these two documents and analyze how equality is defined in each primary source. Debrief with students by asking them to share their answers. Debriefing allows students to reflect on the readings and make connections to the text (Nokes, 2013). It also sets the stage for later discussions on equality as defined by the U.S. Supreme Court.

Next, students analyze the verdict in the *Plessy v Ferguson* U.S. Supreme Court case. The Gilder Lehrman Center for the Study of Slavery, Resistance, and Abolition is a good resource for information on this U.S. Supreme Court case (<https://glc.yale.edu/plessy-v-ferguson>). Both the verdict and the dissenting opinion can be found at this website. The verdict is lengthy, and students may become frustrated with the length of the material. To use the information more effectively, the teacher should review the information from the website and adapt it for use in the classroom by chunking appropriate information relevant to the verdict. Give students copies of

the verdict and the dissenting opinion in the Supreme Court case. Reading the background information as a whole class activity allows the teacher to help students break down the primary sources of the court case. When finished, work with students to analyze the *Plessy v Ferguson* case by having them complete a graphic organizer with the following questions:

- 1) What was the verdict in the case?
- 2) How does the document address equality? Give text evidence to support your answer.
- 3) How does the author's definition of equality compare to your earlier definitions of equality? Explain.
- 4) What public policies resulted from the verdict in the case? Explain.

Completing these questions helps students closely read the primary sources and make connections among the pieces of information (Nokes, 2013).

Once students have answered these questions, the teacher can debrief with students by asking them to share their answers. Debriefing helps students retain new information and integrate it with prior learning. Clarify any misunderstandings about the Supreme Court case *Plessy v Ferguson*. Ask students what public policy was created as a result of the *Plessy v Ferguson* Supreme Court case [segregation]. The teacher also asks students how the definitions of equality in the U.S. Supreme Court opinions compare to their definitions from the Declaration of Independence and the U.S. Bill of Rights.

In this step, students write what they learned about the *Plessy v Ferguson* U.S. Supreme Court case. Summarizing helps students comprehend the text and focus on the essential facts of the case. Ask students to summarize the *Plessy v Ferguson* case using the following prompts:

Explain what happened that led to this court case; what the verdict was in the case; and what public policies resulted from the Supreme Court case. Your paragraph should be no less than five sentences. Include text evidence to support your answer.

Students benefit from writing in response to the prompts by articulating their understanding of the *Plessy v Ferguson* U.S. Supreme Court case (Yancie & Clabough, 2017). Close the activity by having a few students share their summaries with the rest of the class.

### **Booker T. Washington's Response to Segregation**

In this step of the lesson, students read Booker T. Washington's response to segregation laws. Write on the board the following question when students enter the room: What public policies were created as a result of the verdict in the *Plessy v Ferguson* Supreme Court case? The purpose of the question is to help students make connections between the Supreme Court ruling and the establishment of segregation laws across the South. Allow them to share their answers with the rest of the class.

Next, give students a brief introduction to Booker T. Washington, a civil rights leader at the turn of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Use the following website from Tuskegee University to give students background on Washington: <https://www.tuskegee.edu/discover-tu/tu-presidents/booker-t-washington>). Emphasize that Booker T. Washington was expected to take the lead as one of the most well-respected civil rights leaders of the time.

During this part of the activity, students analyze Booker T. Washington's famous speech called the "Atlanta Compromise." Students answer the following questions to analyze Washington's speech.

- 1) How does the author view the public policy of segregation? Provide text evidence to support your answer.
- 2) What actions did the author take? How do you know?
- 3) How does the author view equality? Provide text evidence to support your answer.
- 4) What does the author suggest should be done in response to segregation? Explain.



These questions help students focus on the main ideas of the speech, particularly how Washington believed people of color should respond to segregation laws. The teacher should emphasize that Washington called for accommodation stating that people of color should adjust to segregation laws and focus on individual economic improvement.

Then, students complete a first-person perspective writing piece. They respond to the following prompt:

Pretend that you are Booker T. Washington. Write a letter to your 12 year old niece or nephew explaining your policy of accommodation. Explain to them why you support it and what you hope will happen as a result of this policy. The letters should be at least five sentences including evidence to support your responses.

Writing first person perspective pieces helps students make inferences to explain an historical figure's actions (Brooks, 2008). By putting themselves in the shoes of Washington, students are able to discuss Washington's perspective on the historical issue (Yancie & Clabough, 2017; Clabough, 2015). Have students turn in their responses at the end of class.

### **W.E.B. Du Bois's Response to Booker T. Washington**

Washington's "Atlanta Compromise" speech was quickly criticized by W.E.B. Du Bois, another civil rights leader of the time period. Students examine Du Bois's response to Washington's speech. The teacher asks: What was Booker T. Washington's response to segregation laws? Write the question on the board for students to answer when they enter the room. Ask a couple of students to explain Booker T. Washington's beliefs. The purpose of this question is to activate students' prior learning.

Next, students review background information on W.E.B. Du Bois. The website "America's Story from America's Library" maintained by the Library of Congress ([http://www.americaslibrary.gov/aa/dubois/aa\\_dubois\\_growup\\_1.html](http://www.americaslibrary.gov/aa/dubois/aa_dubois_growup_1.html)) is a good resource for a

brief introduction to the life and career of Du Bois. Give students a copy of the background information and read it as a class. Ask students to relate events and experiences from his life that could have influenced his beliefs as a civil rights leader in the late 1800s. The purpose of the question is to help students contextualize the works of W.E.B. Du Bois. Contextualizing helps students see his writings through the lens of the time period (Wineburg et al., 2013).

Then, students analyze W.E.B. Du Bois's response to Booker T. Washington's "Atlanta Compromise." Give students a copy of "Of Mr. Booker T. Washington and Others" found in *The Souls of Black Folks* by W.E.B. DuBois. The website History Matters (<http://historymatters.gmu.edu/d/40>) is a good resource to use for this activity. Students answer the following questions:

- 1) What does Du Bois say about Washington's policy of accommodation? Provide evidence to support your arguments.
- 2) What actions did the author take? How do you know?
- 3) How does the author view equality? Provide evidence to support your arguments.
- 4) What does the author suggest should be done in response to segregation laws? Explain.

These questions help students make connections among ideas in the text and corroborate information from other sources (Nokes, 2013). Making connections between ideas in the text helps improve students' comprehension of the information.

After analyzing excerpts from Du Bois's *The Souls of Black Folks*, there is a class debriefing. The teacher should focus the class debriefing on what Du Bois believed would happen as a result of Washington's accommodation policy. Make sure that students have a strong understanding that Du Bois believed that Washington's strategy would perpetuate segregation laws.

Next, students assume the role of W.E.B. Du Bois and complete a perspective writing activity. The previous parts of the lesson exposed students to models of individuals taking civic action to oppose segregation laws. The two leaders disagreed about ways for combatting segregation laws. The purpose of this writing activity is to practice diplomacy. Diplomacy allows citizens to disagree without hostility (Nokes, 2019). Before starting this activity, define diplomacy with the students. Use examples of founding fathers who were lifetime friends, despite bitter political rivalries, as a way for students to visualize the concept of diplomacy. Ask students to give examples of people disagreeing with one another without getting angry about it. Once the students have the grasp of the concept, they complete the following writing prompt:

Pretend that you are either Booker T. Washington or W.E.B. Du Bois. Write two paragraphs using the voice of the civil rights leader you selected. In the first paragraph, summarize your position on segregation laws. In the second paragraph, write your critique of the opposing civil rights leader's position on segregation laws. You must use evidence from the sources in the unit to support your positions and your critiques. Each paragraph must have at least six to eight sentences.

Remind students to review the information in the graphic organizer and the readings provided earlier in the lesson. Writing perspective pieces gives students the opportunity to contextualize the segregation laws by putting themselves into historical figures' places to better understand their beliefs and actions (Levstik & Barton, 2015).

### **Conclusion**

It is clear that many Americans have the desire to take civic action as demonstrated by the thousands of people who risked contracting the coronavirus to support the #BlackLivesMatter movement. In today's contentious and political world, students must practice the skills to discuss dissenting views of public issues and take civic action (Journell, 2017). Discussing public issues is an important part of preparing students to take informed action as described in the C3 Framework (NCSS, 2013). Using historical figures as models of taking civic

action helps students see how others interacted and responded to civic issues in their own time. In this article, the author described a lesson in which students analyzed the actions of two civil rights leaders in response to segregation laws during the late 1800s. Using lessons where students discuss public issues followed by writing prompts encouraging students to reflect on the actions of historical figures in response to those issues helps meet the teaching practices advocated for in the C3 Framework (NCSS, 2013). Lessons such as the one discussed in the article helps students practice the skills needed to be an active participant in a democratic society.

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## **Secondary Social Studies Teachers' Perceptions and Use of Differentiated Instruction on Students' Affective Learning Outcomes**

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**Abstract:** Students' learning outcomes are often associated with achievement scores on standardized assessments. While this approach reflects the cognitive learning domain (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001), recent concerns over student well-being (Borba, 2018; DeJulius & McLean, 2019), school violence (Nickerson, 2018), trauma-sensitive practices (Jennings, 2017; Minahan, 2019), and online learning during the COVID-19 pandemic have intensified the importance of teaching in the affective domain. However, teachers often face pressures of high-stakes testing that require them to teach diverse students the same content and may cause them to question whether they have time to attend to students' affective learning outcomes. This concern is exacerbated in social studies given issues about passive instruction and marginalization. Thus, teachers may implement differentiated instruction (DI) to address the instructional needs of diverse students and support students' learning outcomes (Tomlinson, 2014). However, little is known about secondary social studies teachers' use of DI or their students' affective learning outcomes, and even less is known about social studies teachers' use of DI to support affective learning outcomes. Therefore, this qualitative multi-case study examines six secondary social studies teachers' perceptions and use of DI on students' affective learning outcomes. This study, supported by the frameworks of DI and the affective learning domain, utilizes cross-case analysis to examine the findings that reveal explicit and empirical evidence of the teachers' perceptions that DI supports student engagement, collaboration, and multiple points of view. Recommendations for further study and implications for K-12 social studies teachers, social studies education, teacher educators, and policy makers are included.

**Keywords:** differentiated instruction, affective teaching, social studies, teacher practices, teacher education

## **Secondary Social Studies Teachers' Perceptions and Use of Differentiated Instruction on Students' Affective Learning Outcomes**

Given the focus on accountability and high-stakes testing, students' learning outcomes may seem limited to scores on standardized assessments. These outcomes reflect knowledge acquisition through skills that comprise the cognitive learning domain such as recall, understanding, analyzing, and applying (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). While the cognitive domain is important for teaching and learning, this approach may overlook teaching in the affective learning domain (Krathwohl et al., 1964) which involves feelings, emotions, and attitudes that can support students' cognitive learning outcomes. In fact, a substantial body of research suggests that integrating cognitive and affective teaching methods (Borba, 2018; Durlak et al., 2011; Frey et al., 2019) enhances students' learning outcomes in school and beyond. Furthermore, given that learning outcomes extend beyond content knowledge and are multidimensional (Duckworth & Yeager 2015; Durlak et al., 2011; Melnick et al., 2017; Taylor et al., 2017), lifelong impacts are noted through statistically significant relationships between social-emotional skills in kindergarten and early adulthood outcomes including education, employment, well-being (Jones et al., 2015), and work-readiness (Bandaranaike & Willison, 2015).

Although teaching in the affective domain is not new, recent concerns about student well-being (Borba, 2018; DeJulius & McLean, 2019), school violence (Nickerson, 2018), and trauma-sensitive practices (Jennings, 2017; Minahan, 2019) have led to a renewed focus on affective teaching. Likewise, the increased use of online learning and the COVID-19 pandemic have intensified the need to address cognitive and affective outcomes for all students. Still, teachers face the pressures of high-stakes testing and accountability and may feel that they have little or no time for teaching in the affective domain, especially when tasked with meeting the instructional needs of

diverse learners. In social studies, these concerns are often exacerbated by marginalization and passive instruction (Heafner & Fitchett, 2012; Journell, 2010; Leming et al., 2009; Manfra & Bolick, 2017) which can create gaps in the literature about impactful social studies instruction and students' learning outcomes. According to the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS, 2010), "the primary purpose of social studies is to help young people make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world" (p. 3). This purpose underscores the need for social studies teachers to utilize impactful instructional practices that address cognitive and affective learning outcomes for diverse students who are tasked with learning experiences that require them to analyze, evaluate, and problem-solve while also considering affective elements such as beliefs, emotions, and multiple perspectives when examining complex social, political, and economic issues.

Thus, teachers may implement differentiated instruction (DI) through which they can differentiate the content, process, product, and learning environment according to student interests, readiness, and learning profiles (Tomlinson, 2014). However, while the literature supports DI, little is known about DI in social studies or affective teaching in social studies, and even less is known about secondary social studies teachers' use of DI that supports students' affective learning outcomes. For this study, these outcomes refer to the affective learning domain categories (Krathwohl et al., 1964) that are presented in Table 1. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine secondary social studies teachers' perceptions and use of DI on students' affective learning outcomes. This purpose addresses multiple calls and gaps in the extant literature and shapes the study's research questions: 1. How, if at all, do secondary social studies teachers use DI in their instructional practice? 2. What are secondary social studies teachers' perceptions of their experiences using DI on students' affective learning outcomes?

## **Literature Review**

### **Differentiated Instruction and K-12 Students' Learning Outcomes**

The literature on DI supported the instructional needs of diverse learners although various approaches and definitions were noted. The model that was most frequently cited was Tomlinson's model (2014) of DI which provides teachers with opportunities to differentiate content, process, product, and learning environment according to students' interests, readiness, and learning profiles. While the content is seldom differentiated due to high-stakes testing in which all students are required to know the same content, the process can be differentiated by how students complete tasks such as cooperative groups which can be selected by teachers or students. The product refers to how students demonstrate what they know and are able to do through assessments such as projects, problem-based learning, essays, art, or choices on graphic organizers such as tic-tac-toe choice boards. The learning environment refers to the classroom climate or routine practices that support student collaboration and resource access. Similarly, student readiness refers to students' prior knowledge and life experiences, while student interest refers to topics that promote student engagement. Learning profile refers to how students learn most naturally and may include group formats that allow students to work individually, in pairs, and small groups. Learning profiles may also include students' learning styles and environmental factors.

The literature revealed that DI supported cognitive and affective learning outcomes throughout K-12 classrooms. For instance, DI enhanced reading outcomes in English language arts, (Jefferson et al., 2017), enhanced student motivation and technology integration that supported literacy (Hodges & McTigue, 2014), and increased students' process skills, literacy levels, and engagement in science (Sentürk & Sari, 2018). However, the literature about social studies and DI was more limited which may be attributed to marginalization and passive instruction (Heafner &

Fitchett, 2012; Journell, 2010; Leming et al., 2009; Manfra & Bolick, 2017). DI use by a secondary social studies teacher revealed the importance of planning, making student learning relevant, providing content and access choices, teaching meaningful concepts and skills, and scaffolding (Dack & Tomlinson, 2014), while concerns for DI implementation by novice social studies teachers were also noted (Dack & Triplett, 2020). The research also revealed numerous instructional approaches that could be used with DI including historical thinking (VanSledright, 2013; Wineburg et al., 2011), project-based learning (Lo, 2018), and inquiry learning (Swan et al., 2018). Likewise, the NCSS (2013) released the *College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies States Standards: Guidance for Enhancing the Rigor of K-12 Civics, Economics, Geography, and History*. This framework called for critical thinking and civic engagement that supported the cognitive and affective domains and addressed the importance of meeting instructional needs of diverse learners which DI supports. Despite these opportunities, challenges to DI use were noted including lack of time (Aftab, 2015), classroom management (Tomlinson, 1995), a “pervasive one-size-fits all approach to teaching” (Tomlinson et al., 1998, p. 10), and the need for job-embedded teacher professional development (PD) for DI (Powell & Bodur, 2019).

### **The Affective Domain in K-12 Classrooms**

Although few studies examined students’ affective learning outcomes, teaching in the affective domain was supported in the literature. Increased student interest and ability to develop friendships using DI in elementary language arts (Avci et al., 2009) were noted, as well as enhanced content knowledge, student motivation, classroom climate, and group cohesion in literature (Shechtman & Yamam, 2012). Similarly, student engagement was linked to greater mathematics achievement (Fung et al., 2018), and student motivation, interests, and peer-relationships supported

knowledge construction in science (Ramma et al., 2018). Likewise, cooperative learning enhanced student outcomes in physical education (Casey & Fernandez-Rio, 2019).

In fact, much of the literature on teaching in the affective domain featured social-emotional learning (SEL) which integrates affective, cognitive, and behavioral domain elements that support the ability to manage emotions, achieve personal goals, show empathy, collaborate, and make responsible choices, all of which support academic success, critical thinking, decision-making, and teamwork in school and life (Collaboration for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning [CASEL], 2021). A meta-analysis (Durlak et al., 2011) of K-12 students who participated in SEL programs revealed an 11-point gain in achievement compared to nonparticipants and improved classroom behavior, increased ability to manage stress and depression, and improved attitudes about themselves, others, and school. Meanwhile, Borba (2018) asserted that high empathy levels are connected to enhanced student engagement, academic achievement, and communication skills.

Although research on teaching in the affective domain was more limited in social studies, support for this approach was noted. For instance, in a secondary social studies classroom, teachers and students perceived that historical empathy could be learned and fostered through engaging instructional practices such as historic site visits and classroom discussion (Bartelds et al., 2020). The importance of considering student interests was also noted along with the assertion that social studies students are motivated by content that they perceive to be relevant or that evokes emotion (Børhaug & Borgund, 2018). Recently, Keegan (2021) examined critical affective civic literacy to address political emotion in social studies classrooms which also supports civic competencies. Furthermore, affective teaching practices were supported by the C3 framework (NCSS, 2013).

Despite these benefits and opportunities, challenges to affective domain teaching included instructional design and implementation (Bailey et al., 2019), assessment and documentation of

learning outcomes (Elias et al., 2016; Glennon et al., 2015), and the need for reflection and analysis to address affect complexity in social studies (Helmsing, 2014). Similarly, calls were made for a research agenda to examine SEL program design and implementation (Durlak et al., 2015; Jones et al., 2018).

### **Teacher Education and Professional Development**

The increased focus on affective domain teaching in K-12 classrooms also increases the need to address affective teaching and learning in teacher education and teacher PD. Much of the literature on affective teaching in teacher education focused on SEL. An examination of preservice teachers' SEL strategies in a year-long elementary field experience course revealed positive outcomes regarding discipline, engagement, diversity scaffolds, and differentiated strategies (Sugishita & Dresser, 2019). Similarly, integrating SEL in an undergraduate curriculum and instructional course revealed a positive relationship between pre-service teachers and their perceptions of SEL and academic learning, the importance of student-centered pedagogy, an interest in SEL professional learning, and a newly acquired understanding that emotional and cognitive learning are connected (Waajid et al., 2013). In social studies education, the revised *National Standards for the Preparation of Social Studies Teachers* (NCSS, 2017) offered teacher educators guidance on instruction and assessment that addressed the cognitive and affective domains. However, affective teaching was considered a low priority in teacher preparation which led to a call to include SEL in undergraduate practicums (Waajid et al., 2013). The literature also noted a lack of state standards across the United States that addressed SEL competencies in teacher preparation programs (Schonert-Reichl et al., 2015) and a significant disconnect between SEL state certification requirements and teacher education courses (Schonert-Reichl et al., 2017).

While teacher PD should feature on-going, capacity building elements of job-embedded PD (Powell & Bodur, 2016; Powell & Bodur, 2019; Yendol-Hoppey & Dana, 2010; Zepeda, 2015), the literature on teacher PD for affective teaching was limited. One PD experience designed to improve pedagogical content knowledge of science teachers for affective domain teaching revealed that connecting content to contemporary social issues enhanced student relevancy, motivation, and engagement (Buma, 2018). In social studies, the literature on PD for affective teaching was more limited and addressed concepts such as motivation and multiple perspectives. In fact, K-12 principals acknowledged that SEL was essential to the curriculum, yet called for additional teacher PD, evidence, and research-based strategies for SEL program implementation (DePaoli et al., 2017).

### **Theoretical & Conceptual Frameworks**

This study is supported by the theoretical framework of DI and the conceptual framework of the affective learning domain. The theoretical framework of DI (Tomlinson, 2014) allows teachers to differentiate the content, process, product, or learning environment according to student readiness levels, interests, and learning profiles to support learning outcomes for adverse learners. The reality of high-stakes testing requires all students to know the same standards-based content and skills, which may cause teachers to question whether they have time to implement DI or its efficacy on students' learning. Tomlinson (2000) asserted that using DI in a standards-based environment can benefit student outcomes. The DI framework supports this study because it addresses the first research question about whether and how the teachers utilized DI in their practice and addresses the second research question about DI use to support students' learning outcomes. More specifically, DI supports this study given that the teachers' use of DI is examined through classroom vignettes in the findings section of this study. These vignettes illustrate that these teachers utilized DI routinely



and examine how they utilized DI with other strategies such as cooperative learning, simulations, learning stations, and project-based learning in their standards-based classrooms.

This study is also supported by the conceptual framework of the affective learning domain (Krathwohl et al., 1964). Of the three major learning domains including the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains, the affective domain is researched less and is comprised of five categories that are organized from least to most complex and are presented in Table 1. This domain includes feelings, emotions, and attitudes that reflect students' learning outcomes. The affective learning domain supports this study because it addresses the second research question and serves as a lens through which the findings are examined. More specifically, the three themes that emerged from data analysis including student engagement, collaboration, and multiple points of view, all reflect affective learning outcomes.

### **Methods**

This study utilized a qualitative, multi-case study approach to examine six secondary social studies teachers' perceptions and use of DI to promote students' affective learning outcomes. Each teacher was an individual case (Yin, 2009) which supported the use of cross-case and within-in case analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Cross-case analysis highlighted similarities and differences among the teachers' responses and revealed themes across their responses, while within-case analysis considered the teachers' cases individually.

### **Research Context and Participants**

The school district in which the participants taught faced concerns with increasing class sizes, teaching vacancies, and budgetary constraints, yet district officials emphasized achievement for all students using DI. The district also reflected student demographics that mirrored national

and state trends of increased diversity, and almost 50% of the students were economically disadvantaged.

Participant selection included purposeful sampling (Patton, 2002) of teachers from a public-school district in the southeast United States who participated in a PD experience on DI. Participant selection was described in a study (Powell & Bodur, 2019) with these teachers that examined the design and implementation of the PD experience. District leaders selected DI as the PD content to promote learning outcomes and achievement scores for all students. All teachers in the district were required to view 10 hours of online video modules that examined DI and featured discussions among accomplished teachers and education leaders. The teachers in this study were required to answer thirty follow-up questions, three per video, to reflect on DI use and implementation. School administrators monitored these activities for completion. The PD experience was touted as job-embedded but was impacted when teachers in the district lost one-half of their daily planning because of a schedule change.

The participants received no compensation or remuneration, and the interviews were conducted during non-instructional time, given that access to the teachers was not granted during instructional time. Administrators at both schools assisted by forwarding a participation invitation to their school's social studies department. Six secondary social studies teachers volunteered including three from each school. Teachers from both schools were invited to participate to support data analysis and increase theme trustworthiness (Glesne, 2006). The participants were contacted individually to review the research purpose and protocol and to schedule an interview. To promote anonymity, the teachers and schools were assigned pseudonyms (Powell & Bodur, 2019) that are presented in Table 2 which also includes teacher characteristics.

## **Data Collection and Analysis**

This study utilized three types of data sources including documents, archival records, and interviews (Yin, 2009). The documents included the teachers' state social studies standards and teacher evaluation rubrics that explicitly included DI. Archival records included school- and district-level assessment data from the participants' state Department of Education in United States History and Economics, the two secondary social studies courses with mandatory assessments in the teachers' state. These records indicated that students from both high schools earned scores of "exceeded" on both assessments at rates higher than the state average. The term "exceeded" reflected the highest score level that students could earn on each assessment. These records supported the literature that teaching in the affective learning domain can also support students' cognitive learning outcomes. Another archival source included United States Census Bureau data which revealed consistency between state and community demographics. Additionally, archival data from the United States Department of Education revealed that national demographics were consistent with current and future student demographics in the teachers' community and state. This helped to situate the teachers' practices within the context of student diversity which underscored the teachers' use of and need for DI.

Furthermore, six individual, in-depth, face-to-face interviews were conducted to obtain detail-rich accounts of an experience (Fontana & Frey, 2008) that illuminated the teachers' use and perceptions of DI. The use of interviews supported teachers' perceptions as important knowledge sources (Moustakas, 1994) and addressed the need for research that examined teachers' instructional practices and student learning outcomes (Grant, 2003). The interview protocol featured an adaptation of Seidman's (1991) interviewing method and was described in a study about PD design and implementation with these teachers (Powell & Bodur, 2019). The interviews

followed a semi-structured format (Patton, 2002) and used a set of predetermined questions (See Appendix) that were aligned to the study's purpose and research questions. Open-ended questions promoted detailed responses and provided opportunities to ask follow-up questions. Given the study's purpose, the six interviews were given priority over the documents and archival materials. The interviews were analyzed using cross-case and within-case analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Given the research purpose, cross-case results were prioritized, and the secondary sources were analyzed using content analysis which helped to confirm or challenge the study's results.

Following participant interviews, the researcher manually transcribed and labeled the six interviews, conducted two member checks, analyzed each interview transcript, and created minor and major codes (Glesne, 2006) which were further analyzed into themes (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). The three themes that emerged from these codes included student engagement, collaboration, and multiple points of view. The data were triangulated (Creswell, 1994; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) using multiple documents and archival records, six interviews at two school sites, and two member checks. The first member check allowed the participants to review their transcript for accuracy, and the second member check allowed the participants to review the researcher's analysis of their transcript. None of the participants made any revisions during either member check.

### **Findings**

The findings of this study underscored the teachers' perceptions of DI use on their students' affective learning outcomes. These findings featured vignettes from the teachers' classrooms that highlighted their instructional practices in various social studies subjects, grades, and course levels. The findings are organized by the three themes that emerged from data analysis including student engagement, collaboration, and multiple points of view. The findings in these vignettes were supported by the study's theoretical and conceptual underpinnings. For instance, the theoretical

framework of DI was evidenced when the teachers differentiated the process, product, and learning environment through instructional strategies such as learning stations, cooperative learning, simulations, and project-based learning. The conceptual framework of the affective learning domain was reflected through the three aforementioned themes by which this section is organized. While these vignettes focused on findings from the teachers' interviews, findings from the documents and archival records helped to confirm the study's results and are examined in the data collection and discussion sections of this study.

### **Student Engagement**

Mr. Johnson, when asked about his use of DI and students' affective learning outcomes, described a living museum simulation in his World History class through a museum-to-school experience that allowed students to interact with World War II artifacts including tanks, helmets, and clothing. He shared his perceptions of enhanced student engagement for a special education student. Referring to the student wearing a World War II helmet, Mr. Johnson explained:

By putting it on, it makes him [the student] feel part of the group...it makes him feel good and connect...this helped him also to ask certain questions that he was interested in that he would not normally ask in a group setting...personally, for me, I think it's, it's excellent because...there is no test, there's no quiz, this is a look, see, ask questions.

The teachers also discussed integrating technology with DI to enhance student engagement including their use of computers, films, and television news. For instance, Mrs. Smith shared an example from her Psychology class that supported her perceptions that students' use of technology for a research project increased student engagement. She explained:

Oh, I think it made them much more involved in the material....Usually you'll have one kid, and I had one kid was amazing with technology and the Prezzi software...but I have

one kid who was sort of a B-C student who loved that technology and did a tremendous amount of research on her own, and she did a unit on psychological disorders, and she had embedded video and all of this...she was one of the first ones to present and when she presented the other kids were so impressed. I had several kids come up to me and say, 'Well, you know, we've got 15 to 30 minutes to work on this project the rest of this period. I want to go back to the library and change mine because hers was really good...and I want to add this and that.' So...every time you have a kid 'knock it out of the park,' I think it raises the bar for everyone else.

Furthermore, Mr. Jones, who holds a masters degree in instructional technology, utilized technology to engage students including a National Public Radio (NPR) program about Lady Gaga's impact on the gross domestic product. He shared that "you've got to present it in different ways in order to get them to overall acquire the information and then create new thoughts." Noting his use of blogs and television news segments, he asserted that "I think any time you can present information with a current, somebody that's sort of popular, pop-culture, and then a medium like NPR radio program helps connect the dots for the kids." He shared his perceptions that the NPR segment helped students understand that "when she writes her music, she's actually performing a service, almost like a company would do research and development for a technology, and that our GDP doesn't include that effort and work and service in our GDP." Asserting that this real-world example helped students understand that all investments are not measured, Mr. Jones added that such a realization "leads students to say 'Oh, well that makes sense because GDP when we say the United States produces \$15 trillion worth of stuff, they don't include that stuff, even though that's very important.'"

## **Collaboration**

The teachers' perceived that their DI use supported students' affective learning outcomes by enhancing student collaboration. Mrs. Brown shared an example from her United States history class that featured cooperative learning and projects to underscore such collaboration. Mrs. Brown explained:

I think that it actually helps them work together better because they are more inclined to say to their neighbor, 'Hey, how did you do this?' when there are differentiated activities...I do try to put the students together, like if we do different reading levels, I do try to put them together, so that when they are reading, they can ask each other for help in understanding....'What do you think this means?' And then, when they do the different projects, the tic-tac-toe's or whatever, that are differentiated, they do go to each other a little bit more for help, and they explain to each other and work together better than if I were to put them in a group with a project to do.

Similarly, Mr. Jones shared his perceptions that using DI in his Economics classes supported student collaboration through learning stations as students learned about supply and demand.

Adding that other teachers often observed his use of DI and learning stations, Mr. Jones shared:

I do this thing called station work, where basically they're in their teams...let's say five teams on one side and five teams on another side of the classroom...each station will have a different assignment...station one is plotting supply and demand graphs, and so with their group they're sitting there working through that material...figuring out the different graphs and the implications of the graph and then anything that I've prompted them to learn. Then, they go to the next station, okay, so they get 15 minutes then, okay station two, boom, hit the whistle, it's like football, and they move to the second station...

everybody's rotating...let's just say the second station is something a little more fun like a crossword puzzle with the relevant topics...then the next station might be like an essay, or not an essay, but an essay-formatted question, where they actually have to express some knowledge...they're able to work together, they're in different stations...is differentiation because there's different level learning...higher-level stuff with their graphing and creating new graphs, and then I walk around and actually work with each group...to me, is very, very effective.

Likewise, Mrs. Smith perceived that students worked well together and related positively to one another because of DI. Mrs. Smith noted that groups of diverse learners collaborated well during cooperative learning in her Psychology class. She shared:

Sometimes they would have to work with someone maybe that they never been in a class with before...you know, different values...I think they could really relate to each other...They all bonded and they did great group work, and it was sort of interesting to see that, because they were totally disperate [*sic*]...it was sort of neat to see that happen, and I didn't really think too much about it, it was just them and somebody else walked in here, and they [*sic*] said, "You have all these kids that normally would not interact."

### **Multiple Points of View**

Teachers' also perceived that their use of DI enhanced their students' abilities to see multiple points of view. Mr. Williams explained these perceptions when he discussed a presidential debate simulation in his American Government and shared that the assignment also required students to create "questions that would elicit conversation" prior to the debate simulation. He explained:

It allowed them to look at issues in different perspectives, whether you're a Democrat or



Republican or Libertarian or whatever, it allowed you to look at issues from a perspective that was maybe not your own...you could challenge each one of the candidates, so you know, I didn't mind them playing devil's advocate... I would have to say it was a very successful.

Similarly, Mr. Jones echoed perceptions that DI enhanced his Economics students' abilities to see multiple points of view, even though he stated that some students may be "hard-lined" about an issue such as minimum wage "because maybe their parents felt a certain way about it." He explained his perceptions with an instructional strategy that included writing. Mr. Jones shared:

If you take into account, the methodology of let's say a student-based free response on a topic, then maybe that would allow them to see different perspectives...of like tolerance or accepting diversity, that would allow them to at least express that...to be engaged in that way...I like to allow them to have their own perspectives and me be very objective.

### **Discussion**

This study examined secondary social studies teachers' perceptions of their DI use on their students' learning outcomes in the affective domain. These results highlighted impactful teacher practices that also addressed instructional needs of diverse learners. The discussion section is organized by the study's two research questions and discusses the findings that resulted from cross-case analysis.

The first research question examined secondary social studies teachers' instructional practices including their use of DI. Given that DI is well-documented in the literature (Tomlinson, 2000, 2001, 2014), it was not surprising that these teachers were aware of and used DI in their classrooms. However, given concerns with high-stakes testing and marginalization as well as passive instruction in social studies (Heafner & Fitchett, 2012; Journell, 2010; Leming et al., 2009;

Manfra & Bolick, 2017), it was surprising, yet encouraging, to learn that all six social studies teachers at both schools routinely implemented DI through other research-based strategies.

Furthermore, these results were surprising and encouraging, given that the teachers implemented DI and other impactful instructional practices in their classrooms regardless of whether the courses they taught included a state-mandated high-stakes assessment.

In fact, the teachers in this study implemented DI through various research-based instructional strategies including cooperative learning, simulations, learning stations, project-based learning, writing, technology, and music. While teachers can differentiate the content, process, and product, these teachers differentiated the process and product most often. This allowed them to attend to the realities of state-mandated assessments of state social studies content standards while also addressing the instructional needs of diverse learners. For instance, Mr. Jones implemented DI when he differentiated the process, product, and learning environment in his Economics class by using learning stations throughout his classroom that featured various instruction and assessment opportunities for students to access material and demonstrate what they knew and were able to do. Mr. Jones used stations routinely in his Economics classes which included a state-mandated high-stakes assessment. These findings suggested that these teachers were committed to student learning beyond achievement test scores and to providing impactful learning experiences that supported essential 21<sup>st</sup> century skills for diverse learners. Although these teachers utilized various instructional approaches, these findings seemed to suggest a missed opportunity for students to work with primary source documents and take informed action (NCSS, 2017; Swan et al., 2018).

The second research question examined secondary social studies teachers' perceptions of their experiences using DI and their students' affective learning outcomes. The results revealed that the six teachers perceived that using DI and teaching in the affective domain supported student

engagement, collaboration, and multiple points of view. The results of this study revealed that the teachers not only implemented DI through other research-based instructional practices, but they also integrated the affective and cognitive learning domains. In fact, the findings revealed that the teachers' perceived that using DI supported students' affective outcomes throughout and at the highest levels of the affective domain (Krathwohl et al., 1964). For instance, Mrs. Smith shared her perceptions of using DI and technology for project-based learning in her Psychology class, a social studies elective at her school. She noted that after one student who was committed to research and the project completed her presentation, then several other students asked Mrs. Smith if they could have more time to work on their own project. Mrs. Smith perceived that DI supported the learning outcomes of the student who presented first and other students given her comment that DI "raises the bar for everyone else."

These perceptions suggested that all five affective learning outcomes were experienced in this learning opportunity including receiving, responding, valuing, organization, and internalization. More specifically, the students' willingness to accept responsibility for their own work suggested organization, and the students' willingness to revise and edit their projects, given new knowledge, suggested internalization. While such results are encouraging, especially given that organization and internalization are the two most complex affective outcomes, it is important to note that a longitudinal study would provide greater insight into the relationship between DI use and these students' affective learning outcomes.

The teachers in this study implemented DI in social studies courses including United States History and Economics, even though both courses included high-stakes tests in their state. This suggested that these social studies teachers were not only committed to their students' learning outcomes in the cognitive domain that were being measured by achievement test scores, but also

were committed to students' learning outcomes beyond school that were included in the affective domain. Furthermore, this integrated approach was supported by the archival records that revealed "exceeded" scores of students from both schools in both United States history and Economics. Although these high-stakes tests measured cognitive outcomes, the teachers' use of DI and teaching in the affective domain may have contributed to the students' earning "exceeded" scores at rates higher than the state average on these assessments. The teachers' use of DI and teaching in the affective domain also addressed student diversity which was corroborated by multiple documents and archival records including the teachers' evaluation rubric and demographic information.

Collectively, these findings suggested that despite contextual challenges including budget constraints, increased class size, and reduced planning time for the teachers, a positive school climate may have supported instructional best practices to enhance learning outcomes for diverse learners. A positive school climate may also have contributed to the fact that all six teachers used DI to teach in both the cognitive and affective learning domains through various instructional strategies despite various teaching career lengths presented in Table 2. Similarly, the teachers may have implemented DI routinely and with other research-based strategies given that DI use was included on their state's teacher evaluation rubric, one of the supporting documents in this study. The findings in this study extended the literature and advanced the field through explicit and empirical evidence that these six secondary social studies teachers perceived that their use of DI supported their students' affective learning outcomes.

Despite these encouraging findings, the study had several limitations. One limitation was that the study featured six teachers whose responses are not generalizable. These teachers also volunteered which could have impacted their responses, given that volunteer and non-volunteer characteristics may differ. Another limitation was that the study featured secondary social studies

teachers whose responses are not generalizable across all grades and subjects. A third limitation was that the researcher was not granted access to the teachers during instructional time. Still, the results of this study helped shape several implications for educational stakeholders including, but not limited to, K-12 classroom teachers, teacher educators, pre-service teachers, instructional leaders, and policy makers. One implication is the need for impactful K-12 instructional practices across the curriculum that support teaching and learning in the cognitive and affective learning domains. A second implication is the need for assessment that effectively measures students' affective outcomes. A third implication is the need for teacher education programs to prepare and support pre-service and in-service teachers to teach in the cognitive and affective domains by modeling instruction and assessment. Such an integrated approach helps to underscore the non-linear nature of teaching and support all learners.

Based upon the findings and implications of this study, the researcher recommends additional research. More research is needed on DI use that supports students' learning outcomes in the affective and cognitive domains. Research is also needed on instructional practices and assessments that support teaching and learning in both the affective and cognitive learning domains. Likewise, further research is needed on the relationship between job-embedded teacher PD, teaching and learning in the affective and cognitive domains, and students' learning outcomes.

### **Conclusion**

This study examined six secondary social studies teachers' perceptions of DI use on students' affective learning outcomes. This qualitative multi-case study advances the field and extends the theoretical knowledge of DI through explicit and empirical evidence of the teachers' perceptions that DI use supported their students' affective learning outcomes including student engagement, collaboration, and multiple points of view. These outcomes reflected categories

throughout and at the highest levels of the affective domain although these teachers were also attending to cognitive learning outcomes that were measured through state-mandated assessments. Despite contextual challenges including high-stakes testing and accountability, these teachers routinely implemented DI in various social studies courses and grade levels, including those with and without state assessments. These results supported the assertions that DI and standards-based environments can and should coexist (Tomlinson, 2014) and that powerful social studies teaching and learning can occur when teachers leverage the affective and cognitive domains to maximize learning outcomes for all students.

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**Table 1***Affective Learning Domains (Krathwohl et al., 1964)*

Domain Category	Domain Description
Receiving	The learner is aware of or willing to listen to other individuals and acknowledge the existence of ideas and events.
Responding	The learner actively responds and has a commitment to ideas or events.
Valuing	The learner reflects beliefs and attitudes about the value or worth of an idea, event, or behavior.
Organization	The learner organizes values and beliefs by comparing and contrasting internalizing, and prioritizing those values and beliefs that lead to the creation of a value system.
Characterization	The learner uses an internalized value system that consistently guides their behavior and reflects their values and beliefs.

**Table 2***Teachers' Characteristics*

School (Pseudonym)	Teacher (Pseudonym)	Number of Years Teaching
Roosevelt High School	Mrs. Brown	5
Roosevelt High School	Mr. Johnson	18
Roosevelt High School	Mr. Smith	10
Kennedy High School	Mr. Jones	13
Kennedy High School	Mrs. Miller	30+
Kennedy High School	Mr. Williams	13

Note: Adapted from (Powell & Bodur, 2019)



## Appendix

### Selected Questions from Semi-Structured Interview Protocol

#### Differentiated Instruction

1. Do you utilize differentiated instruction (DI) in your classroom? If so, how do you differentiate instruction?
2. If you utilize DI, how often do you differentiate instruction? What, if any, other instructional strategies do you utilize with DI?
3. Please share an example of DI that you utilized in one of your social studies classes. Would you share another DI example from another social studies class that you teach?
4. What were the students' learning outcomes in those example(s)? What did the student(s) do or say that informed your perceptions?
5. How, if at all, do you think that DI and standards-based classrooms can coexist? How, if at all, can they coexist in the context of high-stakes testing and accountability?

#### Affective Learning Domain

1. How, if at all, do you think that DI supports teaching in the affective domain?
2. Please share a DI example from one of your social studies classes that you think supports students' affective learning outcomes. Would you share another example from another social studies class that you teach?
3. How, if at all, did your use of DI support diverse students' affective learning outcomes in different grade levels or course levels?
4. How, if at all, do you think that differentiating instruction by providing students with instructional choices supports affective learning outcomes? Please share a DI example from one of your classes that supports this assertion.
5. How, if at all, do you think that teaching in the affective domain and high-stakes testing and accountability can coexist?

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#### **Author Note**

An earlier version of this manuscript (Powell, 2020) was presented at the Georgia Educational Research Association Conference. The data in this study was obtained while the author was a doctoral candidate in the College of Education at Georgia Southern University in Statesboro, Georgia.

## **Professional Development in the Wake of a Pandemic: Zooming into the Future**

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**Abstract:** Educational staff participated in a professional development program through Zoom when their unit was shuttered due to COVID-19. The staff reflected upon the experience to determine that the experience resulted in trends in professional development, connection, and leadership. Sub assertions of local, state, speaker, and technology lead to the assertion of information which supported professional development. The sub assertions of family, students, and community supported the assertion of school which in turn supported the trend of connection. The sub assertions of staff and friends supported the assertion of superintendent, and the trend of leadership.

**Key words:** Professional development, Zoom, Connection, Leader

The Gallia-Vinton Educational Service Center (ESC) had little to no experience in using Zoom as a platform to conduct meetings and/or professional development through the Zoom Leadership Series. The staff live across four counties in rural Appalachia and were going to be working remotely for an extended period. With less than a twenty-four-hour notice, the ESC office would close for ten weeks. Staff would be expected to continue all projects, programs, and work responsibilities. As a result of this experience, how did the staff of a regional educational service center engage in professional development through Zoom?

In the hope of keeping the staff connected to each other, professional development was provided for forty days (Monday through Friday). There was a daily presenter to connect the staff with issues impacting school in the local community; the speakers represented leaders in government, education, business, and service agencies. The Zoom Leadership Series allowed current and new stakeholders to both meet the staff members of the Gallia-Vinton ESC and the staff members to engage with others having a common interest in education. This encouraged staff to go beyond the traditional educational contacts and interact with others to discuss educational interests and to look for innovative strategies to provide services to students and families. The relationship helped the staff to learn what stakeholders do professionally, the services they provide, keep an established routine each day, stay focused, and complete the work of the ESC.

The staff seemed to become comfortable with using Zoom to conduct various types of meetings and training because of their extended exposure to the platform. They ventured into committee meetings, breakout rooms, advisory council sessions, grant reporting, site coordinator and program manager sessions, and connecting with others in like positions outside the ESC structure. Many of the staff commented that they had gotten to know other staff members much

better since they saw and talked to them daily. They felt totally included in everything the ESC was doing for services and programs. The staff also felt that they had pushed their own boundaries to meet new people/stakeholders that could connect with them for future programs, speakers, and resources.

### **Literature Review**

Digital teaching and learning in America social studies has resulted in some instruction moving online. Learning how instructional practices have changed in the twenty-first century is an important question. Archambault & Cripfen (2009) attempted to measure and define technology, content, and pedagogy in teachers engaged in online instruction. They found that teacher confidence with technology was low. Overcoming the obstacle of technology set off early adopters of technology in social studies from later experimenters. Teachers unfamiliar with technology, lacking resources, and without professional development face serious obstacles. Regan et al (2019) described autodidactic planning and implementation of digital tools. They were successful in creating technology enhanced lessons without support. Online learning has impacted students and schools. Students use multiple forms for screen play for entertainment purposes but lacked the emotional or cognitive insights to navigate a technologically complex world. Furthermore, social media and webinars have been used to examine fake news and media literacy to promote civic engagement in social studies education (Torrau, 2020, Kenna & Hensley, 2019, Manfra & Holmes, 2018). Students explained what they learned and communicated their knowledge to others. Civic political and democratic engagement is needed in schools and communities. Educators were able to use their new skills in teaching social studies in the twenty-first century.

Zoom was at the right place at the correct time for instructors in a pandemic. The technology helped multiple instructors deal with the campus closure and classroom restrictions. As the pandemic switched education from in classroom to distance education family and student interaction time increased (Kamisil, 2020). It is hard not to applaud anything that brings families and children together. Parents may not be quite so excited about a permanent distance education responsibility. Furthermore, all family units are not equally empowered to support distance education. Morgan (2019) reported a successful interaction with a teacher interested in working with a developing country to get his students to understand and increase their interactions with people from different cultures. The ease of use makes the Zoom technology attractive in confounding former difficulties of time and space. Students as well as adults use Zoom. Offering professional development internationally via Zoom created advantages and disadvantages but offered learner autonomy (Lenkaitis, 2020, Lowenthal, Borup, West, & Archambault, 2020, Scanga, Deen, Smith, & Wright, 2018). Zoom engagement seems depended on language and maturity levels for optimal interaction results. Moreover, Zoom seems to straddle the vicarious versus in person divide with limited opportunities for interaction that feel authentic to digital learners. Zoom provides a potential platform for professional development in learning communities.

Professional development is offered in many subjects for a variety of reasons such as the introduction of new standards. Over time the professional development may evolve from just standards to include lesson plans to support those standards and the teaching and learning of concepts. The professional development involves time on task, reinforcement activities, elements of discovery, and ideas connected to a disciplinary structure (Sterrett & Richardson, 2020). These rich professional development experiences promote teacher growth. Teachers get information

about organization of ideas, examples of practice, and content information about the ideas. Professional development is more effective when there is follow up after skill instruction (Grasley-Boy, Gage, & MacSuga-Gage, 2019). Teachers get the opportunity to think about what they have learned. They may follow that up with trying in their classroom, but the follow up provides a good example of how multiple educators implemented their new ideas. Professional development aims for improvement of practice.

Zengler (2017) described teacher growth. Educational leaders need to encourage the growth of their staff. The COVID-19 virus challenges building and school system leaders to take new directions to encourage growth. Utilizing new technology and skills provide that opportunity. Creating professional development on the internet sounds like a great idea especially if it is differentiated for the educator. Educators find the most relevant nuggets for their instructional needs and access them. However, web resources designed to provide differentiate learning opportunities for professional development went unused when underserved districts did not access the resources (Bates, McClure, Ross, & Womack, 2019). The lack of access for underserved locations is certainly a drawback. Underserved locations need these types of experiences. Remediating the lack of accessibility is a primary concern for educational leaders in underserved areas.

### **Procedure**

The theoretical framework was interpretivist and constructivist with a phenomenological qualitative methods framework (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2019). There were twenty-four participants in the professional development session. The data on both the Likkert Scale evaluation and the unstructured reflections were collected within a week of the conclusion of the last professional development session. The teachers filled out a Likkert Scale evaluation at the

end of the professional development which they sent by email to the Superintendent. They also sent their unstructured reflections by email to the Superintendent. Comments from these were used in the findings section. Zoom either opened or closed spaces for educators who engaged in the critical work of Social Studies. Depending on student buy in, Zoom created the same communal space to incorporate difficult histories or conversations the same way it would in a physical classroom. This was why it was helpful for professional development, but caveats remain for student instruction.

This project started with preparation. The Superintendent talked both individually and in a group with all the staff to determine the level of support each individual needed to work remotely. She quickly canvased the program managers and administrators to determine outstanding grant reports, professional development in progress, and program end-of-year close out procedures, future grant writing needs, purchasing obligation, and summer programming needs. Each staff member had two hours to take what they needed to work from home and left the office. They reported to the Superintendent every day and reported on their progress every two weeks. Later the Zoom meeting took the place of the daily reports. The Superintendent said, “It was a new adventure for me as well as the staff to tackle everything the ESC does in a remote setting. Zoom seemed to be the quickest way to get started with staying connected.”

The Assistant Superintendent created each Zoom meeting, sending the invitations, and taught those needing help using Zoom for the first time. Previously to COVID-19, the ESC had not used this platform to conduct business, stay in touch, or reach out to others. The infrastructure was soon put into place and with each daily use it became easier to use. There was no cost involved since Zoom made the service free to school districts.



The Superintendent explained the purpose of the Zoom meeting to each speaker, the reason they were invited to speak, questions to guide their discussion, and a fifteen-to-twenty-five-minute window to speak. The invited guests seemed very pleased that if needed the ESC would help them to learn how to connect to Zoom and even practice with them before their scheduled time. Many of the guests thanked the Superintendent for inviting them to be a guest speaker.

The staff entered the meeting from fifteen to thirty minutes early to visit with each other and often the staff asked to stay online after the Zoom session was over so they could continue to talk with other staff members. More than three quarters of the twenty-four staff members asked question of the Zoom presenters and gave comments and suggestions regarding various issues being discussed. The types of questions ranged from:

- Do you think we will return to normal any time soon?
- How have you handled instruction of special needs students?
- Is there an increase in domestic violence?
- Who is looking after vulnerable children and reporting child abuse and neglect?
- Have you seen any creative and innovative strategies being used to instruct students virtually?
- Where can you get a COVID-19 test?
- How much will the test cost?
- Will the Ohio Appalachia area ever get broadband access?
- How much funding cuts can we expect to see next school year?
- Will you be hiring new staff next year?
- Will the interviews be done virtually?

- How has this pandemic impacted you personally and professionally?
- What teachers in K-12 impacted you the most and why?

The Zoom guests included local school superintendents, school board member, elected officials from local and state government, state board of education officials, state board of accounts representatives, and a variety of leaders in business and education.

### **Findings**

At the end of the Zoom professional development the staff was asked a series of questions about their experience that corresponded to the interpretivist/constructivist theoretical framework. The questions and responses follow.

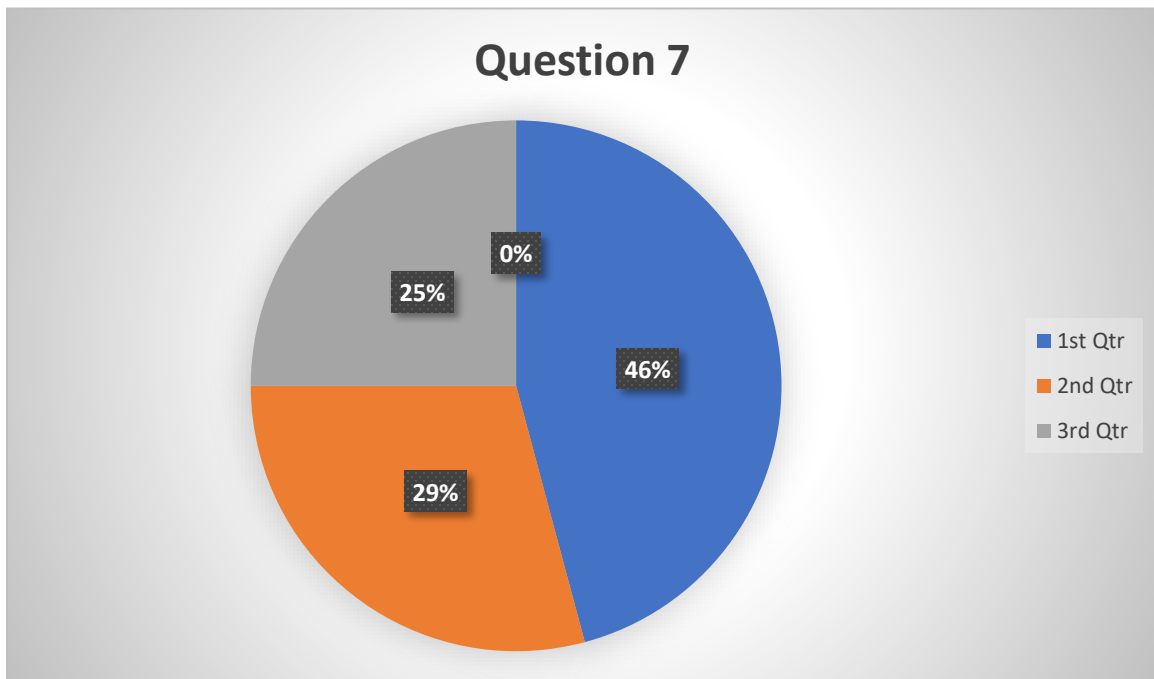
Table 1: Zoom Professional Development Survey Results

Evaluation Question	Strongly and Disagree	Neither	Strongly and Agree
I am learning new material from the speakers.	0	0	24
I am enjoying learning new material from the speakers.	0	0	24
I do not want to miss a Zoom meeting.	1	2	21
I have been able to share information from the zoom meetings in professional settings.	0	6	18
The meetings have encouraged my creativity in addressing professional issues.	0	3	21
The meetings have increased my productivity.	1	7	16
I can do everything remotely.	11	6	7

I am grateful for this opportunity to learn mora about technology	0	2	22
After the virus, I will be able to do everything remotely	11	5	8
After the virus, I look forward to doing everything remotely	17	5	2

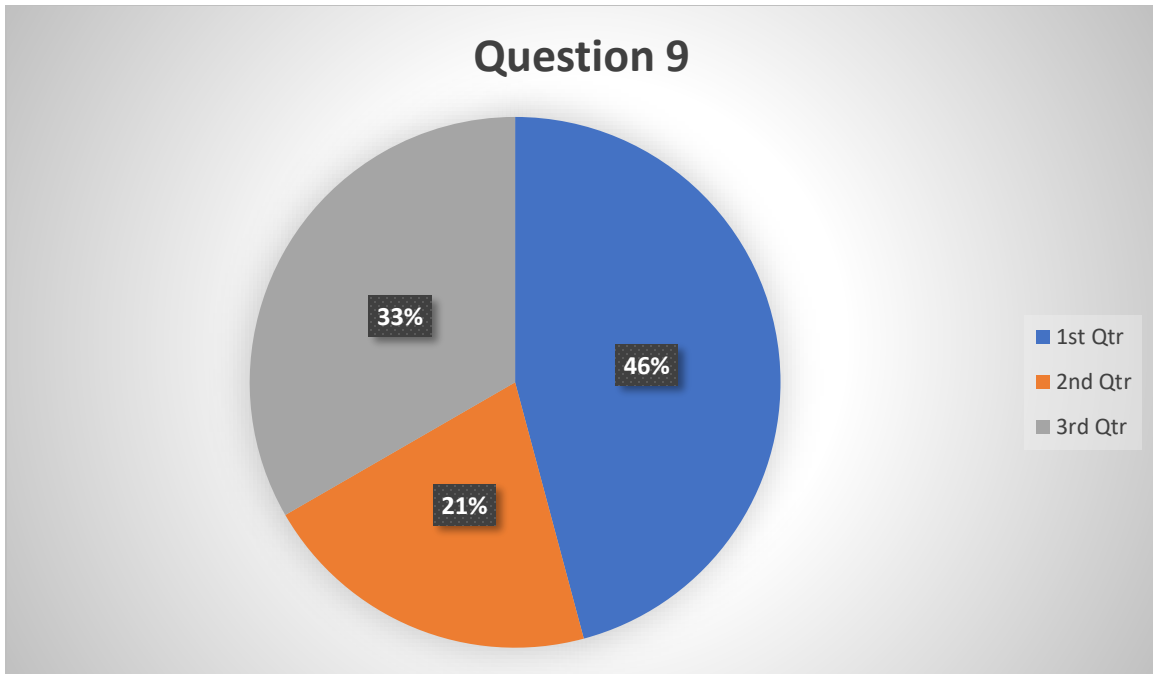
These three questions show discrepant cases. Even though the staff was very positive about the overall experience many of the people realized that there were qualities of interpersonal communication that could not be replicated by a Zoom experience.

Graph 1: Question 7: I can do everything remotely.



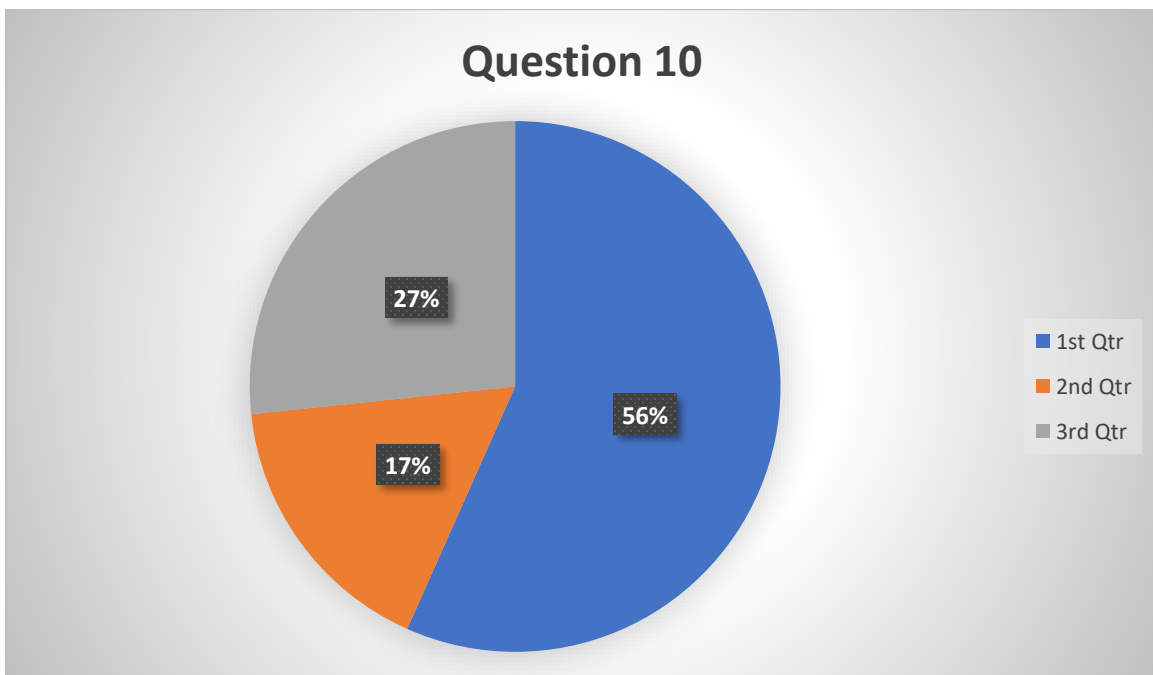
In answer to the question, I can do everything remotely forty-six percent of the respondents dissented while twenty-five percent agreed.

Graph 2: Question 9: After the virus, I will be able to do everything remotely.



In response to the question, After the virus I can do everything remotely again forty-six percent demurred with thirty-three percent saying they could.

Graph 3: After the virus, I look forward to doing everything remotely.

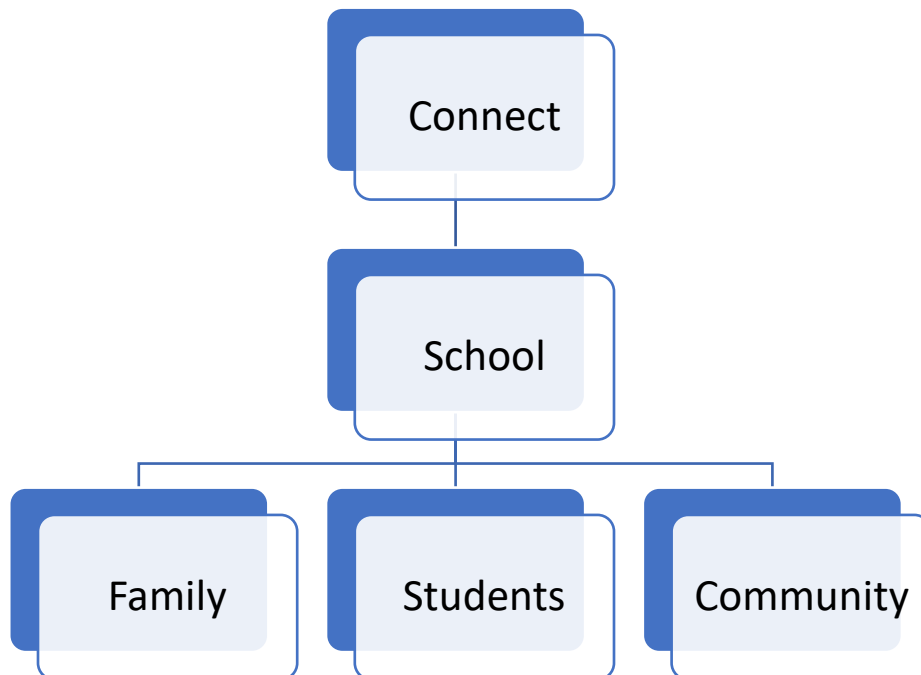


In the last question, After the virus, I look forward to doing everything remotely fifty-six percent disagreed with only seventeen percent agreeing. From their answers clearly the staff could work remotely, but they preferred not to and saw disadvantages to working remotely all the time.

Information gleaned from comments on the survey and from staff reflections performed at the conclusion of the professional development created a pool of data. The results of that coding was triangulated between both sources to yield sub assertions of family, students, and community. The assertion immersed from that was school and the trend was connection. The sub assertion of family immersed as professional development participants mentioned the importance of the events they lived through. The R and Q numbers reflect the anonymous responses to reflections (R) or questionnaires (Q). As educators, family referred to a relationship and the people they served. “Our family has not only been concerned about each other, but also been concerned with student and families of our local community.” [R2] The educators also discussed the people whom they ultimately served. Students referred to the recipients of their services and the efforts they made for the teachers of the young people in the community. “By inviting Gallia Co Health Dept and JFS, our team was able to learn statistics and relevant information regarding the students our districts and afterschool programs serve.” [R1] The community in this case is a series of smaller school communities under the umbrella of the professional development providers. Community refers to the geographic area and the network between home and school. “They shared that their decision would not only impact them but other in the community as well—the domino effect.” [R6] School is the local unit of education provided in the community. School is the local administration of an institution for the purpose of enlightenment. “Most often our accountability is above board but recent issues of improper use of funding and unequal funding from rural and urban schools is unacceptable.” [R5] Staff talked

about their connection with their peers and projects. Connection is the interaction between people at a variety of places working toward the same cause. “Being able to connect with the office staff each day was helpful, but it was also a bonus to have some outside perspective as we think about our own work at the ESC [educational service center].” [R18] The school was comprised of the family and school, and the school connected both.

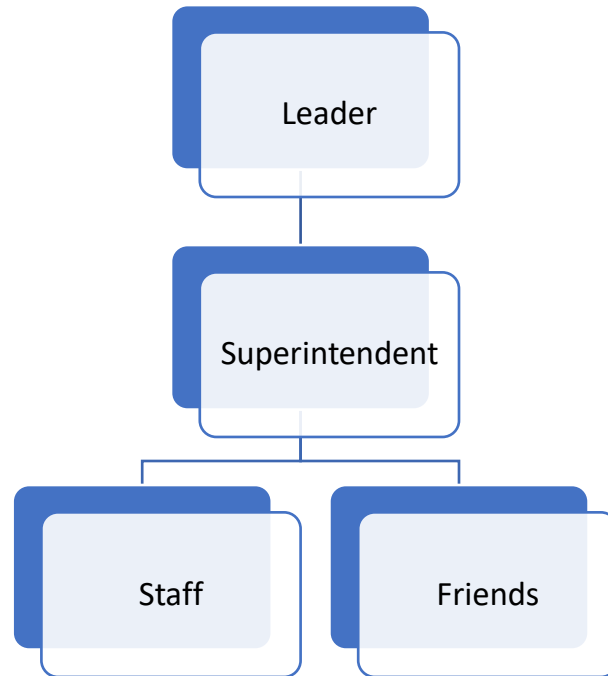
Graphic 4: Connection Trend



The sub assertions of staff, teachers, and friends built into the assertion of superintendent. The idea of leadership immersed as a trend. The idea of staff referred to themselves as employees of the educational service center and they received the professional development. The staff coordinate and implement a variety of programs for teachers and students in the community to facilitate teacher success and student achievement. “The diversity, not only in our speakers’ bureau, but also among our staff members, made the experience much more meaningful.” [R18] Friendship defined relationships between staff members. Friendship also extended to the role

they played in assisting teachers and community members in elevating students in the region. “I also noticed all the guest missed the simple things the . . . staff missed; haircuts, going out for lunch or dinner, seeing friends, and family.” [Q2] The Superintendent is the leader of the educational service center but also the leader of each of the autonomous local school districts. The Superintendent is aware of all of the day-to-day details of daily life in the institution working on behalf of the overseeing board. “For me the most beneficial speakers included Superintendent . . . discussing the immediate impact of COVID-19 on his k-12 school district concerning feeding kids, providing remote instruction, and planning a virtual graduation . . .” [R15] Many leaders play a role in the community. Leaders serve in business, education, and government. “I especially enjoyed hearing from local leaders that gave important insight to how our communities have been affected by Covid-19 and what steps are being taken to deal with this unprecedented event.” [R13] Staff and friends described the relationships in the educational service centers. They worked with the superintendent in their building but also worked with the superintendents in multiple school districts where they provided services. They were leaders as were the people in the community who lead in a variety of areas.

Graph 5: Leader Trend

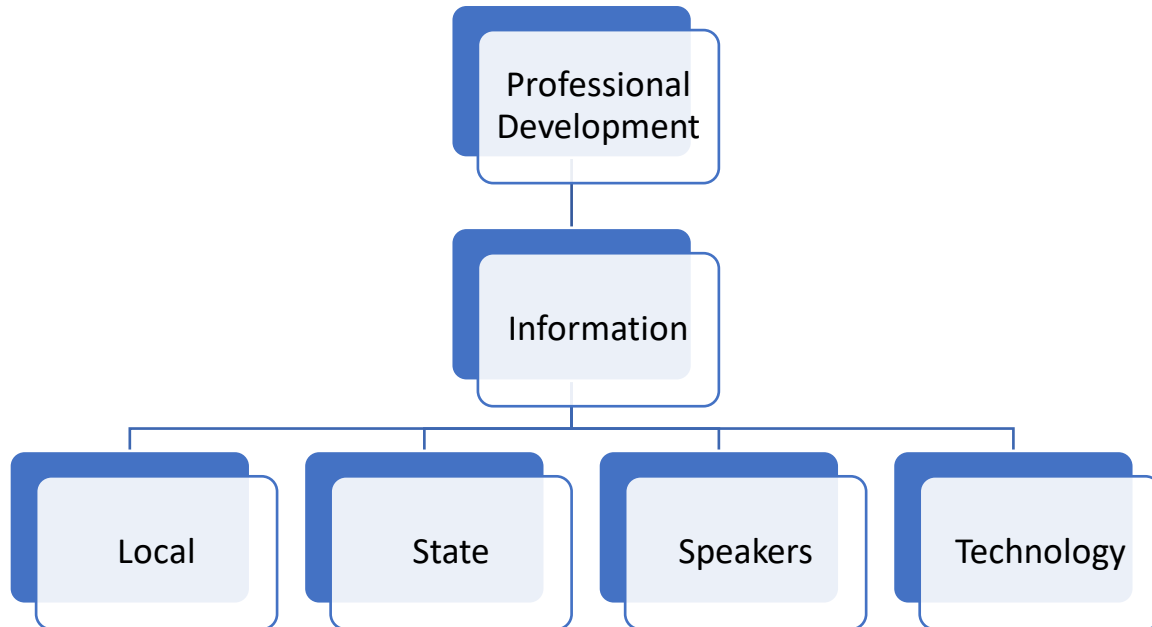


The sub assertions of local, state, speakers, and technology all built into the assertion of information. Participants talked about the local as an important part of the experience. The local included both immediate people and places. “Overall, we miss the sense that our family, friends, and local community are safe.” [R2] This respondent included both places and people in one statement. The participants also had a concern for the state outside their immediate area. They defined state in a variety of economic, educational, and political spheres. “Listening each morning to our state superintendent, senators and congressmen, local leaders and businessmen, agency leaders and educational experts was better than any conference I could attend.” [R20] The participants appreciated the scope of the information they received. The participants focused on the individual connection with the person providing the information. The participants identified the speaker as a source of information. “First, let me commend all the guest speakers we have had beginning at the local level and proceeding to the state.” [R19] Technology was the method of communication. The participants appreciated the novel application of technology that allowed them to interact with their peers and worried about possible unexpected consequences.



“I found . . . to have a dynamic and urgent message for all of us concerning the increased amount of home time and screen time for children and adults and the negative impact this increased technology usage may be having on our mental health.” [R15] These concerns grew as the duration of the lock down increased. The assertion of information was the culmination of all of the sub assertions. Information was the content of the professional development. “I feel that I learned something from each session I was able to attend. This series really highlighted the idea of multiple sides to every story for me.” [R16] The assertion of information contributed to the understanding of the professional development. The participants participated in professional development to learn information to respond to the new circumstances that enveloped children, teachers, and schools. “I learned things that were professionally and personally helpful.” [R4] The participants learned about their changing world and how the world was responding to the changes. All three trends: connect, leader, and professional development describe the way the participants encountered their Zoom meetings. These reflections coupled with the exit survey tell more about the nature of the experience for the participants.

Graphic 6: Professional Development Trend



### **Lessons Learned**

A forty day Zoom series was too long. Staff also felt that five days a week of Zooming was not as productive as maybe three days a week or two days with a break day and then two days on. Staff heard from seven local superintendents and felt they all basically said the same thing. Any session longer than thirty minutes seemed to cause fatigue.

In the future if the pandemic causes the ESC to shut down for an extended period of time, the ESC will plan to have no longer than a four-week period (three days a week for thirty minutes) for meeting with staff virtually. The staff seem to feel comfortable with Zoom so a different platform would be utilized to allow for exposure to a variety of technologies. The Superintendent said, “In the future staff would be responsible to pick the guest speakers and develop the questions so they would take ownership in the content.”

### **Implications**

Zoom use in social studies settings allows teachers and learners to work with difficult histories. Teachers monitor facial clues in emotional responses as students speak and listen

similar to when teachers are in direct classroom contact with students. However, students must show their faces and be active participants in the discussion for this to work. Otherwise Zoom allowed students to close themselves off from instruction.

### **Conclusions**

The interpretivist/constructivist features of the theoretical framework raises issues about how Zoom could be used in social studies instruction. While not perfect, Zoom technology enabled people to participate in professional development, and it has the potential for linking rural areas with urban areas and making remote places seem immediate. It made interactions between people possible that would not have been logistically feasible even prior to COVID-19. Participants gathered on Zoom prior to the meeting just to talk; furthermore, they stayed on Zoom after the meeting to continue to have human contact with peers. It fulfilled a basic human need to dispel isolation, and it brought people together. It was not the same as being in a group or a gathering of friends, but it was an acceptable substitute.

Zoom meetings made pandemic adult education possible; it allowed peers to communicate and meetings to occur. It filled in the gap and keep office staffs working together to gather information for teachers, administrators, and schools. It also allowed the staff to carry out their responsibilities as they applied for and administered grants. As a group the participants discussed with state officials' ideas and asked questions even though the officials were miles away in the capitol. In further professional development, adult pandemic education has the potential to link multiple parts of the United States or foreign countries to compare education practices and make people aware of their region.

As professional development, now that the proof of concepts exists, and they know that it works there is no reason they can not create their own broadcasts about their Appalachian home

and invite people from around the world to share the experience of talking about any number of topics that resonate in their communities. These programs recorded on Zoom allow teachers, schools, and students in their area to become content providers for other students interested in cross cultural studies. Zoom holds the potential to ameliorate some of the disadvantages of the distance in rural education. It also holds the potential to learn about other people in other places in their area and in other locations around the world. As professional development it opens a new door to Zoom into the future.

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### **Current Call for Papers, Winter 2022:**

*The Iowa Journal for the Social Studies* (2022)

#### **About the Journal**

*The Iowa Journal for the Social Studies* is a peer-reviewed, electronic journal that provides an outlet for research, best practices, curriculum work, and media reviews in social studies education.

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#### **Audience**

Each issue of *The Iowa Journal for the Social Studies* will include work relevant to social studies researchers and educators in K-12 and higher education.

#### **Proposed Call for Manuscripts—Volume 30, Issue 1**

The editors of the *Iowa Journal for the Social Studies*, a peer-reviewed electronic journal, issue a call to submit manuscripts for the third issue. We are especially interested in manuscripts that feature research, conceptual and theoretical work, curriculum and lesson plans that have been implemented in the K-16 classroom, and media reviews.

#### **Special Call:**

In 2017, Bohan's chapter in the *Wiley Handbook of Social Studies Research* presented a bleak analysis of the state of gender and feminist scholarship in social studies research. After reviewing scholarship, teachers and teacher education, student populations, curriculum and

instruction, standards and assessment, media and technology, global contexts, education leaders, and research on males and masculinities, it was concluded that gender and feminism needs more research. Although the field has grown, Bohan argues that “more research needs to be conducted, however, especially in the area of the intersection of gender, social studies education, and standards and testing, technology, and masculinities” (p. 246).

Guest editors Carolyn A. Weber and Heather N. Hagan are seeking articles that focus on the intersection of gender and social studies education. Curriculum and standards analysis is sparse, but has shown that the representation of women is inequitable. For example, Engebretson (2014) concluded that giving women unequal representation in the NCSS standards leads to the “perception that women are not valued as historical actors and are not given equal status with their male counterparts” (p. 31). Research has also demonstrated that women are underrepresented in textbooks (Chick, 2006) and that children’s literature about women include historical misrepresentations (Bickford & Rich 2014). These studies beg the question of how and when women are represented in our PK-12 classrooms? Who is being taught and is it through teacher-created materials or standardized curriculum? In addition to exploring these questions, authors are encouraged to share their own lesson plans and materials that teach about women and gender in social studies.

Authors are encouraged to draw upon recent literature in the field and/or propose lesson plans that reflect current and effective practices in the social studies with a specific focus on gender.

**CFP posted:** June 2021

**Submissions due by:** September 1, 2021

**Submissions sent out for review:** Upon receipt-September 1, 2021

**Reviews returned:** October 1, 2021

**Author revisions submitted:** November 1, 2021

**Publication:** Winter 2022

Please send submissions to: [carolyn.weber@uni.edu](mailto:carolyn.weber@uni.edu)

Guest Editor: Dr. Carolyn Weber - University of Northern Iowa and Dr. Heather Hagan - Coastal Carolina University

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