Social Studies Teaching and Learning

Volume 1, Issue 1

An open-source peer-reviewed journal of the

Co-editors:

Kimberlee Sharp, Morehead State University
Caroline Sheffield, University of Louisville

Peer Reviewers:

Joshua Kenna, University of Tennessee

David Childs, Northern Kentucky University

Jeremiah Clabough, University of Alabama – Birmingham

James Akenson, Tennessee Technological University

John Bickford, Eastern Illinois University

Natalie Keefer, University of Louisiana – Lafayette

Dean Vesperman, University of Wisconsin – River Falls

Scott Roberts, Central Michigan University

Ricky Mullins, Eastern Kentucky University

Charles Elfer, Clayton State University

Sean M. Lennon, Valdosta State University

Sandra Riegle, Morehead State University

Table of Contents

Piloting Book Clubs with Preservice Teachers to Address Social Studies Concepts: A Reflection on Action Research

Lisa K. Pennington[a] and Mary E. Tackett[b]

[a]Governors State University; [b]Longwood University

Abstract

Book clubs provide unique opportunities to authentically and actively cover content, pedagogy, and high-quality classroom resources within higher education settings. In this pilot study, book clubs were used with preservice teachers to (1) discuss available children's literature and resources; (2) encourage active engagement with instructional strategies; (3) review social studies topics and content; and (4) provide opportunities to share different backgrounds, experiences, and perceptions related to the books. Preservice teachers read a sample of children's books related to social studies concepts, completed individual literature circle assignments, and engaged in small and whole group discussion to critically analyze children's books and their use in the classroom. An action research approach strengthened the book club procedure, and student feedback was regularly elicited through open-ended surveys, then qualitatively analyzed in accordance to the four goals. Feedback for the first two goals, particularly in the areas of pedagogy and available resources, was overwhelmingly positive. Responses for the final two goals, particularly in the areas of content and multiple perspectives, provided opportunities for self-reflection and insight for future studies. This article discusses strengths and suggestions for book club goals and procedures, as well as limitations and implications for future research.

Keywords: book clubs, preservice teachers, children's books, elementary social studies methods

Teacher preparation programs provide pedagogical strategies and methods for effectively teaching social studies content. However, to engage diverse students with the curriculum, preservice teachers must also be equipped with culturally sensitive resources that provide opportunities for multiple perspectives (Tschida, Ryan, & Ticknor, 2014). This pilot study provided active learning experiences in both content and pedagogy, while simultaneously introducing resources for teaching social studies topics in the elementary classroom. Book clubs allowed preservice teachers from two institutions of higher education to explore high quality children's books and discuss social studies-related topics. An action research approach and ongoing feedback informed our goals and procedures, while also providing opportunities for reflection and revision. This article describes successes from the pilot study and provides suggestions for future studies aimed at using book clubs to help prepare preservice teachers teach social studies in the elementary classroom.Incorporating Multiple Perspectives in the Social Studies Classroom

Social studies teachers face multiple challenges when teaching historical content. Time to teach social studies content in the classroom is often limited (McGuire, 2007), and learning objectives are often shaped by current politics (Blanchette, 2010). When content is taught, it is often presented as a dominant or master narrative (Takaki, 2012), which is typically Western, white, male, and of upper socioeconomic status. Available resources further perpetuate dominant perspectives, often incorrectly repainting the past as historical myth (Cowhey, 2006; Loewen, 2007), and historical figures as heroes (Kohl, 1994; Kent, 1999). Conversely, today's increasingly diverse students provide divergent perspectives that do not adhere to this master narrative, which makes connecting with the curriculum difficult (Tschida, Ryan, & Ticknor, 2014).

The C3 Framework (National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS], 2013) and state-level curriculum frameworks in Texas (Texas Education Agency [TEA], 2011) and Virginia (Virginia Department of Education [VDE], 2015) emphasize the importance and value of teaching students to view history from multiple perspectives. Therefore, while it can be difficult for teachers to navigate away from the predominant, master narrative (Takaki, 2012), it is imperative for preservice teachers to be exposed to multiple viewpoints, which allow them to view history from a "different mirror" (Takaki, 2012). Preservice teachers can then provide their own students with multiple "windows" to view historical experiences through the eyes of others while also reinforcing their students' own "mirror" perspectives as they contextualize their personal place in history (Tschida, et al., 2014).

Benefits of Reading and Discussing Children's Books

In social studies classrooms, book clubs can be used to counteract dominant narratives by privileging the diverse perspectives of others. Reading and discussing children's books allow students to make connections that may not be fully realized through the use of traditional textbooks (Ediger, 2000). Additionally, while trade books provide more relevant content than textbooks (Swiebold, 1984; Waters, 1999), children's books provide a platform for different perspectives that are often overlooked or forgotten in the curriculum (Cowhey, 2006; Manak, 2012). These connections allow students to engage more deeply with the social studies content (Drake & Drake, 1990; Laughlin & Kardaleff, 1991; Palmer & Burroughs, 2002; VanSledright, 1995), and may help students better understand current events (Zitlow & Stover, 1998). Moreover, providing opportunities for discussion can help English Language Learners create common connections with English speaking classmates (Coonrod & Hughes, 1992; Cruz & Thornton, 2008; Salinas, Franquiz, & Guberman, 2006). Ultimately, as students discuss their own diverse experiences and interpretations of books with others, they are able to collectively and critically form their own opinions about the books and the topics they represent (Rosenblatt, 1978).

Book Clubs as Active Learning Experiences

In order to counteract the dominant narrative, it is important to equip preservice teachers with methods, strategies, and resources. Many scholars highlight the importance of creating active learning experiences that are meaningful and authentic (Brookfield, 2015; Fink, 2013; Weimer, 2013). When students are engaged in active learning, they are more motivated to learn (Miller & Metz, 2014) and are generally more positive about their learning experiences (Cavanagh, 2011). Additionally, students also enjoy small group discussions (Hamann, Pollock, & Wilson, 2012) and cooperative learning (Millis & Cottell, Jr., 1998), making book clubs a particularly valuable learning strategy. By introducing preservice teachers to a wide variety of resources, they are better equipped to consider learning tools in their own classrooms and libraries. Moreover, the use of book clubs and corresponding activities provide opportunities to model active learning strategies and teaching methods while engaging multiple perspectives.

Pilot Study Goals and Action Research

This pilot study was an effort to better position our preservice teachers to embrace multiple perspectives while actively teaching social studies content. An inquiry-based action research approach grounded by self-reflection (Bell & Aldridge, 2014) allowed us to iteratively explore how book clubs could be used in higher education settings. Our preservice teachers were partners in the learning experience, and we regularly solicited their feedback in order to self-reflect on the process (Bell & Aldridge, 2014). This enabled us to improve our own instruction while simultaneously meeting the learning needs and goals of our students (Bell & Aldridge, 2014). The book clubs were designed with four overarching goals: 1) introduce a variety of available resources – most specifically children's books – appropriate for use in the elementary classroom; 2) utilize instructional strategies to use with their own students; 3) review social studies content; and 4) share diverse experiences, connections, and perspectives of the books with others.

Procedure

With these four goals in mind, we piloted the book clubs across two semesters, and procedures were continually revised based on ongoing feedback from the preservice teachers. *Fall Book Club Iteration*
In the fall semester, the first iteration of the book club was piloted at a Texas university with one cohort of 26 undergraduate preservice teachers enrolled in a social studies methods course. Participants were predominantly Hispanic females pursuing initial licensure in a variety of fields, including elementary education, bilingualism, and special education.
To address the first goal (introducing and discussing high quality children's books and

resources) and third goal (reviewing social studies topics and content), book club meetings were divided into four social studies-related topics that addressed a) Japanese-American incarceration, b) refugees and immigration, c) race, and d) miscellaneous social studies topics. A university grant from one of the institutions provided funding to purchase a small sample of high-quality children's books addressing each of these topics (see Appendix A). Topics were selected based on relevant, current, and historical events which included the 75th anniversary of Japanese- American incarceration, the current refugee crisis, and ongoing issues related to race. Children's books for the first two topics were exemplars from two separate research studies we were conducting, and books for the final two topics were selected from a combination of suggested book lists for social studies teachers and suggestions from colleagues.

In order to address the second goal (encouraging active engagement with instructional strategies) and fourth goal (providing opportunities for sharing differing perspectives, experiences, and analysis of the books), preservice teachers divided into small groups, and chose a book from the list on that week's topic. Groups then read the book prior to completing the in-class assignments. An iterative process was used to determine the most effective way for the preservice teachers to read and prepare for the book clubs. During the first session, in which students read and discussed books on Japanese-American incarceration, preservice teachers took turns reading the book to each other in their groups during class. However, this option detracted significantly from the amount of class time for discussion. Thereafter, for the remaining three book club sessions and topics, groups were given their books during the class meeting prior to book club, and were asked to read the book ahead of time. This option allowed the groups to begin the in-class assignments immediately, providing more time for whole group discussions.

During each of the four book club meetings, the cohort was first asked to complete an individual literature circle strategy assignment, which was then shared with their small groups. We adapted popular literature circle roles (Literature Circles-Roles and Activities, n.d.), and preservice teachers were given an option of three to four activities to choose from. These roles were changed during each book club session, so that they were exposed to multiple literature circle strategies (see Appendix B). After completing the individual option, preservice teachers shared their assignments with their group before they were given two to three questions to help facilitate discussion. After sharing these questions in small groups, preservice teachers then reconvened for whole group discussion. Prior to whole group discussion, each group quickly shared the title of their book and a brief synopsis with the rest of the class to provide context for their peers. At the end of the book club meeting, preservice teachers turned in a group set of notes from their small group discussion and their individual assignments.

Spring Book Club Iteration

In the spring semester, the second iteration of the book club was piloted at the Texas university with a new cohort of 28 preservice teachers in the social studies methods course. This group was also predominantly female and Hispanic, and pursuing initial licensure in a variety of areas. While the second iteration utilized the previously described book club methods and continued to focus on all four goals, additional emphasis was placed on the fourth goal.

Participants were provided a new opportunity to virtually converse about the books with a cohort of preservice teachers at another institution of higher education in Virginia. These virtual meetings were designed to provide an opportunity for preservice teachers from different backgrounds to share their experiences, perceptions, and analyses of the chosen books with others.

Zoom© provided the technological platform for conducting virtual sessions with the cohorts from the two institutions, and preservice teachers were divided into breakout rooms containing students from both institutions when possible for small group discussions. After that, preservice teachers were reconvened to the home room for the whole group discussion. However, due to last-minute course changes, the Virginia cohort was unable to attach their book club to a methods course. As a result, the Virginia cohort included two preservice teachers who met on a voluntary basis outside of class. Due to its small size, the Virginia cohort met to read all of the books selected for each topic individually, and then discussed the books using the same guiding questions as the Texas cohort to help facilitate discussion. During the virtual component, the Texas cohort shortened their individual and whole class components to allow time for discussions to occur between the preservice teachers from the two institutions while the Virginia cohort engaged in the virtual sessions immediately after reading and discussing the books.

As a result, during the virtual meetings, both cohorts of preservice teachers had already been given the opportunity to engage in conversation about the questions before meeting virtually. Since the number of preservice teachers at each institution was unevenly matched, the virtual component largely consisted of the whole group, rather than small group discussion in breakout rooms, as originally planned. Using results from this pilot study moving forward, we hope to more closely match participant numbers to allow for smaller breakout groups to meet asynchronously.

Student Feedback

Feedback is one of the hallmarks of action research. By regularly collecting feedback, preservice teachers became "stakeholders" in the learning experience and provided us with data for self-reflection and instructional decision making (Bell & Aldridge, 2014, p. 3). During both iterations of the pilot study, preservice teachers were asked to complete a brief, anonymous survey consisting of six open-ended questions after each book club meeting. These questions were designed to solicit honest feedback regarding the usefulness of the book club in relation to the aforementioned four goals. The purpose of feedback was twofold. First, it gave preservice teachers a space to reflect on the process and make informed decisions for implementing book clubs in their future classrooms. Second, it provided ongoing input on the design of the book clubs, and for strengthening our instruction at the higher education level.

Using a course management site, we uploaded a link to the survey questions after each book club meeting, and then independently read the survey responses before meeting virtually to discuss the feedback. Student responses were categorized in relation to the four goals, and we utilized the Constant Comparison method (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to identify recurring themes and patterns of response across the two semesters. Continually revisiting and analyzing the

student data allowed us to iteratively improve and strengthen decision-making and activities after each book club session. Similarly, comparing responses across the two semesters provided a holistic view of overall perceptions as revisions were made to the book club procedures. Twenty students provided survey responses over the course of both semesters, and overall feedback was overwhelmingly positive for both the in-class and virtual components of the book clubs.

Findings

Feedback Regarding Goal 1

With regard to the first goal (available resources), students appreciated the cross-curricular connections between social studies and reading the book clubs presented. One respondent said book clubs "made me realize that there are a variety of ways to extend the understanding of social studies concepts by integrating it into something they are constantly engaging in – reading and writing." Another preservice teacher added that children's books presented "another way we can implement an activity to the lesson plan or use during literacy circle time, literature centers, and even for independent reading." Another reiterated that utilizing a variety of children's books better engages students in the content and historical topics: "this helped me understand that historical events can also be covered through the usage of books. In addition, picture books greatly help young children understand historical events." Finally, one respondent felt that "having students be exposed to literature is always the answer" and suggested that preservice teachers may not be ready to effectively use children's books in their future classrooms without preparation: "Well, what if we are not exposed to literature? How can we expose literature if we don't know what to expose!"

Feedback Regarding Goal 2

For the second goal (instructional strategies), students generally noted that the hands-on, active learning experience provided authentic practice for their future classrooms. One respondent said book clubs were "useful in learning pedagogy/instructional strategies for future classroom use because we were able to experience the event with our group. I believe this will help us as future teachers to understand how this activity takes place in the classroom." Another noted the book club discussions illustrated the importance of being prepared to answer difficult questions related to social studies content. Others said children's books could be used to introduce difficult current or historical topics, and that the activities used in conjunction with the books prompted autonomy and creative and critical thinking. Finally, many students expressed appreciation for how the different book club procedures were modeled and explained, and expressed confidence in being able to now apply these strategies in their own classrooms, stating: "as future educators we are able to experience firsthand the strategies that we can

implement in the classroom. It is cool that we learned how they are applied."

Feedback Regarding Goal 3

In addressing the third goal (content), preservice teachers expressed appreciation for the selected children's books, noting that they addressed important themes loosely related to social studies content. One respondent stated the selected books and topics made "us think about engaging ways to start topics with our students." Another noted the books "exposed me to the portrayal of controversial topics in literature because I had no prior experience (not counting time in the university) with books that didn't have the dominant perspective." A similar comment stated that "most of the time we are not given different perspectives like you gave us while having to read these books. Some children are not exposed to these types of things so it gives them that perspective." However, while preservice teachers acknowledged the book clubs presented an effective review of pedagogy, they did not always provide a thorough review of social studies content. One respondent noted books clubs didn't offer "much of a review or learning experience; however, for an elementary classroom I think that it would be a good way for the students to learn within a meaningful context." Other responses further suggested that a stronger connection to social studies content with more explicit discussion on how the books can be used to teach each topic would help strengthen the book clubs.

Feedback Regarding Goal 4

For the fourth and final goal (different perspectives), preservice teachers indicated they appreciated the opportunity to hear multiple perspectives from peers at other institutions. One respondent noted the opportunity to "communicate with our classmates and find ways to relate the literature to our lessons is something I really liked being able to do." Another preservice teacher stated: "I really enjoy the book club activities, especially talking to the other students in Virginia. It is different in ways that we are able to hear different perspectives and still see how they are connected." Others noted the small group discussions provided diverse, valuable ideas and different lived experiences that would have otherwise been unheard, and "it was insightful to be able to listen to other's thoughts on their books." Finally, another respondent said the group discussions prompted her to "look at the strengths and weaknesses found in children's literature" in order to critically evaluate teaching resources for quality and differing perspectives. Ultimately, responses indicated the preservice teachers enjoyed the book clubs and found them useful as preparation for their future classrooms, particularly as a vehicle for learning from others who may have different perspectives on relevant topics.

Limitations and Future Research

While overall, the pilot study successfully met the four goals concerning student engagement and receptivity, there were some limitations and difficulties during implementation that will be addressed in future research studies. The first limitation regarded implementation, and whether the book club should be voluntary and interest-based, or presented as a course requirement. The Texas cohort was able to embed the book club into a social studies methods course, which provided designated class time for the activities, and communicated expectations for the meetings per the course syllabus. Conversely, the Virginia cohort was unable to make the book clubs a component of their methods class. Disseminating information about the book club in classes and with flyers helped generate student interest, and students participated on a voluntary basis outside of regular class time. Consequently, interest in the book club was high, with multiple students inquiring about the time commitment and logistics, or expressing regret at being unable to participate. However, only two students were able to meet as a group outside of class due to logistical constraints. This led to inconsistencies in attendance and participation during the virtual book club meetings. Based on these results, we suggest book clubs be attached to a specified course with regular meetings indicated in the course syllabus in order to allow for optimal results concerning participation and attendance.

A second limitation, closely related to the first, centered on finding a common, synchronized meeting time for the book club discussions to occur, as the Texas cohort met during a specified class time in the evening, and the Virginia cohort needed to ensure that they could also meet then. This meant the Virginia cohort met at 7:30pm EST, to coordinate with the Texas cohort's 6:30pm CST class meeting. The evening commitment outside of regular class time also limited the size and interest of the voluntary cohort. Though it is difficult to coordinate course schedules between the two institutions, we hope to better accommodate student schedules in future studies by including the book club meeting times within the syllabus as an assignment, and offering multiple, asynchronous meeting times for small group discussions.

Finally, because the voluntary Virginia cohort was much smaller than the Texas cohort, we were unable to fully realize our plan to use virtual breakout rooms for small group discussion. To mitigate differences in cohort sizes, it became necessary to utilize whole group discussion during the virtual sessions. While the whole group discussion was rich, the benefits of allowing preservice teachers to engage and connect more personally in the smaller, breakout groups was not fully realized. Smaller groups would have enabled members to more freely share their personal experiences, connections, and perspectives without the pressure of speaking in front of the entire group. This disparity can be remedied by outlining the responsibilities and meeting times for the book clubs in course syllabi moving forward.

Recommendations and Conclusion

Book clubs combine several components that are vital for preparing preservice teachers

for the elementary classroom. Data from this pilot study enabled us to identify successes, limitations, and areas for improvement in future studies. Book clubs provide educational contexts for preservice teachers to explore and engage with multiple types of children's books, instructional approaches, and social studies content. An action research approach provided opportunity for ongoing feedback, reflection, and growth (Bell & Aldridge, 2014). Feedback indicated the book clubs succeeded in providing first hand exposure to high quality children's books (goal one) and active engagement with a variety of instructional strategies (goal two) (Brookfield, 2015; Fink, 2013; Weimer, 2013). However, preservice teachers also noted that the book club discussion could be strengthened through more explicit connections and purposeful integration of social studies content (goal three) (Drake & Drake, 1990; Laughlin & Kardaleff, 1991; Palmer & Burroughs, 2002; VanSledright, 1995). Additionally, while discussing books with preservice teachers from other institutions provides the benefit of hearing multiple perspectives (Cowhey, 2006; Manak, 2012), we acknowledge several limitations in this approach. These shortcomings may be remedied in future studies with the following four recommendations.

First, attaching the book clubs to a specific course at both institutions would help mitigate limitations we experienced with attendance and participation. Second, conducting at least one structured "getting to know you" meeting between the institutions would provide an opportunity to become familiar with both technology and participants prior to engaging in critical analysis of the books. Third, per student feedback, there should be a heavier focus on reviewing the social studies content and exploring feasible ways to incorporate that content into the book club discussions and activities. Finally, offering multiple, asynchronous meeting times (both in and outside of classes) on varied days would allow for more flexibility in student schedules.

Book clubs engage and motivate students (Miller & Metz, 2014) while also providing them with opportunities to actively focus on their learning (Brookfield, 2015; Fink, 2013; Weimer, 2013). This pilot study enabled us to successfully use book clubs in higher education settings, and provided valuable information for continued revision and growth. Findings will be used to improve further book club iterations aimed at familiarizing preservice teachers with social studies content and elementary education methods and pedagogy.

Dr. Lisa K. Pennington is an Assistant Professor of Education at Governors State University. She teaches social studies methods courses and supervises teacher candidates in the field for the Division of Education. Dr. Pennington's research interests include social studies teacher education and professional development and using children's books to teach social studies. She can be reached at lpennington2@govst.edu .

Dr. Mary E. Tackett is an Assistant Professor of Education at Longwood University, where she teaches courses related to elementary education, literacy, and human development within the Department of Education and Counseling. Her research interests explore how diverse children's books can be used to facilitate meaningful conversations in elementary classrooms. She can be

reached at tackettme@Longwood.edu.

References

Bell, L. M., & Aldridge, J. M. (2014). *Student voice, teacher action research and classroom improvement*. Sense Publishers.

Blanchette, S. (2010). Education or indoctrination? The development of social studies standards in Texas. *Social Education, 74*(4), 199-203.

Brookfield, S. D. (2015). *The skillful teacher: On technique, trust, and responsiveness in the classroom* (3rd ed.). Jossey-Bass.

Cavanagh, M. (2011). Students' experiences of active engagement through cooperative learning activities in lectures. *Active Learning in Higher Education, 12*(1), 23–33.

Coonrod, D., & Hughes, S. (1992). Using children's trade books to teach social studies to young children. *The Social Studies Texan 8*(1), 57-58.

Cowhey, M. (2006). *Black ants and Buddhists: Thinking critically and teaching differently in the primary grades*. Stenhouse Publishers.

Cruz, B. C., & Thornton, S. J. (2008). Social studies for all: ESOL strategies for the elementary classroom. *Social Studies and the Young Learner 21*(2), 11-16.

Drake, J. J., & Drake, F. D. (1990). Using children's literature to teach about the American revolution. *Social Studies and the Young Learner 3*(2), 6-8.

Ediger, M. (2000). Social studies children's literature. *College Student Journal 34*(1), 30.

Fink, D. L. (2013). *Creating significant learning experiences: An integrated approach to designing college courses* (2nd ed.). Jossey-Bass.

Hamann, K., Pollock, P. H., & Wilson, B. M. (2012). Assessing student perceptions of the benefits of discussions in small-group, large- class, and online learning contexts. *College Teaching, 60*(2), 65-75.

Kent, S. (1999). Saints or sinners? The case for an honest portrayal of historical figures. *Social Education, 63*(1), 8-12.

Kohl, H. (1994). The politics of children's literature: What's wrong with the Rosa Parks myth? *In Rethinking our classrooms: Teaching for equity and justice*, pp. 137-140.

Laughlin, M. K., & Kardaleff, P. (1991). *Literature-based social studies: Children's books and activities to enrich the K-5 curriculum*. Oryx Press.

Literature Circles Roles and Responsibilities. (n.d.). http://www.thehob.net/literature/la/reading /litCirclesRolesResponsblts.html

Loewen, J. W. (2007). *Lies my teacher told me: Everything your American history textbook got wrong*. Touchstone.

Manak, J. A. (2012). Exploring the American revolution from multiple perspectives: Integrating children's literature into the social studies. *Reading Today 30*, 14-15.

McGuire, M. E. (2007). What happened to social studies? The disappearing curriculum. *Phi*

Delta Kappan, 88(8), 620-624.

Miller, C. J., & Metz, M. J. (2014). A comparison of professional-level faculty and student perceptions of active learning: Its current use, effectiveness, and barriers. *Advances in Physiology Education, 38*(3), 246–252.

Millis, B., & Cottell, P.G. (1998). *Cooperative learning for higher education faculty*. Oryx Press.

National Council for the Social Studies (2013). *The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards: Guidance for Enhancing the Rigor of K-12 Civics, Economics, Geography, and History.* Author.

Palmer, J., & Burroughs, S. (2002). Integrating children's literature and song into the social studies. *The Social Studies 93*(2), 73-78.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1978). *The reader, the text, and the poem: The transactional theory of literary work.* Southern Illinois University Press.

Salinas, C., Franquiz, M. E., & Guberman, S. (2006). Introducing historical thinking to second language learners: Exploring what students know and what they want to know. *The Social Studies 97*(5), 203-207.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory.* (2nd ed.). SAGE.

Swiebold, G. V. (1984). Textbooks do need trade books: One librarian's case study. *Top of the News 41*, 93-98.

Takaki, R. (2012). *A different mirror for young people: A history of multicultural America*. New York, NY: Seven Stories Press.

Texas Education Agency. (2011). *Texas essential skills and knowledge for social studies.* http://ritter.tea.state.tx.us/rules/tac/chapter113/index.html

Tschida, C. M., Ryan, C. L., and Ticknor, A. S. (2014). Building on windows and mirrors: Encouraging the disruption of "single stories" through children's literature. *Journal of Children's Literature 40*(1), 28-39.

VanSledright, B. A. (1995). *How do multiple text sources influence learning to read American history in fifth grade?* NRRC: A Newsletter of the National Reading Research Center. (ED385832). ERIC. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED385832.pdf

Virginia Department of Education. (2015). *History and social science standards of learning.* http://www.doe.virginia.gov/testing/sol/standards_docs/history_socialscience/#sol2015

Waters, S. D. (1999). Children's literature: A valuable resource for the social studies classroom. *Canadian Social Studies 33*(3), 80-83.

Weimer, M. (2013). *Learner-Centered teaching: Five key changes to practice* (2nd ed.). Jossey-Bass.

Zitlow C. S., and Stover, L. (1998). Japanese and Japanese American youth in literature. *The Alan Review 25*(3). http://doi.org/10.21061/alan.v25i3.a.3

Appendix A
Children's Books for Book Clubs

Japanese-American Incarceration:
Dust of Eden by Mariko Nagai
So far from the sea by Eve Bunting
A place where sunflowers grow by Amy Lee-Tai
The bracelet by Yoshiko Uchida
Flowers from Mariko by Rick Noguchi
Baseball saved us by Ken Mochizuki
The no-no boys by Teresa Funke

Refugees and Immigration:
Lost and found cat: The true story of Kunkush's incredible adventure by Doug Kuntz
Four feet, two sandals by Karen Lynn Williams
Brothers in hope by Mary Williams
My beautiful birds by Suzanne Del Rizzo
The colour of home by Mary Hoffman
The treasure box by Margaret Wild
The island by Armin Greder

Race:
Brown girl dreaming by Jacqueline Woodson
Thunder boy junior by Sherman Alexie
Chocolate me by Taye Diggs
Grandpa, is everything black bad? By Sandy Lynn Holman
Let's talk about race by Julius Lester
The other side by Jacqueline Woodson
The colors of us by Karen Katz

Miscellaneous:
Candy pink by Adela Turin
Hairs/Pelitos by Sandra Cisneros
I love my hair by Natasha Anastasia Tarpley
Mama Papaya's pancakes: A village tale from Kenya by Mary and Rich Chamberlin
Whose lovely child can you be by Shobba Viswanath and Christine Tappin
Yo soy Muslim by Mark Gonzales
As good as anybody by Richard Michels

Appendix B
Literature Circle Activities and Small Group Discussion Questions

Individual activity (choose one):
- **Summarizer:** Retell the story in your own words. Include at least three main events that happen in the story. Make sure the parts are important. Does your group agree with the parts you chose?
- **Artist:** Draw something about the story that you liked. It could be the setting, a problem, an exciting part, a surprise, or a prediction of what happened next.
- **Word Wizard:** Look for special words in the story. Find at least five and note why you chose them and the page number. They could be words that are new, different, strange, or difficult.

Small group discussion questions:
- How could you use this book to introduce/teach Japanese-American incarceration in elementary classrooms?
- What topics could you bring up with the text?
- What questions might you ask students during/after reading the text?
- Finally, have your own discussion about incarceration in your groups, and teaching Japanese-American incarceration in elementary school. What key points did you come up with?

Book club 2:
Individual activity (choose one)
- **Author:** Rewrite the end of the story in your own words. Be prepared to share why you wrote the new ending you did.
- **Media Connector:** Connect this story to other stories like it. It could be a book, movie, or TV show. Explain what makes the stories alike.
- **Interviewer:** Write two questions you would like to ask the main character of the story. Based on your knowledge of the story, come up with an answer you think the main character might give.

Small group discussion questions:
- How could you use this book to introduce/teach race in elementary classrooms?
- What topics could you bring up with the text?
- What questions might you ask students during/after reading the text?
- Finally, have your own discussion about race in your groups, and teaching race in elementary school. What key points did you come up with?

Book club 3:
Individual activity (choose one):
- **Current Events Connector:** Are there similar situations going on in the world today? Make notes on any current events that the book reminds you of. Jot down

your connections and be ready to share with the group.

- **Passage Guru:** Choose one passage from the book you think is the most important and share it with your group. Be ready to explain to them why you think it is important to the story and why you think it is the most important passage in the book.
- **Cartoonist:** Draw a three or six panel comic strip depicting what you think will happen next in the story.
- **Letter Writer:** Write a short letter to someone (it could be a friend, family member, etc.) as though you were the main character of the book. What would you want this person to know about you?

Small group discussion questions:
- How could you use this book to introduce/teach immigration in elementary classrooms? Would you use it, and why or why not?
- What questions might you ask students during/after reading the text?
- Critically analyze the book-did you notice any stereotypes, token characters, situations that would present refugees or immigrants in a negative light, endings that resulted in everything working out, etc.?
- Finally, have your own discussion about immigration in your groups, and teaching immigration in elementary school. What key points did you come up with?

Book club 4:

Individual activities (choose one)
- **Tweet it:** Choose a character and create a "Twitter" account for that character. Compose three tweets from the character's perspective.
- **The Poet:** Write a poem (or haiku) summarizing your book.
- **Stan Lee:** Choose a character from the text and draw them as either a superhero or supervillain. Explain why you depicted them the way you did.
- **Timeline Guru:** Create a timeline depicting the most important events from the story. Be prepared to explain why you chose the events.

Small group discussion questions:
- What was your book about, and what are your overall thoughts on the book?
- Could you use this book in social studies? If so, how? If not, why not?
- What questions might you ask your students while reading the book? After reading the book?

From Image to Inference: Three Eighth Grade Students' Meaning Making with an Informational History-Themed Graphic Novel

Ashley L. Shelton[a], Caroline C. Sheffield[a], and James S. Chisholm[a]
[a]University of Louisville

Abstract

Graphic novels are sophisticated and complex texts suited for use in curriculum across content areas. This study explores three eighth-grade students' meaning making as they engaged in think aloud protocols while reading *Gettysburg: The Graphic Novel* (Butzer, 2009). We draw on multimodal social semiotic theory and methods from constructivist grounded theory to examine the modal affordances of graphic novels in promoting a diverse array of interpretive strategies, as well as students' emotional transactions with the Gettysburg Address. Specifically, we highlight findings that illustrate how students made emotional, visual, and linguistic inferences to negotiate meanings between semiotic systems. These findings suggest that multimodal literacy practices, such as reading graphic novels, can mobilize and expand the interpretive strategies students use to support their learning about historical events, including the Gettysburg Address, as they engage in perspective taking and emotive empathy.

Keywords: graphic novels, multimodal literacy, meaning making, emotive empathy

Graphic novels and comics have permeated popular culture. They are regularly mined by Hollywood for inspiration. The most obvious are the ever-present Marvel and DC Comics, but there are many other productions taken directly from graphic novels including *The Road to Perdition* (Collins, 2005), *The Kingsmen: The Secret Service* (Millar, 2012), *300* (Miller, 1999), and the wildly popular *The Walking Dead* (Kirkman, 2006). A term introduced in 1978 to describe Will Eisner's *A Contract with God*, graphic novels are book length comic narratives of either original text or a collection of existing comics in a single story arc (Carter, 2007). The popularity of graphic novels is reflective of changes in how literacy is practiced in the 21st century. From computer screens, to televisions and our phones, we are surrounded by texts that integrate multiple modes of communication, including language, images, sounds, and action (Jewitt & Kress, 2003). To be able to comprehend multimodal texts, readers must make meaning from both the individual modes, as well as the synergistic integration of modes (Serafini, 2014).

The 2010 publication of the Common Core State Standards reflected this move to multimodal texts. Reading anchor standard seven states that students should be able to "integrate and evaluate content presented in diverse media and formats, including visually and quantitatively, as well as in words" (Council for Chief State School Officers [CCSS], 2010). The reading and writing standards for history emphasized the need to address

disciplinary literacy within social studies instruction. Within these standards, reading history anchor standard seven states that students should "integrate visual information (e.g., in charts, graphs, photographs, videos, or maps) with other information in print and digital texts," which is a content specific version of the broader anchor standard previously described (CCSSO, 2010). The College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework published in 2013 clearly outlines the connection between these reading anchor standards and the inquiry processes within social studies (Lee & Swan, 2013). As a multimodal text, with information conveyed through both images and language, graphic novels require readers to process written text, images, placement, action, and the interaction of these modes in order to infer meaning from the text.

Although graphic novels have been read in and outside of English Language Arts (ELA) classrooms for some time, scholars are only beginning to address how readers approach these texts, make sense of their contents, and use them to bolster their comprehension (Brenna, 2013; Meyer & Jiménez, 2017). Moeller (2015) discussed students' perceptions of reading graphic novels in the classroom. Students appreciated the reading experience afforded by the format.
However, they also hesitated to accept the pedagogical use of graphic novels in the classroom because of the format's perceived marginalized status among adults. Students in Pantaleo's (2011) study showed an appreciation of the artistic nature of graphic novels as well as the complexities of the reading experience. To that point, Pantaleo encourages educators to provide students with opportunities to make meaning during the reading process by teaching students the elements of graphic novels, providing students with concrete instruction on the features and aspects contained within graphic novels, and teaching students how a graphic novel should be read. Within the social studies, this is especially imperative as educators seek to address changing conceptualizations of disciplinary literacy and the role of inquiry-based learning.

Graphic Novels and the Social Studies

Graphic novels are available in all genres of both fiction and nonfiction, but an ever-increasing number are addressing social studies content (Sheffield, Chisholm, & Howell, 2015). Graphic novels by their nature include integration of visual and linguistic information. At its most basic, reading graphic novels requires students to employ literacy strategies to process and comprehend the multimodal text. However, the complexity of the text affords the reader the opportunity to engage in disciplinary literacy, as well. In social studies, and history in particular, this requires deep analysis of source material while exploring an author's perspective, biases, interpretation, and agenda (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008).

Included within the vision of powerful social studies education, which was reissued in 2016 by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), was a call for a focus on disciplinary literacy instruction in order to prepare students for their lives in the workplace

and in future education. Powerful social studies is described as instruction that is meaningful, integrative, value-based, challenging and active. Additionally, NCSS described powerful social studies as including varied source material from integrated disciplines (i.e. arts, humanities, science) in order to engage in an inquiry process. Graphic novels provide a way for readers to take up complex reading processes by accessing multiple modes of representation of an historical event.

Reading a graphic novel provides the student an opportunity to engage in the process of disciplinary literacy with both visual and linguistic text. Students can be challenged to examine the author's and illustrator's choices regarding what to include and exclude from the story, how ideas are conveyed visually, and how the story is structured. For example, Art Spiegelman's *Maus I* (1986) and *Maus II* (1992) use animals as stand-ins for groups of people in the telling of his father's Holocaust experience: Jews are mice, Germans are cats, Poles are pigs, and Americans are dogs. He draws the visuals in a stark black and white, which adds a sense of foreboding to the images. Spiegelman utilizes flashbacks within the text in order to place his current relationship with his father in the context of the Holocaust narrative. All of these are choices Spiegelman made in his interpretation of his father's lived experience of the Holocaust. In analyzing these choices and contextualizing the graphic novel, students would engage in the process of historical source work, which is a form of disciplinary literacy (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008).

In addition to the source work and literacy opportunities associated with integrating graphic novels within social studies instruction, an argument can be made that the format may aid in the development of emotive empathy, which is a contextualized emotional connection that the reader makes with the event and characters within a text (Chisholm, Shelton, & Sheffield, 2017). Emotive empathy, when used to interpret history-based text, lies at the intersection of *historical contextualization* and *affective connection* of Endacott and Brooks' (2013) visual conceptualization of historical empathy. Through this consideration, emotive empathy can be seen as a building block toward students' development of historical empathy. The visual nature of the graphic novel offers the reader a window through which to view the historical event or time, which allows them to explore the emotions and actions of individuals in the past.

Marcus, Metzger, Paxton and Stoddard (2010) have made the case that Hollywood films can be a beneficial tool for developing historical empathy. Emotions, events, interactions, and settings can be seen by the reader and used as a scaffold upon which to construct an understanding of the actions and perspectives in the past. Much like choices are made by the filmmaker with regard to casting, settings, interactions, and dialogue as an interpretation of the past, so too do graphic novelists make intentional compositional decisions. For example, authors and illustrators of graphic novels make interpretive choices in how a historical subject is depicted. The reader must delineate between the choices made in the historical interpretation and the information available to develop historical empathy. This is the same process one must undergo when viewing historical film--what is artistic

license? And what is rooted in historical scholarship?

There is an emerging literature describing the ways in which graphic novels can be used to mediate learning about social studies content (Clabough & Carano, 2015; Sheffield, Chisholm, & Howell, 2015). Cromer and Clark (2007) outlined the unique perspective that graphic novels, with their combined visual and linguistic texts, provide readers in the social studies including an easily accessible format, an opportunity for students to deconstruct the visuals, and access to multiple perspectives of historical accounts. Youngs and Serafini (2011) detailed the complicated nature of utilizing multimodal texts in the social studies classroom, particularly in how students can use these texts to understand the various perspectives that shape the past. They call on teachers to not only become better informed through their own reading of multimodal texts, but also to be intentional when teaching students how to interact with and analyze these texts through a historical lens. Snow and Robbins (2015) echo the advice for teachers to carefully attend to the multimodal texts they use in the classroom. Through critical readings of four historical graphic novels, they found that biases and inaccuracies may be more prone to occur within these texts, noting that teachers should allow for critical interpretations of these graphic histories. By comparing four graphic novels about the *Battle of the Alamo*, Snow and Robbins delineate such discrepancies as misleading numbers, misrepresented illustrations, singular perspectives, and incorrect vocabulary which may lead students to adopt a problematized understanding of historical events.

Although there is research examining the reading and interpretive processes students use to engage with graphic novel literary texts (Liu, 2004; Sabeti, 2013; Schwarz, 2006), few empirical studies exist that delineate the instructional affordances of graphic novel informational texts, specifically in the social studies. While graphic novels like *Persepolis* (Satrapi, 2004), *The Watchmen* (Moore, 1986)*, Maus* (Spiegelman, 1986), and *American Born Chinese* (Yang, 2008) are frequently cited in the emerging education research literature (Christensen, 2006), few studies address graphic novel informational texts such as *Gettysburg: A graphic novel* (Butzer, 2009), *Trinity: A Graphic History of the First Atomic Bomb* (Fetter-Vorm, 2012), and *The Great American Documents: Volume 1: 1620-1830* (Ashby & Colón, 2014). Bosma, Rule, and Krueger (2013) studied fifth-graders' readings of graphic novels and nonfiction texts centered around the American Revolution. Students were able to glean more information from graphic novels than from the nonfiction texts. Students also reported greater levels of interest and enjoyment when reading graphic novels as opposed to reading nonfiction texts. Similarly, instruction with picture books, another multimodal format utilized in social studies classrooms, shaped deep interpretations of texts by young readers (Arizpe & Styles, 2003) and supported fifth-grade students' discussions of historical fiction picture books (Youngs, 2012).

Reading Strategies

Over the past six decades, literacy researchers have theorized, studied, and

documented the ways in which readers use various reading strategies to support their memory and comprehension of print texts (Brown, Campione, & Day, 1991; Pressley, 2002). These socio- cognitive strategies highlight how readers build complex text worlds and schema for comprehending narrative and expository texts by processing and anticipating action in texts related to plot and character development (Anderson, 2013). Typical reading strategies that have been shown to improve students' comprehension include summarization, self-questioning, prior- knowledge activation, imagery construction, and readers' identification of story grammars (Pressley & Harris, 1990). Researchers have argued that such organizational structures can scaffold the reading process, including the development of processes such as inferencing (Anderson & Pearson, 1984).

Building on the argument of McVee, Dunsmore, and Gavelek (2013), we situate the use of cognitive reading strategies within a sociocultural perspective on literacy and reading as a transactional (Rosenblatt, 1978; Beach & Myers, 2001), meaning-making (Bomer, 2011), and socio-emotional process (Thein, Guise, & Sloan, 2015). As readers make inferences about characters in texts, they often take into account how a character is represented emotionally, as well as their own emotional responses to the text (Thein et al.,2015). Because emotion is an integral part of day to day school interactions, and readers often respond to literature in waysthat reflect their own lives, an emotional response to text is both frequent and common(Gernsbacher, Goldsmith, & Robertson, 1992). As Gernsbacher, Goldsmith, and Robertson (1992) note, a representation of emotional state may be formed in relation to readers' perceived understandings of characters' actions, relationships, and goals within a text. This type of inference automatically activates readers' prior knowledge around emotions, and is part of their reading comprehension process regardless of whether emotional states are implicitly or explicitly stated (Gernsbacher, Hallada, & Robertson, 1998).

Given the cognitive and socio-emotional ways in which students read, process, and make meaning about print texts, and in light of the 21st century texts (e.g., graphic novel) and literacy practices (e.g., reading visual texts) with which adolescents engage, we reimagine these strategies for meaning making through the lens of multimodality. This study takes a multimodal social semiotic perspective to examine adolescent readers' meaning making about the events and people surrounding the Battle of Gettysburg and the Gettysburg Address as depicted in *Gettysburg: The Graphic Novel* (Butzer, 2009). Drawing on the concept of transmediation, which involves the recasting of meanings across sign systems (Siegel, 1995; Siegel, 2006), we build our argument on the literature that describes how moving from the visual semiotic system into the linguistic semiotic system results in non-redundant and generative interpretations of text (Kress, 2010; Serafini, 2014). We extend this literature with a focus on informational text conveyed through the graphic novel genre among middle school social studies students.

This study was designed to answer the following research questions. 1) Which reading (visual and linguistic) strategies do three eighth-grade students employ to interpret

an historical graphic novel? 2) How do three eighth-grade students use reading strategies to interpret an historical graphic novel?

Methods

This three-part study was conducted in an eighth grade United States history class in a large Title 1 middle school, Churchill MS (pseudonym). Located in a midsize Midwestern city, the school reports a diverse student population: 47% white, 37.7% African-American, 8.8% Hispanic, and 6.5% classified as other, with 62.9% of the students receiving free or reduced lunch (Jefferson County Public Schools [JCPS], 2015). Students enrolled in the United States history class participated in two lessons utilizing *Gettysburg: The Graphic Novel* (Butzer, 2009). Thirteen student participants took part in one of three researcher-led focus group interviews inquiring into students' impressions of reading graphic novels in the social studies, and how they gathered information from the text. From this group of thirteen, three individuals were selected for a think-aloud interview, as described below.

Lesson Activity

All students in the class participated in a researcher-led two-day lesson on the Battle of Gettysburg using C.M. Butzer's (2009) *Gettysburg: The Graphic Novel* as a primary instructional tool. We selected the text for two reasons: 1) the novel focused on the current instructional content for the class (the class was at a midpoint in their Civil War unit); and 2) a class set of the text was available for use. *Gettysburg: The Graphic Novel* (Butzer, 2009) tells the story of the Battle of Gettysburg and the Gettysburg Address, with a focus on the soldiers and townspeople who were most affected by this historical event. Through the use of three colors (blue, white, and black), Butzer streamlines the narrative by intentionally drawing readers to the faces of the individuals portrayed. Additionally, the use of limited colors mimics the photography of the era, as well as enhances the solemnity of the subjectmatter.

Prior to reading the focal graphic novel, students engaged in a warm-up activity inquiring about their previous experience with other graphic novels. As advocated by many authors in the literature (e.g., Pantaleo, 2011; Youngs & Serafini, 2011), we provided pre-reading instruction (Allen, 2005) on the structure of a graphic novel using an excerpt from *Trinity: A Graphic History of the First Atomic Bomb* (Fetter-Vorm, 2012). During this activity, students were introduced to text bubbles, panels, gutters, imagery, and iconography, which are some of the central tools graphic novelists use to portray a narrative (Eisner, 1996; McCloud, 1994).

Following this introductory activity, each student was issued a copy of the graphic novel and a task to complete as a during-reading activity. The students were to summarize the information gleaned from each two-page spread as they silently read the text for the remainder of the class period, approximately 60 minutes, recording their information on the

provided three- slide PowerPoint handout of the 33 two-page spreads encompassing *Gettysburg*.

On the second day of instruction students were given a RAFT (Role, Audience, Format, Topic) assignment in order to process the information gathered from reading the graphic novel (Santa, Havens, & Valdes, 2004). The RAFT assignment asked the students to select a role (a Union soldier, a Confederate soldier, or a resident of Gettysburg). They then wrote a letter, newspaper article, a song/poem, or a comic strip, from this perspective, in order to tell future generations about the Battle of Gettysburg, the impact of the battle on the town's citizens, or the Gettysburg Address (see Appendix).

Upon completing their RAFT activity, participants engaged in one of three focus group discussions led by the researchers. These focus group discussions were designed to provide students with an opportunity to process information from the text, to share their reactions to the graphic novel format, to discuss their opinions about graphic novels as a teaching tool, and to share how they read the multimodal text. From these small group discussions three students were selected for individual think-aloud interviews. We articulate our rationale for selecting each focal student below.

Think-Aloud Interviews

The three students identified for the think-aloud interview included Sarah (white, female), Ken (African-American, male), and Wes, (biracial, male) (all names are pseudonyms). These three students were chosen based on four criteria. 1) Students reflected the racial diversity of the larger class. 2) All three students were engaged in the silent reading portion of the lesson, as indicated by both researcher observations and the completion of their during-reading task. 3) Each of the three students chose a different format through which to complete their RAFTS: Sarah created a comic strip, Wes wrote a poem, and Ken wrote a letter. 4) Their participation in a small group discussion, during which they were able to vocalize their interactions with the graphic novel, indicated that the participants possessed an ability and interest to actively engage in a think-aloud. We acknowledge that our participant selection was purposeful and the selection size small. As such, the results of this study are not generalizable. However, the richness of the information gleaned from the think aloud interviews shed light on the process these three readers used to make meaning about an historical graphic novel.

Each of the three students met with one of the three researchers in the school's library to read excerpts from the graphic novel through a think aloud protocol (VanSledright, Kelly, & Meuwissen, 2006). We first explained the protocol by telling students that we were asking them to read aloud different pages of the graphic novel. We began the protocol by modeling a think aloud using two pages of text. As we read, we paused and elaborated on ideas that the reading of the text generated, asked questions about visual or linguistic elements, made connections with previously read material, and called into question previously held beliefs about the historical elements featured in the text. We then invited

students to engage in this process themselves.

The students read 25 pages of the graphic novel, conveying their interpretations as they read each panel and page. The selected pages included an image-only two-page spread of the battlefield, Lincoln's arrival in Gettysburg, which includes a visual representation of the crowd singing "John Brown's Body", and Lincoln's delivery of the Gettysburg Address. We chose these three excerpts for their diverse modal affordances and to focus on the informational text portrayed in the author's interpretation of primary sources (i.e. the song and the address). We also asked the students to read their RAFT aloud and to describe their reasons for crafting the document as they did.

Powerful social studies instruction includes attention to disciplinary literacy, focusing on informational text and diverse source materials. The marriage of a graphic novel with a primary source provided an interesting opportunity. While the text of the Gettysburg Address is well- known and unaltered, the way in which the author chose to illustrate the Address provides opportunities for students to connect to and comprehend the primary source.

Data Analysis

We drew on typical methods for qualitative analysis, including transcribing audio recordings of talk, coding transcripts for patterns and themes, and engaging in iterative processes of analytical writing and revising. Although we discuss the analytic process in a linear fashion below, qualitative data analysis is always recursive, iterative, and dialogic in nature, as one analytic advance reconstitutes previous analytic interpretations and likewise informs subsequent interpretations of the data.

Transcribing. Each researcher created a transcript for the interview he or she conducted. Since the structure of the transcript reflects the theory and analysis guiding the investigation, (Mishler, 1991; Ochs, 1979), we privileged the speaker first by placing the respondent's name in the far left-hand column of the transcript. Next to the speaker's name, we reproduced the language that was uttered during the think-aloud protocol. First, we segmented participants' utterances according to the frame about which they seemed to be responding. However, we soon realized that participants did not always limit their responses to one single frame, but vacillated between local details (e.g., visual and linguistic) in a single frame and the larger context available in the panel. Coupled with this realization, and as is expected during the constant comparative method, we recognized patterns and themes in the data, which led us to further segment utterances in the transcript into codes. Finally, we created a space for researcher memoing to process coding, provide provisional interpretations of the data, and make connections to the literature (Table 1).

Table 1

Transcribing, Coding, and Memoing Example

Speaker	Utterance	Code	Memo
Ken	"That those who fought her so nobly advanced." That means they have advanced it as far as progress.	Linguistic Inference	Slight misconception the author's use of the meaning advanced

Coding. Transcript analysis occurred first through incident-with-incident coding (Charmaz, 2014) of the think aloud interview transcripts. We collectively read one interview transcript, mining for initial codes that we constructed with the data. Tentatively using these initial codes, we individually analyzed transcripts of all three interviews, naming additional codes that we identified in the data. We refined and compared focus codes across transcripts, in order to develop themes. We used the constant comparison method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) to ensure coding fidelity across data sources during a final cycle of coding. We created a table to compare coding frequencies across the three think aloud interview transcripts with a final member check for any outlying codes (Table 2).

Table 2

Think Aloud Interview Code Frequency

Identified Codes	Code Frequency			
	Wes	**Ken**	**Sara**	**Total**
Visual Inference of Emotion	5	10	26	41
Visual Inference of Content	28	20	32	80
Linguistic Inference	12	9	0	21
Hypothesis	6	0	0	6
Narration of Visual Information	3	16	21	40
Narration of Linguistic Information	8	20	2	30
Verbalization of Reading Strategy	0	0	10	10
Verbalization of Visual Literacy Strategy	0	1	8	9

Verbalization of Personal Connection	2	2	2	6
TOTAL	**64**	**78**	**101**	**243**

Findings

To negotiate meanings between visual and linguistic modes of the graphic novel, students drew on the meaning making strategies of inferencing, hypothesizing, narrating, and personally connecting with the text. Students' read-alouds resulted in unique literacy strategies and different interpretive patterns to generate meanings about the text. Although students' meaning making across sign systems generated myriad interpretations through multiple meaning making modes, we also recognized how some interpretations reflected students' confusion in negotiating meaning between the linguistic and visual texts present in the graphic novel. Additionally, we examined each student's written RAFT for connections to the information presented within the graphic novel, and how that student chose to interpret the events of the Battle of Gettysburg and the *Gettysburg Address*. We outline these patterns for each reader in the sections below.

Inferencing

We delineated three subcategories of students' spontaneous uses of inferencing strategies in the data; these included: visual inferencing (reasoned conclusions based on visual content), emotional inferencing (reasoned conclusions based on emotional response), and linguistic inferencing (reasoned conclusions based on linguistic text) (see Table 2).

Students used visual inferencing strategies 121 times during the three think-alouds.Ken's utterance that follows typified the inferences all three students made from the images about the content of the graphic novel: "Well because I saw that and with the big hat and how tall he was– because Lincoln was a really tall president. And, they are all really excited to see him – so I am guessing it is the President and the President at the time was Lincoln." Ken draws on his knowledge of iconography (Lincoln's hat) and historical context (Lincoln was the president during the U.S. Civil War) to make the inference that Lincoln was the figure moving through the crowd. Similarly, Wes makes the following inference based on another panel found on the same page, "And it seems like a pretty big event. 'Cause this guy's hair looks pretty slicked over and slicked down, and trimmed beard..." In noting the appearance of the man greeting President Lincoln, Wes inferred significance to the meeting and the presence of the gathering outside the building. While examining the same two-page spread, Sara also employed visual inferencing in her description of the crowd's actions. "Well, there they look really concentrated on singing, and it looks like they're singing to Mr. Lincoln, like to the window." Her inference that the people were singing to President Lincoln was based on the depiction of a silhouette in the window that

resembles the shape of the author's depiction of Lincoln. For all three students, visual inferencing most frequently characterized their reading processes during the think aloud protocol.

Emotional inferencing is illustrated during Sarah's think aloud, "He's looking at the speech he's gonna give and he seemed like really nervous about that. … It's like his mouth is curled kind of. And it looks like he's really nervous. Then he's staring out the window. That made it seem like he was more nervous, 'cause he needed something to distract him." Sarah draws explicitly in this excerpt on a visual element (Lincoln's face) and her own experience of emotional response to make an inference that he was nervous, which informed her reading of mood in this text. In another example, Sarah again draws on Lincoln's facial features to make the emotional inference that Lincoln is sad, which she supports with a visual reading of the panel of Lincoln as he prepares to give the Gettysburg Address. "On this page, he seemed, like he seemed kind of sad about what he was going to start saying. The way his mouth is curled downward and the fact that the wrinkles were right above his eyebrows." Sarah engaged in emotional inferencing more often than Ken or Wes, who were more likely than Sarah to make linguistic inferences. That said, both Ken and Wes did infer emotion, as well, as typified by the following statement from Ken as he examines an image of Lincoln pacing on a platform as he prepares to speak to a large, socioeconomically diverse crowd (as reflected by their clothing), visibly eager to hear his words. "I'm looking at the crowd. They all seem captivated and really excited to see Lincoln." Ken is inferring excitement and captivation not from a linguistic text, as the two-page spread is essentially wordless, but from the facial expression the illustrator drew on the audience. Wes also explores the emotional state of the crowd during Lincoln's address. "So I guess since everyone's face besides this guy looks pretty spooked or shocked, kind of scared, that what he's saying to them—how important the war was and how maybe there shouldn't be any other wars…" He inferred the sad or shocked emotion from the facial expressions seen in a profile image of the crowd. In the picture, no one is drawn smiling; all the individuals are portrayed with downturned mouths, and some are pictured with their mouths agape. To Wes, these people were drawn conveying a sad or apprehensive emotion. Interestingly, he makes an inferential leap to saying "shouldn't be any other wars," which does not seem to be linked to either the visual or the linguistic text.

Linguistic inferencing occurred when participants used primarily written language in the graphic novel to make meanings about the text. For example, after Ken reads "It is altogether fitting that we should do this. In a larger sense we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we can not hallow this ground" (Butzer, 2009, p. 54), he makes the following linguistic inference: "That's kind of like saying… the big picture of this is that they cannot do anything to this ground, this is their final resting place forever, you can't do anything to it." In another example, Wes makes this comment about a lyric from "John Brown's Body," the song sung by the crowd as Lincoln drafts his speech: "[O]r maybe he's going to the army, the way they're saying it: 'He's gone to be a soldier in the army of the Lord.'"

Although he misinterpreted the lyrics, most likely from a lack of content knowledge and not knowing who John Brown was, he did utilize inferencing as a tool to construct meaning from the text. Interestingly, Sarah, who frequently made inferences from images, did not make a single inference from the linguistic text. Ken's visual inference of Lincoln's iconic top hat, Sarah's emotional inference of Lincoln's facial expression, and Wes's linguistic inference-- albeit misinformed--of the song, "John Brown's Body" are illustrated and point to the multimodal sources of information on which participants drew to inform their historical understandings around the Gettysburg Address.

Narrating and Meaning-Making Patterns

All three students narrated both visual and linguistic information, with 70 occurrences in three interviews. Ken typically followed a pattern of narrating the panel text followed by the images, as demonstrated in this excerpt. "The next panel says 'And dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal.' I see a White woman, a Native American, and Black woman, and a Black male. Then, I see a Union soldier, so another white male." However, not all of the students moved from narrating the linguistic text to narrating the visual text.

Wes more typically read the visual images before returning to the linguistic text, as in the following example.

> In these three boxes, it looks like he's writing a speech for his event. … So he's writing something pretty big and then, I guess, the people are still out there, so he looks out the window. And he decides to go to it. And the people are all singing something. Something about, something about a guy named John Brown, who might have been in the war or something.

Wes looked first at the panels in which Abraham Lincoln appears to be writing in a room above the gathered crowd and described his actions as depicted in the images. Accessing the visual text in this panel, Wes followed the President's gaze out the window to ground below where he then described the crowd as singing "John Brown's Body," as indicated by the lyrics written over the panels' images.

Sara vacillated between narrating the linguistic text and narrating the visual text. In one example, she reads the linguistic text first before layering a visual reading that confirms her initial impression: "The world will little note nor will long remember what we say here. But it can never forget what it did here. In the panel there is a black person's hands and the chains breaking." In this instance, the visual image of a slave's hands breaking apart the chains that held him captive promotes a projective reading of the linguistic text: "But it can never forget what they did here." Alternatively, Sara often narrated the visual image prior to narrating the written language of the Address: "And then the speech talks about like liberty is the biggest thing that people cared about when they formed a new nation, and they formed a new nation here, so that symbolizes that.." In this narration, Sara paraphrases the language of

the *Gettysburg Address* as she moves toward interpretation and symbolism. Before she does so, however, she addresses the visual elements of the text: "Well it's like people of a lot of different races and genders. So we have, African Americans, people who were in slavery, they're sad. Somebody from Asia. And then, I think that one's supposed to be Native American." As students moved through comprehending the text, their narrations functioned to springboard other meaning making strategies.

Hypothesizing

One student, Wes, occasionally used hypothesizing as a comprehension strategy. He verbalized possible ideas to explain the information provided in the images and text of the graphic novel. In the following excerpt, Wes attempts to frame an understanding of a scene in which the crowd is singing "John Brown's Body" outside Lincoln's window. "The people are all singing something; something about a guy named John Brown, who might have been in the war or something. Or they might be remembering and telling Abe Lincoln something. So I guess there could possibly have been another person named Jeff Davis who might have been in the war."

Although Wes appears to know little about some of the key figures in the Civil War, he is actively utilizing a hypothesizing literacy strategy as he proposes and tests theories based on the clues within the text. This hypothesizing move draws on both the linguistic elements in the frame as well as the visual elements. Musical notations flank undulating lines of text that read: "John Brown's body lies a-mouldering in the grave, John Brown's body lies a-mouldering in the grave…" (Butzer, 2009, p. 43). Students hypothesizing to make sense of information that may be new or unfamiliar to them is a long taught strategy with print-only texts and is only enhanced here by taking into account both the linguistic and visual elements of the text.

Verbalizing Strategies

All students had occasions where they made personal connections with the text. When reflecting on Lincoln's actions the night before the *Gettysburg Address*, Sarah shared the following insight:

> Well, in the one before he said he was going to bed and then he didn't he's staying up. Like, whenever I'm nervous for something I don't really sleep very well, and then, he's like looking—his face, and he's looking at the speech he's going to give and he seemed like really nervous about that.

Similarly, Ken linked his experiences in band to his ability to process the song the crowd is singing. "I see these musical notes, and I am in band so I know what that means." As Will considered the visual depiction of Abraham Lincoln writing, he stated "In these three boxes, it looks like he's writing a speech for his event. Like kind of like a graduation speech, but

he's not really graduating. So he's writing something pretty big." As is the case with making meaning with print-only texts, making connections between the reader's world and the world of the text is key to promoting comprehension.

Historical Interpretation and Perspective Taking

Each of the students participating in the two-day lesson was asked to complete a RAFT processing task. The students were given choices of role (a Union soldier, a Confederate soldier, or a townsperson), format (a letter, a poem, a newspaper article, or a comic), and topic (the events of the battle, the impact on the citizens, or the message of the address). The students were asked to write the document to someone in another place and/or time. The use of RAFT writing provided the students in the class with an opportunity to process and provide their own interpretation of the information from the graphic novel. These activities are linked to historical interpretation and perspective taking (Barton & Levstik, 2004), which are components of disciplinary literacy in the social studies (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). Sarah, Ken, and Wes each chose a different format, topic, and role, providing three divergent approaches to interpreting the events depicted in the graphic novel.

Sara chose to create a comic strip interpreting key excerpts of the *Gettysburg Address* in images, much the same way that Butzer (2009) chose to do in the graphic novel. She did not identify a perspective, as suggested in the RAFT assignment; rather she took on the persona of a third party interpreter, which one could argue is more in keeping with traditional historical interpretation. She created a five panel comic using the Comic Life™ (Plasq, 2020) application for iPads. In the first and last panels, she inserted images of Abraham Lincoln giving a speech. In the first panel, Lincoln is facing an audience that is on the right side of the image. Sarah has inserted a speech bubble from Lincoln's mouth with the text "Four score and seven years ago…" In the last panel, Sarah utilized a picture of Lincoln addressing a crowd that is on the left side of the image, essentially bookending the comic. In that final panel, Sarah inserted a speech bubble for Lincoln that states "... that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain." According to Sarah, she chose to begin and end her comic with images of him giving a speech so that her reader "would know it was his speech and you would see he cared about the speech all the way through." In the three other panels, Sarah was similarly intentional in her image selection. In one panel, she linked two text boxes stating, "Our fathers brought forth on this continent, a new nation conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition" and included an image of the committee to craft the Declaration of Independence, ostensibly the fathers of the nation. With the text "all men are created equal," she imported an image of five racially diverse babies. According to Sarah, "Like it says all men are created equal, to me meant all the people.
So, the little children they didn't care. They're like this is my friend. They didn't care at all." The fourth panel is absent of written text. It does, however, have the 33-star American flag,

which was the nation's flag during the first part of the U.S. Civil War. While Sarah's comic was fairly short, she demonstrated that she could both comprehend the document and convey her understanding of the salient message of the excerpted section of the *Gettysburg Address*.

Wes approached the RAFT assignment in a more personal, and emotional, manner than did Sarah. He chose to write a poem entitled "Farewell" the text of which is provided below.

Farewell
Cleaning the floor
Sweeping up my drops of sweat
When I hear the door
I have to catch my breath.

Here comes the South
Searching through my
stuff I shut my baby's
mouth And now it's
getting rough

There's their
wagon Loading
all my stuff
The uniforms remind me of
dragons I wish to tell them
enough

There they go
With all my
possessions I wish I
could say no
Now it's time for a confession

Wes chose to base his poem on an event presented near the beginning of the graphic novel. On that page, Butzer (2009) has depicted the Southern soldiers as looting provisions from the Gettysburg townspeople, as ordered by Generals Lee and Longstreet in the first panel of the page. The events on the page are supposition on Butzer's part, and are not augmented by the additional historical context offered in the author's note of the graphic novel. What this page does, however, is position the reader to witness how the townspeople of Gettysburg may have been directly impacted by the events of the battle. It is this perspective that Wes explores in his poem.

Wes is clearly drawing on emotions in order to connect to the events of the Battle of Gettysburg, as depicted in the graphic novel. He is basing his entire interpretation of the event on two images. The first includes a woman, with a young child hanging onto her skirt, openinga door to a group of soldiers. Her face, as well as that of the man of the family, are drawn in such a way as to convey surprise, their mouths are agape, hands splayed, and eyes are wide. The second image from which he draws his ideas is one in which soldiers are taking supplies from the family, including bags of flour and cans of coffee. The woman is in the background of the image, with her hands clasped.

Wes interprets these two images, which focus on the impact of the battle on the citizens, through an emotional lens, specifically anxiety and fear. In the think aloud discussion of the stanza in which Wes references shutting his baby's mouth, he states the following.

> I did not know there's a baby, but I kind of made that up. Out of all the homes, there might have at least been one, so. And usually. He might have been starting to cry. I've seen movies, this might sound violent, but when someone is about to kill someone they like tell them to shut their baby or kill the baby first and then kill them. So that's where I got that from. And then, "now it's getting rough." Now they're taking all their stuff. And they're not talking to them and just taking all their stuff. And she looks really worried. She doesn't want to do anything cuz she knows they're probably going to kill them or her. So she's just gonna stayquiet.

It is clear that Wes is drawing upon his prior experiences with other multimodal texts, in this case movies, to make meaning from the looting images. While he may, or may not, have direct experience with having something stolen from him, he has had vicarious experience through movies. He imagines the way in which the woman might have felt if strangers had entered her home and taken her possessions. In taking on this perspective, Wes was able to provide an interpretation of the battle that would be difficult to make using traditional sources, which are either text based or images of the battle's aftermath. Instead, he drew emotions from the images and linked them with his prior experiences in order to construct an understanding.

For his RAFT processing task, Ken chose to write a letter from the perspective of a Union veteran of the Battle of Gettysburg. His letter, which is written to his character's future children, is provided below.

> Dear Children,
>
> By the time you read this I will be gone from this world, but I want my legacy to live on. So I will tell of the epic Battle of Gettysburg, a battle of which I was part of, and lived to tell the tale.
>
> The date was July 1, 1863. Rebels were gathering the day before. Now, they

are advancing. We couldn't take them on, for there were too many. General Bufford saw this, but had a different plan.

While we were pushed back, these rebs foraged the town for supplies. Raiding anywhere they could get into. This angered me, seeing as they were taking food people worked hard for.

The next day, at "Little Round Top," there was a battle. This time, we would not back down. We seemed to gain the advantage when we advanced with our bayonets. How many I killed I don't know. There was much bloodshed on the Confederacy side. But the true blood would come the next day.

This would be a last day of conflict, and the bloodiest. General Pickett of the Confederacy made a horrible blunder. It was seen that after the South would shoot their cannons, they would advance. We held our cannons until then. Then, we unleashed our bombardment. Less than half their artillery was left.

That day, while many were killed, so was my friend, William. A grand ceremony was held for the fallen. But, I am thankful I walked away.

In his letter, Ken retells the events of the battle chronologically, using the both narrative and emotional pathways. He augmented his retelling of the events of the battle with information from the author's note. Ken provides details about Little Round Top and Pickett's charge in the letter that were not readily available in the panels of the graphic novel; they were provided in the supplemental information in the author's note. As such, Ken created his own historical interpretation of the Battle of Gettysburg, which is an example of disciplinary literacy in history.

Like Wes, Ken seemed to be affected by what he perceived as injustice in the looting of supplies from the townspeople. In the think-aloud discussion of his RAFT letter, Ken makes the following statement, "While I was writing this I was thinking how would a soldier feel if they took from the people who worked hard for it." While it is a point of possible debate whether or not a Civil War era soldier would have felt the anger about looting as described by Ken, he taps into his own emotions in order to process the events of the battle, and as a way to understand the perspective of the Union soldier. He is demonstrating emotive empathy (Chisholm, Shelton, & Sheffield, 2017), which we suggest is a part of the historical empathy described by Endacott and Brooks (2013).

Discussion & Implications

Students negotiated meanings in the multimodal graphic novel by using traditional literacy strategies including inferencing, hypothesizing, narrating, and verbalizing to make personal connections with the text. Making visual inferences to construct meaning about the

text was the most frequently occurring reading strategy used by the students and is a unique affordance of the multimodal graphic novel. While Ken and Wes used primarily linguistic (but also visual) inferences to negotiate meanings, Sara used emotional inferencing to interpret the text. Although neither Sara nor Ken used hypothesizing strategies to move through the text, Wes made educated guesses as to how certain linguistic and visual elements foretold the narrative he was reading.

All three students narrated the graphic novels in distinct ways; however, they all drew on both the visual and the linguistic in order to make meaning. Wes read the visual images as a primary text against which the linguistic text served to support or contradict his meaning making. Ken read the linguistic text first before confirming his reading with the visual elements on the page. Sara took a rather eclectic approach; sometimes she read the visual text first before turning to the written text, and sometimes she read the linguistic text before she read the visual text. In verbalizing their thoughts, students made personal connections to the content of the graphic novel, which supported their sensemaking. Key findings from our analysis demonstrate the ways in which students used the visual text to interpret emotion and the literacy strategies and reading patterns they used to negotiate meanings between the linguistic and the visual texts to interpret the content of the graphic novel.

The personal connections the students made with the text and the emotion-related inferences the students made when reading the graphic novel have implications for the role of emotive empathy in multimodal social studies education. Connecting with individuals in an informational text, like this graphic novel, through emotions and prior experience helps students to humanize historical figures and to acknowledge varied perspectives and experiences. Seeing the struggle, emotion, and hardship on the faces of soldiers, civilians, and political figures during this period in U.S. history prompted students to connect to people of the time as they learned about one of the nation's most famous speeches. This process garnered what can best be called emotive empathy, or emotional caring, (Chisholm, Shelton, & Sheffield, 2017) in the three students. This emotive empathy, as seen in this study, fits well within the *affective connection to the past* of Endacott and Brooks's (2013) model of historical empathy. The students did attempt to interpret the events of Battle of Gettysburg and the *Gettysburg Address* as depicted in the graphic novel. One could make the argument that the students' lack of content knowledge and their present-minded view of how the individuals of the past would think and feel hindered a fully developed demonstration of historical empathy. However, their emotional engagement with the text, both the visual and textual, helped the students to see these historical figures as something other than abstract constructs of the past. The emotional connection they made with the scenes in the graphic novel shaped how these students saw the individuals as people who experienced loss, anger, sadness, and anxiety. Having students recognize historical figures as

36

real, and fallible, people can only encourage them to have a more nuanced understanding of the past.

It should be noted that in a few instances the visuals led to misinterpretations (e.g., misreading the uniforms for Confederate and Union soldiers). Reading the visual and neglecting to negotiate with the linguistic and treating the illustration as authority on meaning are potential limitations when utilizing graphic novels. However, misinterpretations also provide an opportunity for students to engage in critical source analysis. The students' misreading when compared with other interpretations of the event, (i.e. primary source documents, textbooks, film, trade books, and journal articles) allows for depth and breadth in terms of both perspective taking and a holistic understanding. It is imperative to provide students with the opportunity to interact with a variety of perspectives in order for them to become critical consumers of information, both in the social studies and beyond. As with other robust curricular approaches, we suggest that in social studies instruction, graphic novels be employed intentionally as part of a holistic text set, which leverage the modal affordances and perspectives offered in varied text types to teach targeted content in the curriculum. Our suggestion to use graphic novels in concert with other source materials is not indicative of a deficit perspective of the graphic novelgenre.

Rather, it is a realization of both the benefits and limitations of using any singular source in the social studies. Much like film, graphic novels can stand alone as a source that allows students to take up an emotional perspective within the study of historical events, which may not be provided to them in traditional primary and secondary sources (Marcus et al., 2010). All three students engaged in historical interpretation processes, crafting their own narrative of Gettysburg, whether through a comic, a poem, or a letter. In each of the three cases, the students synthesized information gleaned from the images, text, and the author's notes. They adopted a perspective about the battle and the address, and inferred emotional responses to the events surrounding their characters.

As students negotiated meanings between the visual and linguistic semiotic systems, they did so differently; some began with a linguistic or visual narration of events that led to an inference, whereas others launched with a linguistic or visual inference and narrated the support for making inferential claims. The different approaches to reading a graphic novel indicated that the visual and the linguistic text can serve as a scaffold for meaning making, allowing the reading to preview the text through one of the semiotic systems.

Given the relative dearth of literature on the process of meaning making with graphic novels, identifying how students navigate the graphic text is an important contribution for research moving forward. For example, students' vacillation between image and language as they transacted with the text reflected a textual mobility not unlike 21st century digital readers who negotiate texts within texts within texts and carve out their own meaning-making channels (Coiro, 2011). Graphic novels and the need to recast meanings across sign systems (Siegel, 2006) offer opportunities for students to use diverse approaches to construct meaning.

Conclusion

The three students in this study approached the reading of the graphic novel through three diverse pathways employing multiple literacy strategies in order to construct meaning. Each student used the visual as well as the linguistic text to infer meaning about the Battle of Gettysburg and the *Gettysburg Address*. The students' inferences, whether about the actions or the emotions, were made by merging information gleaned from the visual and linguistic text, often using one sign system to scaffold the other. The findings from this study indicated that teachers may need to consider how they address the visual components of a text regardless of whether or not it is a graphic novel. While visual components are present in other texts that teachers often take up in classrooms, (such as textbooks, newspaper articles, videos, and digital hypertext), the linguistic often takes precedence in instruction. Visual components may be briefly referenced as an addendum to the linguistic information students receive or, sometimes, not referenced at all. When teachers provide students with instruction that privileges the visual as well as the linguistic, students may be able to use these texts in tandem to inform a deeper understanding of historical events.

Robust literacy learning in the 21st century social studies classroom promotes semiotic awareness--the notion that different sign systems have different meaning potentials (Towndrow, Nelson, & Yusuf, 2015). Thus, teachers and students who approach content in the social studies with semiotic awareness do so with a critical eye toward the limitations and affordances of any one text in supporting historical interpretations. Reading graphic novels such as *Gettysburg* (Butzer, 2009) requires semiotic awareness in order to comprehend the implied meanings between linguistic and visual texts. Further, interpretive work with graphic novels generates new insights into the text--insights potentially unavailable when reading is limited to only one sign system. As social studies teachers and students take up multimodal literacy practices as they read graphic novels, their readings challenge the verbocentricity of typical classrooms by promoting new learning about how to read graphic novels and what such readings might afford.

Ashley L. Shelton is a Clinical Assistant Professor in the department of Elementary, Middle, and Secondary Teacher Education at the University of Louisville. Her research interests focus on literacy practices across disciplines, with a recent exploration of language-brokering practices in a student-led bilingual peer mentoring group. She can be reached at ashley.shelton@louisville.edu.

Caroline C. Sheffield is an associate professor of social studies education and department chair of Elementary, Middle, and Secondary Teacher Education at the University of Louisville. Her research interest centers on multimodal literacy in social studies education. She can be contacted at caroline.sheffield@louisville.edu.

James S. Chisholm is an associate professor of English education in the Department of

Elementary, Middle, and Secondary Teacher Education at the University of Louisville. His current research examines sociocultural and sociopolitical discourses in the teaching of writing, critical literacy and engagement with the arts, and language brokering in a student-led bilingual mentoring program. Email him at james.chisholm@louisville.edu.

References

Allen, J. (2005). *Reading history: A practical guide for improving literacy.* Oxford University Press.

Anderson, R.C. (2013). Role of the reader's schema in comprehension, learning, and memory. In D. E. Alvermann, N. J. Unrau, & R. B. Ruddell (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (6th ed., pp. 476-488). International Reading Association.

Anderson, R.C., & Pearson, P.D. (1984). A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in reading comprehension. In P. D. Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 1, pp. 255- 291). Longman.

Arizpe, E., and Styles, M. (2003) Picturebooks and metaliteracy: how children describe the processes of creation and reception. In: Styles, M. and Bearne, E. (Eds.) *Art, Narrative and Childhood.* (pp. 115-126). Trentham Books.

Ashby, R. & Colón, E. (2014). *The great American documents: Volume 1: 1620-1830.* Hill & Wang

Barton, K.C. & Levstik, L. (2004). *Teaching history for the common good.* Routledge.

Beach, R., & Myers, J. (2001). *Inquiry-based English instruction: Engaging students in life and literature*. Teachers College Press.

Bomer, R. (2011). *Building adolescent literacy in today's English classrooms*. Heinemann. Bosma, K., Rule, A.C., & Krueger, K.S. (2013). Social studies content reading about the American Revolution enhanced with graphic novels. *Social Studies Research & Practice*, *8*(1), 59-76.

Brenna, B. (2013). How graphic novels support reading comprehension strategy development in children. *Literacy*, *47*(2), 88-94.

Brown, A.L., Campione, J.C., & Day, J.D. (1991). Learning to learn: On training students to learn from texts. *Educational Researcher*, *10*(2), 14-21.

Butzer, C. M. (2009). *Gettysburg: The graphic novel.* Collins.

Carter, J.B. (2007). Introduction- carving a niche: Graphic novels in the English Language Arts Classroom. In J.B. Carter (Ed.), *Building literacy connections with graphic novels: Page by page, panel by panel* (pp. 1-25). National Council of Teachers of English.

Charmaz, K. (2014). *Constructing grounded theory*. Sage.

Chisholm, J.S., Shelton, A.L, & Sheffield, C.C. (2017). Mediating emotive empathy with informational text: Three students' think-aloud protocols of *Gettysburg: The*

Graphic Novel. Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 61(3), 289-298.

Christensen, L.L. (2006). Graphic global conflict: Graphic novels in the high school social studies classroom. *The Social Studies, 97*(6), 227-230.

Clabough, J., & Carano, K.T. (2015). Using graphic novels to promote social studies literacy. *Middle Level Learning, 53* (May/June), 10-16.

Coiro, J. (2011). Talking about reading as thinking: Modeling the hidden complexities of online reading comprehension. *Theory Into Practice, 50*(2), 107-115.

Collins, M.A. (2005). *The road to perdition*. DC Comics.

Council for Chief State School Officers. (2010). *Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technology.* http://www.corestandards.org/wp-content/uploads/ELA_Standards.pdf

Cromer, M., & Clark, P. (2007). Getting graphic with the past: Graphic novels and the teaching of history. *Theory & Research in Social Education, 35*(4), 574-591.

Eisner, W. (1978). *A contract with God: A novel*. W.W. Norton & Company.

Eisner, W. (1996). *Graphic storytelling and visual narrative: Principles and practices from the legendary cartoonist.* W.W. Norton & Company.

Endacott, J. & Brooks, S. (2013). An updated theoretical and practical model for promoting historical empathy. *Social Studies Research and Practice, 8*(1), 41-58.

Fetter-Vorm, J. (2012). *Trinity: A graphic novel of the first atomic bomb.* Hill and Wang Publishing.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research.* Aldine.

Gernsbacher, M.A., Hallada, B.M., & Robertson, R.R. (1998). How automatically do readers infer fictional characters' emotional states? *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *2*(3), 271-300.

Gernsbacher, M.A., Goldsmith, H.H., & Robertson, R.R. (1992). Do readers mentally represent characters' emotional states? *Cognition & Emotion*, *6*(2), 89-111.

Jefferson County Public Schools (2016). 2014 -2015 School Profiles. http://www.jefferson. kyschools.us/Departments/AcctResPlan/Profiles/2014_2015

Jewitt, C., & Kress, G. (2003). *Multimodal literacy.* Peter Lang.

Kirkman, R. (2006). *The walking dead: A continuing story of survival horror*. Image Comics.

Kress, G. (2010). *Multimodality: A social semiotic approach to contemporary communication*. Routledge.

Lee, J. & Swan, K. (2013). The C3 framework and the common core state standards. In *Social Studies, Social Studies for the Next Generation: Purposes, Practices, and*

Implication of the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards (pp. xxi-xxvi)*.* National Council for the Social Studies.

Liu, J. (2004). Effects of comic strips on L2 learner' reading comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*(2), 225-243.

Marcus, A.S., Metzger, S.A., Paxton, R.J., & Stoddard, J.D. (2010). T*eaching history with film: Strategies for secondary social studies*. Routledge.

McCloud, S. (1994). *Understanding comics: The invisible art.* 1993. William Morrow.

McVee, M.B., Dunsmore, K., & Gavelek, J.R. (2013). In D. E. Alvermann, N. J. Unrau, & R. B. Ruddell (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (6th ed., pp. 489-524). International Reading Association.

Meyer, C. K., & Jiménez, L. M. (2017). Using every word and image: Framing graphic novel instruction in the expanded four resources model. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 61(2), 153–161.

Millar, M. (2012) *The Kingsman: The secret service.* Icon Comics.

Miller, F. (1999). *300*. Dark Horse Books.

Mishler, E. (1991). Representing discourse: The rhetoric of transcription. *Journal of Narrative and Life History*, *1*(4), 255-280.

Moeller, R.A. (2015). A question of legitimacy: Graphic novel reading as "real" reading. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy, 59*(6), 709-717.

Moore, A. (1986). *The Watchmen.* DC Comics.

National Council for the Social Studies. (2016). A Vision of powerful teaching and learning in the social studies. *Social Education, 80*(3), 180-182.

Ochs, E. (1979). Transcription as theory. In E. Ochs & B. B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *Developmental Pragmatics* (pp. 43-72). Academic Press.

Pantaleo, S. (2011). Meaning-making with colour in multimodal texts: An 11 year-old student's purposeful 'doing'. *Literacy, 46*(3), 147-155.

Plasq. (2020). *Comic life for Mac and Windows* [software]. http://plasq.com/apps/comiclife/macwin/

Pressley, M. (2002). Comprehension strategies instruction: A turn-of-the-century report. In C. C. Block & M. Pressley (Eds.), *Comprehension instruction: Research-based best practices* (pp. 11-27). Guilford.

Pressley, M., & Harris, K.R. (1990). What we really know about strategy instruction. *Educational Leadership*, *48*(1)*,* 31-34.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1978). *The reader, the text, the poem: The transactional theory of the literary work*. Southern Illinois University Press.

Sabeti, S. (2013). 'A different kind of reading': the emergent literacy practices of a school-based graphic novel club. *British Educational Research Journal*, *39*(5), 835-852.

Santa, C., Havens, L., & Valdes, B. (2004). [*Project CRISS*](): *Creating Independence through Student-owned Strategies*. Kendall Hunt.

Satrapi, M. (2004). *Persepolis.* Pantheon Graphic Novels.

Schwarz, G. (2006). Expanding literacies through graphic novels. *English Journal, 95*(6), 58-64.

Serafini, F. (2014). *Reading the visual: An introduction to teaching multimodal literacy.* Teachers College Press.

Shanahan, T., & Shanahan, C. (2008). Teaching disciplinary literacy to adolescents: Rethinking content-area literacy. *Harvard Educational Review*, *78*(1), 40-59.

Sheffield, C.C., Chisholm, J. S. & Howell, P.B. (2015). More than superheroes and villains: Graphic novels and multimodal literacy in social studies education. *Social Education, 79*(3), 147-150.

Siegel, M. (1995). More than words: The generative power of transmediation for learning. *Canadian Journal of Education*, *20*(4), 455-475.

Siegel, M. (2006). Rereading the signs: Multimodal transformations in the field of literacy education. *Language Arts*, *84*(1), 65-77.

Snow, M., & Robbins, M. (2015). How should we remember the Alamo? Critical analyses of four graphic histories. *Social Studies Research & Practice*, *10*(2). 14-27.

Spiegelman, A. (1986). *Maus: A survivor's tale: My father bleeds history*. Pantheon Books.

Spiegelman, A. (1992). *Maus: And Here My Trouble Began*. Pantheon Books.

Thein, A.H., Guise, M., & Sloan, D.L. (2015). Examining emotional rules in the English classroom: A critical discourse analysis of one student's literary response in two academic contexts. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *49*(3), 200-223.

Towndrow, P. A., Nelson, M. E., & Yusuf, W. F. B. M. (2015). Squaring literacy assessment with multimodal design: An analytic case for semiotic awareness. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *45*(4), 327-355.

Van Sledwright, B., Kelly, T., & Meuwissen, K. (2006). Oh, the trouble we've seen: Researching historical thinking and understanding. In K. Barton (Ed.), *Research methods in social studies education: Contemporary issues and perspectives* (pp. 207-233). Information Age.

Yang, G. L. (2008). *American born Chinese*. Square Fish Publishing.

Youngs, S. (2012). Understanding history through the visual images in historical fiction. *Language Arts*, *89*(6), 379-395.

Youngs, S., & Serafini, F. (2011). Comprehension strategies for reading historical fiction picture books. *The Reading Teacher*, *65*(2), 115-124.

Appendix

Gettysburg RAFT Assessment

For this assignment, you will select one of the roles listed in the options below. You will then write about either the Battle of Gettysburg or the *Gettysburg Address* using one of the format options listed below. Be sure to include information that demonstrates YOUR understanding of the events and/or impact of the battle or the meaning of the address.

Role: Select one of the roles listed below.

    _____ Union soldier

    _____ Confederate soldier

    _____ Gettysburg resident

    _____ Member of Abraham Lincoln's staff

Audience: Someone in a different state after the *Gettysburg Address*.

Format: Select one of the formats listed below.

    _____ Letter

    _____ Newspaper article

    _____ Comic strip

    _____ Song or Poem

Topic: Select from the options below.

    _____ Events of the Battle of Gettysburg

    _____ Impact of the battle on the citizens of the town

    _____ Message of the *Gettysburg Address*

Into the Wilderness with Lewis and Clark: An Appalachian Enrichment Summer Camp

Ronald V. Morris[a] and Denise Shockley[b]

[a]Ball State University; [b]Gallia-Vinton Educational Service Center

Abstract

This article describes a social studies summer enrichment camp for rising seventh graders focused on the Lewis and Clark Expedition and the Corps of Discovery. The summer camp, which took place in southeastern Ohio, attempted to ameliorate the effects of rural poverty in Appalachian communities. Using a *funds of knowledge* approach (Cruz, Selby, & Durham, 2018) the authors examined the question: how did an Appalachian community create a four day summer enrichment experience for students entering seventh grade by identifying the best practice for enrichment camps in rural areas experiencing poverty? The authors employed open and axial coding to analyze the data using constant comparison and grounded theory (Warner, 2015; Martin, 2011) and triangulated the data using the reflections found in teacher and student journals to ascertain sub-assertions, assertions, and trends. Teachers' and students' responses about their history camp experience are reported in the Findings of this article and implications for future programming are provided.

Key Words: Appalachia, enrichment, rural poverty, summer camp

Teachers, community members, and a consultant gathered to create a one-week summer enrichment camp based on the Lewis and Clark trip with the Corps of Discovery for forty-seven sixth grade students. The teachers created a series of classes to fill four days on the theme, and they linked students to community volunteers with wilderness skills. The enrichment option enhanced the social studies knowledge, skills, values, and dispositions of middle school students at a summer camp in southeastern Ohio. To combat the limited perspectives and experiences of the region, teachers and community members endeavored to create enriching experiences that would help students to understand more about the events they read about in textbooks. Students living with poverty in rural areas interact with social studies topics in ways that are both relevant and significant to them locally and to educators nationally. These direct experiences seek to ameliorate some of the effect of rural poverty in helping students to learn about people and places in American history. In this article the authors examine the question: how did an Appalachian community create a weeklong summer enrichment experience for students entering seventh grade by identifying the best practice for enrichment camps in rural areas experiencing poverty?

Relevant to this study the rural community has been theorized with a funds of

knowledge approach. Funds of knowledge provides a theoretical framework for this study of community and place research (Cruz, Selby, & Durham, 2018; Johnson, Baker, & Bruer, 2007). Rural traditions provide an innovation practice from farm based creative problem solving to other situations in agriculturally based communities (Corbett, 2013). The funds of knowledge approach includes a deep knowledge of natural environment (Borgerding, 2017; White, 2015; Keis, 2006).

Context

Rural Poverty

One major factor that impacts the population is the shadow of rural poverty. Rural poverty is present in epidemic proportions in many Appalachian communities. Panos (2017) articulates that White-majority, rural, Midwestern elementary classrooms also contain many students with very limited means. These students live with poverty and hunger but are hidden in plain view since they are not clustered in large urban areas. The shadow of poverty comes at a cost to education and denies students the skills they need for the future. Tine (2014) compared four variables of high and low income and rural and urban locations. Both the low-income groups had lowed visual and spatial working memory abilities; however, while urban poverty produce symmetrical visual and spatial working memory deficits, rural poverty produced asymmetrical visual and spatial work memory deficits resulting in more extreme visuospatial working memory deficits than verbal working memory deficits. Different kinds of poverty produced different working memory skills. Poverty also masks the abilities of the population to perform at their greatest potential. Rural learners are under identified for opportunities in gifted and talented programs, and because of this they may find themselves in an asynchronous achievement commensurate with their abilities (Azano, Callahan, Brodersen, & Caughey, 2017). Low income students are invisible if not tabulated by free and reduced lunch metrics. Rural poverty also limits opportunities when communities with limited tax revenues do not have budgets that provide enrichment opportunities. Some rural communities are known as areas were a disproportional number of impoverished or near impoverished people cluster because of mobile poverty (Foulkes & Newbold, 2008). The poor migrate to these areas, therefore reinforcing concentrations of destitute people. The conditions for creating poverty destinations transform stable communities to transient zones. With greater numbers of students in want, social and educational services have a difficult time in meeting community needs.

Culture and Curriculum

Much has been written about the Appalachian region. The students who live in Appalachia find multiple advantages in accentuating their mountain homes. From the middle of the twentieth century forward youth have documented their community through a

variety of formats. Rural youth create media documentaries about their community (Pyles, 2016). Most of these projects are celebratory in nature reflecting local history, people, and culture. Appalachian adolescents in high school English positioned themselves and their communities for political and social purposes (Slocum, 2014). Moreover, a sustained local culture curriculum helps provide roots for the students. Students learn about topics that are meaningful and connect them to pedagogical strategies that prepare them for future life as a citizen. However, there are also obstacles that impede their future progress. For example, these students encounter difficulty with both assimilation and acceptance in higher education due to stigmatizing rural dialects that evoke prejudice and stereotypes (Dunstan & Jaeger, 2016). Just getting to higher education is not enough to get them to matriculate. However, overcoming the obstacles of Appalachia is more than just an accent.

Enrichment

Social studies enrichment occurs in a variety of formats to help students develop additional knowledge, skills, values, and dispositions. Social studies enrichment occurs when the traditional school day does not provide enough opportunity for civic learning. In a rural, high poverty, elementary location teachers worked to overcome discrimination based on gender, immigration, or race (San Antonio, 2018). Social studies enrichment may occur over the summer or through after school extra-curricular programs. These opportunities may provide experiences for students they could not receive in the regular classroom. These opportunities might also include travel as a broadening experience.

In addition, students benefited from travel to encounter places they had only imagined from print and video. Students may have out-of-school learning experiences that provide depth and enrichment through field trip, reenactment, field experiences, and sharing information (Morris, 2008). Students involved in a study abroad program learned at architectural sites, works of art, and historic sites. Broadening experiences come from a variety of places including travel that encourages students to broaden their perspectives. These experiences help students develop new interests, talents, and perspectives. As a result of the program the students learned more about global citizenship education (Newstreet & Rackard, 2018). Students gather perspectives developed by engaging with global issues and exploring ideas of citizenship with a world view. Students learned to value a global society that enriched their comprehension through multiple disciplines. Students learning a global perspective also helps them look at human rights.

As part of an enriching curriculum students explore cultural sensitivity. They learn to be more understanding and culturally aware. They also learn from an interdisciplinary social justice curriculum that values human rights and develops a culture of understanding (Stromsland, Lott- Jones, & Sok, 2016). Students have multiple experiences with people and places through art, community, culture, dance, economics, food and food preparation, geography, history, and literature. They become effective participants in solving ethical, personal, and social problems in a democratic society. Students learn to live in multi-

cultural environments where they become cooperative and independent problem solvers in a complex world (Helms & Ankenbauer, 2009). The multicultural environment provided another kind of enrichment for the students. From this, they learned about different places and the culture connected with the people who lived in that place. This helped them cultivate a research strategy by formulating questions about events, people, and processes to create authenticity and depths in their curriculum (Virtue, Bucahanan, Vogler, 2012). Students examined people in context with place. They also learned about people in their culture. From creating their own questions and determining their own research strategy, students become autonomous learners.

It is necessary to learn to be autodidactic learners in creating their own inquiry questions and strategies. Student inquiry projects reflect their interests in topics to become more elaborate and attract publicity. Students engage in out-of-school social studies experiences to develop understanding while they interpret people from a variety of social classes engaged in seasonal activities (Morris, 2008). They encounter social studies enrichment by working with historical content at a living history museum. Working with a peer group and mentors placed the out-of- school-time learning of social studies within a community of learners. Through an extra- curricular activity, students collect, preserve, and disseminate personal stories from the community in their archive (Abbott & Grayson, 2011). Students polish their interview skills to construct personal narratives, but they also locate and interpret documents. The collaboration preserves the stories of local citizens through the construction of their archive. Students enrich their social studies experiences through out-of-school-time learning activities.

Enrichment in this case is relevant in that the students develop perspectives they would not have had without an extra-curricular day camp event. Problem solving day to day and civic issues in the context of the group and their community remained important. Student learning by themselves, with others, and with mentors occurred in the extra-curricular format.

Procedure

Lewis and Clark Camp is an enrichment and youth development opportunity funded through Twenty-first Century Community Learning Center (CCLC) funding. Five of the seven schools have Twenty-First Century Community Learning Center grants, and the two middle schools that did not have afterschool programs were funded at the camp by the Educational Service Center general funds to foster enrichment and youth development locally. The Lewis and Clark camp could be a springboard for future projects that could be researched, developed, and assembled during the Twenty-First Century Community Learning Center programs after school time. During afterschool time in the regular school year, students could explore Lewis and Clark through opportunities to write and direct drama regarding the journey of the Corps, cook meals similar to those the Corps members

ate, assemble historic clothing representative of the time periods, or skin an animal during hunting season.

The camp coordinators prepared for the event by asking for teacher volunteers and inviting community members with outdoor skills to work with them. The sixteen member staff (half male and half female) identified themselves as Caucasian with 18.4 years of teaching experience. Seven teachers had a bachelor's degree, eight teachers had a master degree or more, and one member of the staff was a college student. Six of the leaders were pre-1800 re-enactors. They combined their skills and knowledge to collaborate as an instructional staff for a week during their summer vacation. This commitment to ameliorating the effect of poverty in their community is a valiant experiment in educational capacity and development.

The camp coordinators had each school in the three counties they serve send eight students each. Forty-five of the students from schools in three counties identified themselves as Caucasian and two identified themselves as biracial. The students arrived at the site by bus, and each morning there was an introduction to the camp before starting for one half hour. There was lunch in the middle of the day and each afternoon prior to closing camp there was a debriefing and journaling for fifteen minutes prior to departing. This provided a constant framework that provided stability for the students in the camp, and once the stable armature was created then the individual classes provided excitement and variability each day.

The camp directors created a schedule showing the classes and how their staff would help with each class. Students formed groups of about a dozen people and went to a different station for thirty minutes each. On the first day they learned about skins and skulls, made journals, engaged in plant identification, drilled in archery, and practiced land navigation. On the second day students learned to start a fire, demonstrated trapping, discussed fur trade with sample skins, engaged in tomahawk throwing, and made a possible bag. On the third day the students identified trees, made pottery, recognized medicinal plants, finished their possible bag and worked on a drop spindle, and spent more time throwing tomahawks. On the last day students finished their pottery, learned to slack line, practiced archery, and worked with a drop spindle.

Findings

Students (s) and teachers (t) created daily journals that were anonymous and wrote public reflections at the end of the experience. Open and axial coding was used to analyze the data using constant comparison and grounded theory (Warner, 2015; Martin, 2011). The data were triangulated between the four sources (Maguth, 2012). The sub-assertions from the teachers resulted in personal development, working together, and friendships. The assertions from the students resulted in xenophobia, risk taking, and friendship (Malloy, Tracy, Scales, Menickelli, & Scales, 2020). This resulted in themes of social studies knowledge being discussed as content, skills, values, and dispositions (Aktan, 2016).

Discrepant cases confounded the trends and are reported as interesting point to possibly explore in the future with additional programming (Waite, 2011).

Students said that they learned content knowledge from the experience, and multiple students recounted facts and information they learned during the camp. This is not surprising because of the emphasis placed on content knowledge by secondary teachers (Maguth & Yang, 2019). One student observed that, "I learned about the types of things they trade" (s-45). The information about trade was an important economic concept and a primary purpose of Lewis and Clark being sent west to meet with the Indians. Teachers recognize that they impart a lot of content information to their students. A teacher confirmed the tide of content knowledge as he or she said, "All of the presenters [were] very very [sic] knowledgeable and provided the students with a lot of information" (t-5). The definition of a good instructor was to impart huge doses of information to students. Another way to measure the experience was through the amount of experiences that resulted in skills attainment (Brugar & Whitlock, 2018). One student commented about the skills they learned, "You can survive even if you have no shelter in the woods, and you can make medicine from things in the woods" (s-13). The student was impressed by the skills that could keep a person alive on the frontier. This was also important for teachers who recognized skills to be important but noticed that the emphasis on skills was equated to amusement not knowledge. A teacher confirmed this when he or she said, "Students seemed to enjoy each activity. Archery, tomahawk throwing, and plant identification were what I heard students discussing the most" (t-4). It is significant that students continued to talk about these activities throughout the week. Students mentioned a value that they took away from the Lewis and Clark camp that shaped their dispositions (Celikkaya & Filoglu, 2014; Misco & Shiveley, 2010). Furthermore, a student learned about the values that made the Corps of Discovery successful including, "That it took teamwork to do it" (s-41). The Corps of Discovery could not just say that they valued cooperation, they must live it for the duration of the trip. It tells citizens today what shrewd judges of character Lewis and Clark were to select men who would work well together for the entire trip. Teachers reported about students when they said, "Many realized that there was more to life than that provided by cell phones" (t-3). Teachers expressed their values and dispositions about the experience as a learning endeavor and how their students could also learn as a group. The students and teachers concurred when they observed that the camp helped them to learn content knowledge, skills, values, and dispositions.

Figure 1 shows the themes of content, skills, values, and dispositions gathered from both teacher sub assertions and student assertions. These sub assertions and assertions were triangulated to illustrate the themes. These themes emerged from student and teacher daily journals and student and teacher concluding reflections.

Teacher Thoughts

Smith (2016) described how learning history also helps elementary and middle school students as they develop both personally and socially. Teachers believed that this experience created personal development. They defined this through the idea of developing character.

> Students involved in the camp were developing skills that had the additional benefit of honing their character. Perseverance, the reward of challenging oneself with something new, risking failure, enjoying success, meeting and interacting with diverse people, sharing a common goal; all of these are experiences that are essential in personal development. The camp helped students in their journey to become stronger people" (Emily).

Personal development occurred when students encountered new information situations.

Figure 1.
Theme
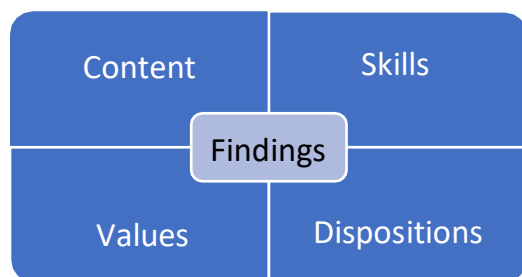
Berson and Berson (2019) describe cooperation as collaboration in working with the school and the community. The teachers recognized that one of the most challenging parts of the experience was working with other people. "This camp took a historical event and used the event to get kids outside learning and working together. Students learned to problem solve and work with people they didn't know which is sometimes hard to achieve in a classroom setting" (Mike). Even though the students were from the same ethnic, social, and economic groups just being geographically apart made them outsiders.

Uztemur, Dinc, and Acun (2019) found that students developed friendships when they engaged in historical activities and that spilled into other positive academic relationships and behaviors. The teachers believed that the students changed from seeing their peers as others to seeing them as associates. "It was wonderful to see how well the students from all over southeastern Ohio cooperated and enjoyed being in groups together" (Tracey). Another teacher expressed the same sentiment in this phraseology, "They [students] also got to mingle and make new friends from other schools" (Mike). The teachers believed the students had transitioned from associates into developing friendships through the experience. Teachers believed that students overcame the sense of other and

succeeded in personal development. Finally, the teachers accepted that through this experience students identified personal development, working with other people, and developed friendships.

Figure 2 displays the sub-assertions developed from teacher daily journals and concluding reflections. The figure illustrates the sub assertions of student personal development, working with other people and developing friendships. These sub-assertions inform the student data in the assertions.

Student Comments

Student comments were more forceful than the teacher comments and typically for the age focused on relationships. The student comments covered a spectrum from xenophobic to risk-taking to friendship, and the most extreme comments focused on students from geographically dispersed locations. "I learned that some people from other schools aren't as bad as we think they are" (Nickalas). The student equated otherness with difference, as alien, or dangerous. Fortunately, the student seems to have overcome this initial xenophobia. McCorkle (2018) determined that angst and fear based situations were not good for any students and promoting acceptance was important.

Figure 2.
Teacher Beliefs
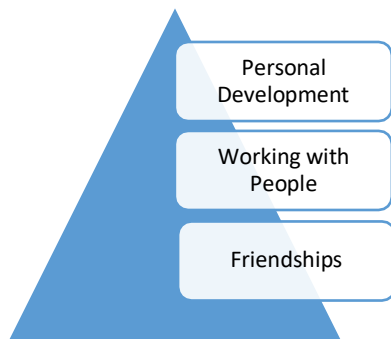
The learner who takes an active role in their education incurs some element of risk-taking in the process. Karademir and Akgul (2019) found that students who think of themselves as successful in social studies then take more academic risks in that area. Students in the camp identified this risk-taking aspect when they described their experiences. "This camp was important for my future because it has taught how not to be afraid to try new things." (Cody). For the students becoming open to try new things was a positive and pleasant experience.

In addition to new experiences the students found pleasure at meeting new people

and developing friendships (Cepni & Öner, 2015). "I was able to make new friendships. Learning new things and learning how to work with others is a part of life" (Jordan). Another student echoed the same sentiment when he said, "I learned that I don't always have to have a set friend group. On the first day I had my friend group, but it changed after I met people. As the week went on my friends got bigger. At the end of the week I was friends with a lot of different people. I'm still friends with them today" (Caleb). The students saw this experience as an important way to make new friendships and that this type of interaction might have future application to their lives. Moving on a continuum from fear to openness, the students saw the value of the experience as encountering others. Students will encounter new experiences, places, and people for the rest of their lives; moreover, the experience of overcoming apprehension of things foreign or new is an important skill.

Figure 3 illustrates the assertions derived from the student comments found in the daily journals and the end of the experience reflections. The assertions describe the xenophobia, risk taking, and friendship of the camp. The assertions from the sub assertions supported the themes.

Discrepant Cases: Pitfalls and Solutions

Discrepant cases are the interesting aberrations of working with a population. While most responses fit neatly into one category or another these are the one or two people who dissent, want something different or go a different direction. These discrepant cases were not looked for in the research question or anticipated in the literature review, but these discrepant cases are included to see that outliers provided responses that furnish important questions for future programing. The five serendipitous discrepant cases point to anachronistic, drama, duration, inquiry, or multiple perspectives (see Figure 4).

Figure 3.
Student Beliefs

There was little student or teacher indication that social studies inquiry took place, and it would seem as if the activities would naturally encourage question formation. Obviously, the staff placed the Lewis and Clark trip in a disciplinary context. There was

one passing reference in an evaluation to using the journals of Lewis and Clark by a teacher, but no indication that students used the journals to discover new information. There were no mentions of students sharing information or taking action in the community which would lead the staff to believe that an Inquiry Arc as described in the NCSS (2013) C3 Framework had not been an important part of the experience for the camp. However, these oversights could be easily remedied in the future Lewis and Clark camps with minimal restructuring such as recording questions to investigate in the journal or creating a project to share information with the greater community after the camp about what the students learned. Students could be given passages of the Lewis and Clark journals to act out or to compare with other passages from journals from other explorers.

Figure 4.
Discrepant Cases
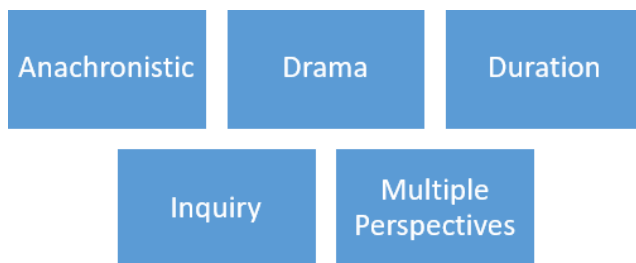
Furthermore, drama may hold the key to the next iteration of the camp. As the camp moves from explanation to investigation, staff and students could co-construct a dramatic adventure of being part of the camp as it prepares to move down the river. One teacher commented that they could, "Reenact some of the moments or events as described in the journals; [in addition to] skits such as portaging and when the group encountered the bear" (t-6). More of the staff could adopt historical clothing and role-play a persona at a traders' camp where Lewis and Clark stop and rest before returning to St. Louis. The students and staff play the role of traders who swap stories and skills of life on the frontier with the staff and other students who are part of the Corps of Discovery. Across four days they must find out how America has changed while they were gone and what the explorers have learned from their journey.

Some students wanted anachronistic experiences added to the camp such as football or zip lining. Students said that they wanted to "add football" (s-34) to the experience or "put in fishing, canoeing, and zip lining" (s-24). Less anathema to the purist but still a stretch for most of the trip would be including "learning to kayak" (s-19). While all of these are fun adventures for pre-teens these would distract from the authenticity of the experience recreated by the Corps of Discovery. If games were to be introduced it should be a Native American game that Lewis and Clark witnessed such as lacrosse, games they brought with them such as, quoits orprisoner's base, and if boating were to be introduced it should be canoeing since the men spent more time in canoes than kayaking. Furthermore, the anachronism of an aluminum canoe is not accurate to the time or place. Does the experience

of canoeing overcome the inaccuracy of what the students are taught by using modern materials? Does the inaccuracy make the experience less real for the students? Does the experience itself give more value that just hearing that Lewis and Clark canoed? Staff members need to carefully consider how they can best help their students reconstruct the world of Lewis and Clark and how that can be best interpreted.

Including multiple perspectives in the exploration of the time period was introduced when a teacher suggested adding, "some American Indian presenters" (t-6). Including Native people next year is a very sound idea that would greatly enhance this experience. Adding the perspective of people who were not completely enchanted by their new neighbors from down river could help the students view events differently. The arrival of the United States on their doorstep did not have universal benefits for Native peoples even if some of them benefited in the short run with enhanced trade opportunities. Perhaps a two-day rotation of Lewis and Clark from the perspective of the Corps of Discovery one day followed by the perspective of the tribes they met the following day would be interesting for both the students and the teachers.

Many of the students enjoy the experience so much that they called for it to be both a "longer camp and overnight" (s-44), but the additional cost for feeding the students two more meals per day would not significantly enhance the academic or social/emotional outcomes of the experience. A second meal could be provided on the last evening as a sendoff celebration with "music [and] dancing from that time period" (t-3) as the traders and the Corps of Discovery get ready to depart. Another option would be to turn the last evening into a community showcase where students display and discuss what they have learned from the experience and why it is important for society in the twenty-first century. Perhaps it should just be noted that in the minds of the students the program was a success, and they wanted more.

Conclusion

In the context of Appalachian regionalism, summer enrichment camps break down isolation and localism. Students meet new people from differing communities to find them to be similar and accessible. Meeting and working with new people was an important skill that adolescents enjoyed experiencing. This important skill has future implications as they leave their mountain homes for short or long durations. The abolition of the idea of stranger as enemy is important for future engagement in civil society.

In the context of rural poverty seeking and finding food security and getting another meal is an important part of the Appalachian experience. Rural poverty depressed the ability to get experiences working with others or to experience new content. The out-of-school time program confounded rural poverty for a few days one summer where students could learn new material, work with peers, and experience the environment. The summer camp format allowed students to have experiences that elevated their interests and attracted their attention

for new people, places, and events. The community is fortunate that services are available to meet the educational needs of students in counteracting the effects of rural poverty.

Rural poverty limited educational opportunities by the separation of distance and especially time between spaces. Social studies enrichment allows students to encounter a larger world than they can explore during the academic year. Social studies summer provides for additional out-of-school time beyond the school day to enrich the experiences of the student.

Appalachian social studies enrichment provided a pleasant summer space to learn content. The weeklong enrichment experience ameliorated some of the effects of rural poverty as students learned additional knowledge, skills, values, and dispositions.

Ronald Vaughan Morris, Ph.D., is a professor in the History Department at Ball State University where he researches creative elementary social studies education. RVMorris@BSU.edu 765-285-8720.

Denise Shockley, Ph.D., is the Superintendent at the Gallia-Vinton Educational Service Center in Rio Grande, Ohio where she researches professional development. dshockley@galliavintonesc.org 740-245-0593.

References

Abbott, L. & Grayson, R. S. (2011). Community engagement in local history: A report on the Hemel at war project. *Teaching History*, (145), 4-12.

Aktan, S. (2016). How can I describe social studies curriculum in the first three years of primary school? A case study. *Journal of Social Studies Education Research, 7*(1), 41-72.

Azano, A. P., Callahan, C. M., Brodersen, A. V. & Caughey, M. (2017). Responding to the challenges of gifted education in rural communities. *Global Education Review, 4*(1), 62- 77.

Borgerding, L. A. (2017). High school biology evolution learning experiences in a rural context: A case of and for cultural border crossing. *Cultural Studies of Science Education, 12*(1), 53-79.

Brugar, K. A. & Whitlock, A. M. (2018). Social studies skills or something else? An analysis of how the "Essential Social Studies Skills and Strategies" reflects social studies instruction. *Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas, 9*(3), 111-117.

Celikkaya, T. & Filoglu, S. (2014). Attitudes of social studies teachers toward value and values education. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice, 14(*4), 1551-1556.

Cepni, O. & Öner, S. T. (2015). The opinions and self-assessments of the 7th grade students regarding the jigsaw I technique among the cooperative learning practices in the social studies course. *Journal of Curriculum and Teaching, 4*(2),

22-34.

Corbett, M. (2013). Improvisation as a curricular metaphor: Imaging education for a rural creative class. *Journal of Research in Rural Education, 28*(10), 1-11.

Cruz, A. R., Selby, S. T., & Durham, W. H. (2018). Place-Based Education for environmental behavior: A 'Funds of Knowledge' and social capital approach. *Environmental Education Research, 24*(5), 627-647.

Dunstan, S. B. & Jaeger, A. J. (2016). The role of language in interactions with others on campus for rural Appalachian college students. *Journal of College Student Development, 57*(1), 47-64.

Foulkes, M & Newbold, K. B. (2008). Poverty catchments: Migration, residential mobility, and population turnover in impoverished rural Illinois communities. *Rural Sociology, 73*(3)*,* 440-462.

Helms, R. G. & Ankenbauer, M. (2009). People, places, and environments: Social studies and Spanish cultural enrichment. *Social Studies and the Young Learner, 22*(1), 4-7.

Johnson, A. S., Baker, A., & Bruer, L. (2007). Interdependence, garbage dumping, and feral dogs: Exploring three lifeworld resource of young children in a rural school. *Early Childhood Education Journal, 34*(6), 371-377.

Karademir, C. A. & Akgul, A. (2019). Students' social studies-oriented academic risk-taking behaviours and autonomous learning skills. Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences, 14(1), 56-68.

Keis, R. (2006). From principle to practice: Using children's literature to promote dialogue and facilitate the "Coming to Voice" in a rural Latino community. *Multicultural Perspective, 8*(1), 13-19.

Maguth, B. M. (2012). Investigating student use of technology for engage citizenship in a global age. *Education Sciences, 2*, 57-76.

Maguth, B. M. & Yang, H. (2019). The United Nations sustainable development goals as a global content framework? *Journal of International Social Studies, 9*(1), 3-28.

Malloy, J. A., Tracy, K. N., Scales, R. Q., Menickelli, K., & Scales, W. D. (2020). It's not about being right: Developing argument through debate. *Journal of Literacy Research, 52*(1), 79-100.

Martin, L. A. (2011). Middle school students' views on the United States Pledge of Allegiance. *Journal of Social Studies Research, 35*(2), 245-258.

McCorkle, W. (2018). The rationale and strategies for undermining Xenophobia in the Classroom. *Social Studies, 109*(3), 151-166.

Misco, T. & Shiveley, J. (2010). Seeing the forest through the trees: Some renewed thinking on disposition specific to social studies education. *Social Studies, 101*(3), 121-126.

Morris, R. V. (2008A). The Clio Club: An extracurricular model for elementary social studies enrichment. *International Journal of Social Education, 23*(2), 103-112.

Morris, R. V. (2008B). Extra-curricular social studies in an open air history museum. *International Journal of Social Education, 23*(2), 131-148.

National Council for the Social Studies (2013). *The college, career, and civic life (C3) framework for social studies state standards: Guidance for enhancing the rigor of K-12 civics, economics, geography, and history.* Author.

Newstreet, C. & Rackard, J. (2018). High school study abroad: What do world history students really learn? *Journal of International Social Studies, 8*(2), 55-77.

Panos, A. (2017). Towards translingual and transcultural practice: Explorations in a white- majority, rural, midwestern elementary classroom. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 38*(5), 422-437.

Pyles, D. G. (2016). Rural media literacy: Youth documentary videomaking as a rural literacy practice. *Journal of Research in Rural Education, 31*(7), 1-15.

San Antonio, D. M. (2018). Collaborative action research to implement social-emotional learning in a rural elementary school: Helping students become "little kids with big words." *Canadian Journal of Action Research, 19*(2), 26-47.

Slocum, A. (2014). Look what they said about us: Social positioning work of adolescent Appalachians in English class. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique, 13*(3), 191-209.

Smith, J. (2016). What remains of history? Historical epistemology and historical understanding in Scotland's "Curriculum for Excellence". *Curriculum Journal, 27*(4), 500-517.

Stromsland, F. C., Lott-Jones, J. & Sok, M. (2016). The power of one: Creating the new culture of upstanders. *Kappa Delta Pi Record, 52*(4), 190-191.

Tine, M. (2014). Working memory differences between children living in rural and urban poverty. *Journal of Cognition and Development, 15*(4), 599-613.

Uztemur, S., Dinc, E., & Acun, I. (2019). Teaching social studies in historic places and museums: An activity based action research. *International Journal of Research in Education and Science, 5*(1), 252-271.

Virtue, D. C., Buchanan, A. & Vogler, K. E. (2012). Digging postholes adds depth and authenticity to a shallow curriculum. *Social Studies, 103*(6), 247-251.

Waite, D. (2011). A simple card trick: Teaching qualitative data analysis using a deck of playing cards. *Qualitative Inquiry, 17*(10), 982-985.

Warner, C. K. (2015). A study of state social studies standards for American Indian education. *Multicultural Perspectives, 17*(3), 125-132.

White, S. (2015). Extending the knowledge base for (rural) teacher educators. *Australian and International Journal of Rural Education, 25*(3), 50-61.

Are Public Lands Worth the Public Cost? A Problem-based Inquiry Lesson about an Appalachia Public Issue

Kimberlee Anne Sharp
Morehead State University

Abstract

This article presents the compelling question, *are public lands worth the public cost?* as a problem-based issue suitable for inquiry in a high school social studies course. Specifically, the compelling question concerns the complex issue of federal land ownership and its relationship to local economic opportunity in the rural communities of the Daniel Boone National Forest in eastern Kentucky. The article purports the purpose of social studies education is to develop students' democratic citizenship skills and presents a method for investigating the public lands issue using a problem-based inquiry approach using the C3 Framework.

Key words: public lands, democratic citizenship, problem-based issues, inquiry

On April 25, 2019, U.S. Senator Rand Paul (KY) participated in a public forum at the McCreary County Fiscal Court in Stearns, Kentucky (Kentucky, 2019). The purpose of the forum was to discuss an issue caught in the center of a local and federal debate: can public lands be sold to local economies for private development and job creation? Concerned citizens, U.S. Forest Service representatives, and the McCreary county Judge-Executive discussed with Senator Paul the pros and cons of commercializing a three to five mile stretch of road passing through the Daniel Boone National Forest. To an outsider, the issue may not appear urgent; but contextual factors including the county as being labeled economically distressed (Appalachian Regional Commission [ARC], 2020) and 80% of its land owned by the federal government (U.S. Senator Rand Paul, 2019) renders a compelling question for inquiry and debate in a social studies classroom.

Using the Daniel Boone National Forest (DBNF) in eastern Kentucky as the context, this article proposes the compelling question, *are public lands worth the public cost?* to explore the issue of public land management and its effects on local economies. The communities within and near the DBNF are uniquely sensitive to federal land management decisions because "the region's communities are still in lower economic status than surrounding state populations" and "dependent on natural resources for growth and improved quality of life"(United States Department of Agriculture [USDA], 2004, p. 341). According to the C3 Framework, compelling questions form the basis of an inquiry into an enduring, unresolved issue and should enable students to construct an argument with evidence (National Council for the Social Studies [NCSS], 2013). This article will expound upon this vision by considering the relationship between democratic citizenship and problem-based issues. The article will then summarize essential information about public lands in

general and the DBNF more specifically and will close by presenting a lesson sequence utilizing the Inquiry Arc of the C3 Framework (NCSS, 2013).

Democratic Citizenship and Problem-based Issues

Parker (1996) states "…democratic citizenship education is one of the central aims of public schools generally and the social studies curriculum in particular" (p. 106). What is meant by democratic citizenship education has been long debated by scholars and has resulted in competing conceptions and overlapping purposes. Parker (1996) presents the struggle between the traditionalist and progressive conceptions of democratic citizenship. Traditionalist conceptions of democratic citizenship favor the perpetuation of common values, knowledge, and skills and passive approaches for learning about democratic citizenship (Parker, 1996; Parker & Beck, 2017). Passive citizenship includes learning about the "office of citizen" (Parker, 1996, p. 111) without exploration and reflection, and by participating in rituals such as reciting the Pledge of Allegiance and memorizing founding documents (Parker and Beck, 2017). Westheimer and Kahne (2004) elucidate the traditionalist conception described in Parker (1996) in their typology, the *personally responsible citizen,* which emphasizes character-building, community service, obedience, and patriotism in the guise of democratic citizenship.

The progressive conception of democratic citizenship is grounded in the ideas of John Dewey who argued that civic competencies are "not naturally occurring in humans" and must be developed in public spaces, particularly schools, where children from diverse backgrounds come to learn (Dewey, 1916, as cited in Parker, 1996, p. 115). Unlike traditionalists, Dewey did not support the idea that schools should inculcate in students a common knowledge; instead, he promoted the method of "reflective thought applied to the analysis of social problems" (Stanley, 2010, p. 20). Parker (1996) attributes Dewey's ideas as influential in shaping the issues-centered approaches for teaching social studies, particularly "Fred Newmann's citizen action curriculum" and "Shirley Engle's decision-making model" (p. 112), but also acknowledges a flaw in the participatory and reflective aspects of the progressive conception of democratic citizenship. Particularly, the progressive conception of democratic citizenship does not address the tension between pluralism and assimilation (Parker, 1996; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004).

Emerging from the progressive conception is Westheimer and Kahne's (2004) *justice-oriented citizen* typology. This typology reconciles the deficiency of the progressive conception of democratic citizenship by involving students in the critique of society and its institutions. Specifically, the *justice-oriented citizen* typology calls on students to "seek out and address areas of injustice," "explore root causes and solve" problems, and "question, debate, and change established systems and structures that reproduce patterns of injustice over time" (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004, p. 240). Both Parker's (1996) "advanced" conception of democratic citizenship (p. 113) and Westheimer and Kahne's (2004) *justice-oriented citizen* typology address the void in contemporary social studies instruction by emphasizing a "taking informed action" (Swan, Lee, & Grant, 2018) pedagogical mindset.

Democratic citizenship using the *justice-oriented citizen* typology is how the lesson in this article will explore the compelling question, *"Are public lands worth the public cost?"* The justice-oriented citizen perspective complements the C3 Framework's position that "active and responsible citizens identify and analyze public problems … and influence institutions both large and small" (NCSS, 2013, p. 19). The compelling question is a concern about fairness and applies to students' interests, many of whom may live in or near public lands, and should propel students into a call to action following their inquiry (Swan, Lee, & Grant, 2018; Hess, 2009). Additionally, the compelling question is a controversial policy issue because it addresses an authentic, real-world problem (Hess, 2009) concerning federalism. As students inquire into the compelling question, they should recognize the concept of federalism and the conflict over constitutionally delegated powers to federal, state, and local governments (Nelson, 1996). To help them understand the compelling question conceptually, the question could be rephrased as, should public lands be managed by a centralized power or by state and local governments? Furthermore, *are public lands worth the public cost*? addresses controversial economic decisions pertaining to income distribution, economic freedom, and economic equity (Armento, Rushing, & Cook, 1996). To answer the compelling question, students will inquire into these political and economic aspects by reading and listening to competing viewpoints about public lands and the DBNF specifically in order to formulate their own perspective and call to action about the issue. What follows next is useful information teachers will need to frame the lesson meaningfully for students.

Background Information about Public Lands

What Are Public Lands?

In the United States, public lands are owned by the federal government and comprise nearly one-third of all land in the country (Loomis, 2002). Public lands have a variety of purposes, including national defense, historic and scenic preservation, and natural resource management. Though many Americans might take for granted the presence of U.S. military bases around the country, they comprise 34 million acres of the 673 million acres of land owned by the federal government (Loomis, 2002). Historic and scenic preservation of lands is assigned to the U.S. Department of the Interior and managed by the National Parks Service (NPS). The NPS preserves the United States' natural and cultural resources "for the enjoyment, education, and inspiration for this and future generations" (National Parks Service [NPS], 2020a), and oversees the operations of 419 national land preserves, historical monuments, parks, battlefields, and national recreation areas dispersed among 80 million acres (Loomis, 2002; NPS, 2020a). Annual visitation statistics to national parks underscore their prominence on the American psyche (Heacox, 2001), as illustrated by the top three most visited parks in 2019: the Golden Gate National Recreation Area (15,002,227 visitors), Blue Ridge Parkway (14,976,085 visitors), and Great Smoky Mountains National Park (12,547,743 visitors) (NPS, 2020b).

Less recognizable yet ubiquitous is the National Forest System (NFS) which comprises 193 million acres of all federal lands in the United States, Puerto Rico, and U.S. Virgin Islands (Hoover, 2010; Loomis, 2002; United States Department of Agriculture [USDA], n.d.). It is with

the NFS that this article's compelling question, *are public lands worth the public cost*? is concerned. The NFS was codified by an act of Congress in 1891 during the presidency of Benjamin Harrison to protect and preserve public forestlands and grasslands for public uses such as timber extraction and livestock grazing (Hoover, 2010). Because timber is a scarce natural resource, the federal government regulates its harvesting in national forests to keep up with housing and infrastructure demands and to prevent monopolies from controlling the commodity. In 1905 and during Theordore Roosevelt's administration, the U.S. Forest Service (USFS) was founded and elevated to agency status in the U.S. Department of Agriculture (Hoover, 2010). Within four years of the USFS' founding, the federal government more than doubled its national forest and grassland acquisitions, from 72 million acres in 1905 to 175 million acres in 1909. The Multiple Use-Sustained Yield Act of 1960 broadened the NFS's primary purpose of natural resource preservation and management to also include recreational activities (e.g., hunting, fishing, and hiking) within the forests and grasslands (Hoover, 2010; Loomis, 2002). To ensure the USFS conservation efforts "meet changing demands and societal values of forest resources" (Loomis, 2002, p. 280), the National Forest Management Act of 1976 stipulated that resource management plans be drafted every fifteen years for each national forest and grassland, and be completed in consultation with private industry and public constituency groups (Hoover, 2010; Loomis, 2002).

The Daniel Boone National Forest

The Cumberland National Forest was founded and added to the USFS by an act of Congress in 1937. In 1966, the forest was eponymously renamed the Daniel Boone National Forest (DBNF) in recognition of the frontiersman's exploration and adventurous exploits (USDA, n.d.). The DBNF occupies 709,000 acres across 21 eastern Kentucky counties beginning with Wayne, Whitley, and McCreary in the south to Rowan County in the northeast (Hembram, 2007; USDA, n.d.). Thirty-three percent of the total land in this 21-county region is federally owned with private properties intermingled within the proclamation boundary of the eastern Kentucky region (Hembram, 2007; USDA, n.d.). The DBNF is divided into four ranger districts—Cumberland, Stearns, London, and Redbird—who are responsible for administering public use permits, maintaining forest access roads, and working with state Fish and Wildlife officials in managing natural resources. Known for its rich biodiversity and mountainous wildernesses, the DBNF attracts in-state and out-of-state visitors to the Red River Gorge Geological Area, Cave Run Lake, and Natural Arch Scenic Area among many others (USDA, n.d.).

The DBNF is undoubtedly a prized resource to many who live within its boundaries because of the recreational and natural amenities it provides. The DBNF, however, resides in one of the poorest regions of the United States. Each of the 21 eastern Kentucky counties comprising the DBNF are classified *economically distressed* by the Appalachian Regional Commission (2020) due to their higher-than-national average unemployment and poverty rates and lower-than-national average per capita incomes. Additionally, national forest lands such as the DBNF are susceptible to "encroachment, trespass, and unauthorized use" of the public lands' natural resources in the form of "privately claimed backyards, lawns, flower, and vegetable gardens" and "illegal private road building, timber harvest…" (Stein et al., 2007, p. 18). To make ends meet, many residents of the

DBNF engage in informal economic activities such as "direct subsistence, small scale production and trade, and sub-contracting to semi-clandestine enterprises" (Portes & Haller, 2005, as cited in Hembram, 2007, p. 1). Hembram (2007) found that many people living within the DBNF and its proclamation boundary self-harvest non-timber products for human consumption, especially "plants, fungi, fern, moss, animals, and their parts" (p. 13) and for off-the-books sales within their local communities. The fact that the federally owned and managed DBNF and pervasive poverty coexist in eastern Kentucky forms the crux of the compelling question in this article, *are public lands worth the public cost*?

Applying the Public-Issues Approach with Inquiry

Are public lands worth the public cost? is a problem-based compelling question that can be studied in a high school government/ civics, economics, or contemporary issues course. The question is academically rigorous and provides students an opportunity to explore, construct an argument, and decide on a course of action about public policy (Swan, Grant, & Lee, 2018). In keeping with the C3 Framework (NCSS, 2013), the lesson addresses each of four dimensions of the Inquiry Arc with the following indicators:

Dimension 1, Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries
D1.1.9-12 Explain how a question reflects an enduring issue in the field.
D1.3.9-12 Explain points of agreement and disagreement experts have about interpretations and applications of disciplinary concepts and ideas associated with a supporting question.

Dimension 2, Applying Disciplinary Concepts and Tools
D2.Civ.5.9-12. Evaluate citizens' and institutions' effectiveness in addressing social and political problems at the local, state, tribal, national, and/or international level.
D2.Eco.7.9-12. Use benefits and costs to evaluate the effectiveness of government policies to improve market outcomes.

Dimension 3, Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence
D3.1.9-12. Gather relevant information from multiple sources representing a wide range of views while using the origin, authority, structure, context, and corroborative value of the sources to guide the selection.
D3.4.9-12. Refine claims and counterclaims attending to precision, significance, and knowledge conveyed through the claim while pointing out the strengths and limitations of both.

Dimension 4, Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action
D4.1.9-12 Construct arguments using precise and knowledgeable claims, with evidence from multiple sources, while acknowledging counterclaims and evidentiary weaknesses.
D4.8.9-12 Apply a range of deliberative and democratic strategies and procedures to make decisions and take action in their classrooms, schools, and out-of-school civic contexts.

The lesson's objectives are:

1) Students will analyze primary sources representing diverse points of view about a public issue.
2) Students will engage in thoughtful discussion weighing pros and cons of a public issue to refine their understanding of it.
3) Students will draw their own conclusion about a public issue and compose a written argument using evidence to support their claims.

Staging the Question

To begin the lesson, an anticipatory set will be used to activate prior knowledge about the public lands issue, by showing three different maps of Kentucky on the Smartboard or overhead projector. Figure 1 is a USFS map showing the extent of the DBNF in eastern Kentucky. The teacher will ask the students the following questions: 1) what do you recognize in this map; 2) why do you think some counties are shaded in blue; and 3) what is the purpose of this map? The teacher will ask the students to record each other's ideas and special vocabulary found on this map in their notes: forest ownership, land parcels, and proclamation boundary.

Figure 1.
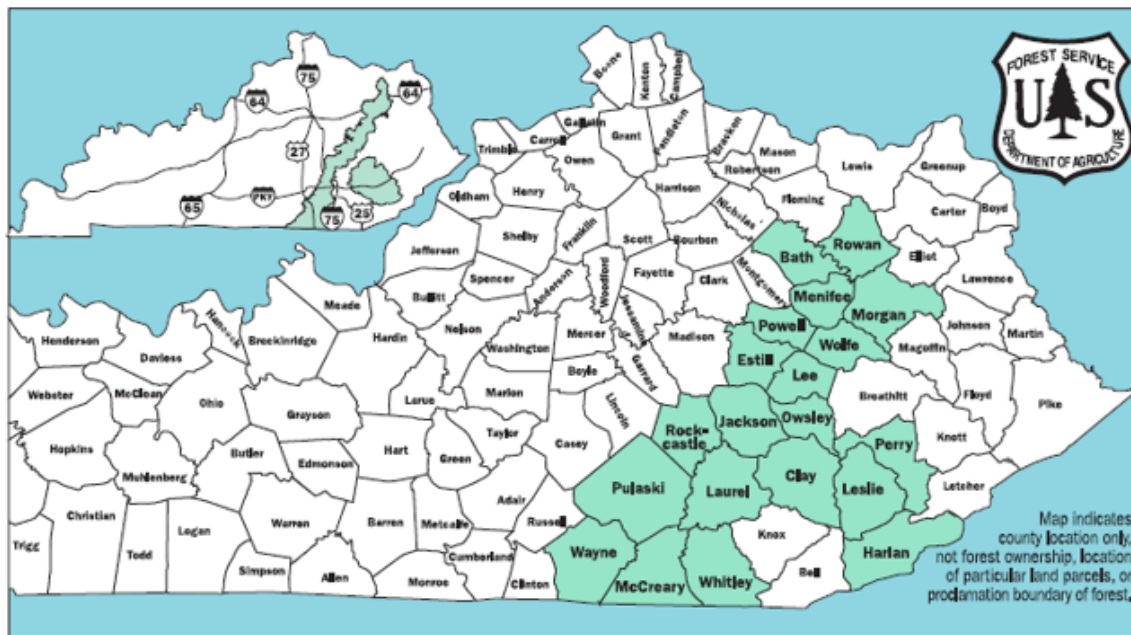
Note. Counties in blue comprise the Daniel Boone National forest (USDA, n.d.).

The teacher will remove the first map and show a USFS overlay map (see Figure 2) depicting the same area. This map shows the 2.1-million-acre proclamation boundary in which privately owned lands (shown in white with black boundary line) are intermingled within the federally owned lands of the DBNF (shown in green). As the examination of this map ensues, the

teacher should ask these questions: 1) how is this map different from the first; 2) what do you think the shaded areas represent; and 3) what do you think is the purpose of this map?
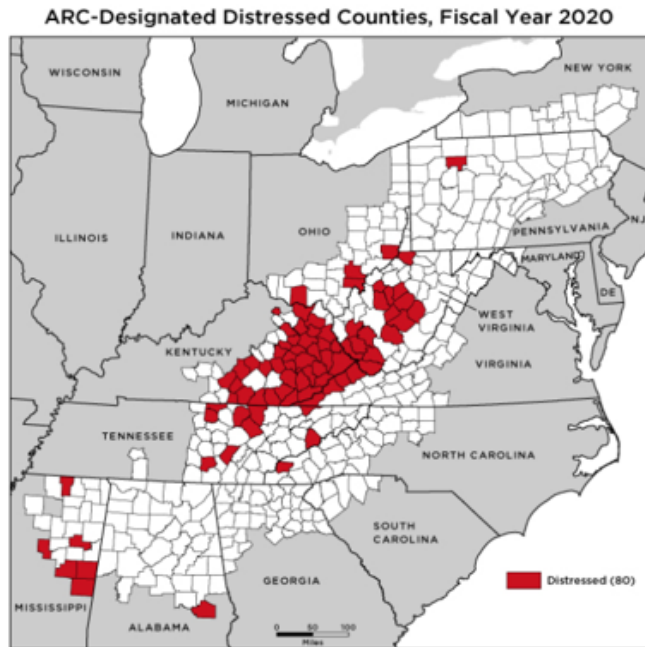
Figure 2.
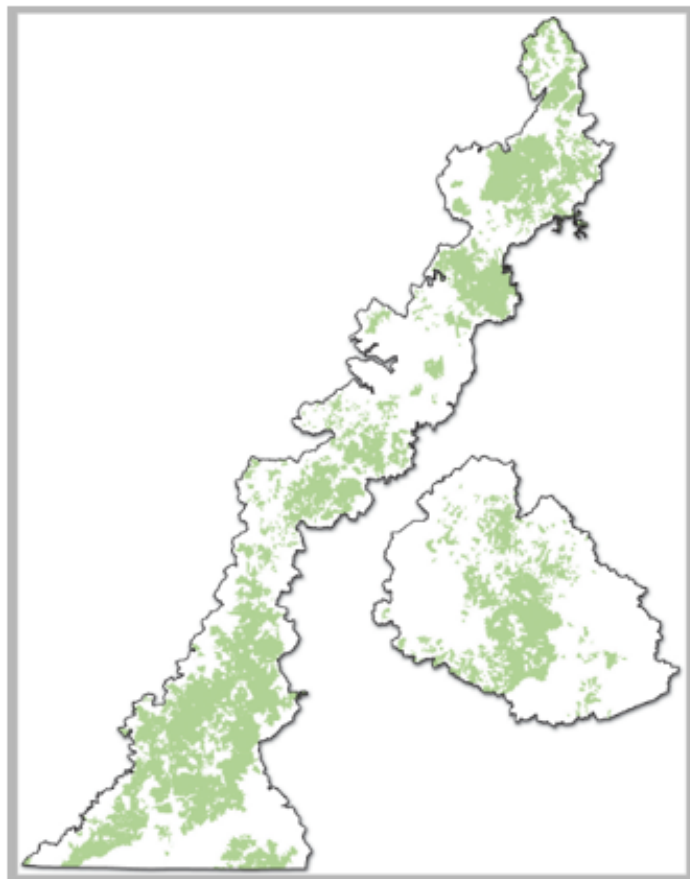
Note: Shaded areas denote approximate DBNF ownership patterns (USDA, n.d.)

The teacher should highlight and define for the students the term, *proclamation boundary*, which is the perimeter boundary around the area (including private lands) identified and authorized by Congress for national forests and grasslands (Stein et al., 2007).

After the students record each other's ideas about the proclamation boundary map in their notes, the teacher will display the ARC (2019) map (see Figure 3) showing Kentucky's "economically distressed" counties. The teacher will ask, 1) what do the red shaded areas represent on this map; 2) how are these areas similar or different from the first map's shaded areas; and 3) what do you think the word, "distressed" in the title of this map means? The teacher will close this segment of the lesson by showing the compelling question (*Are public lands worth the public cost?*) on the Smartboard and proceed with a discussion about public lands and how they differ from privately-owned lands.

Figure 3.

ARC-Designated Distressed Counties, Fiscal Year 2020

Note: Counties shaded in red are classified "economically distressed." (ARC, 2020).

The next segment of the lesson is a graphic organizer (see Figure 4) in which students record facts about DBNF and the USFS using the following websites: https://www.fs.usda.gov/dbnf/ and https://www.fs.usda.gov/about-agency. During this exploratory phase of the lesson, the students should make key observations pertaining to natural resource management (e.g., fish and wildlife, and energy and forest products), human interactions with the environment (e.g., recreation, self-harvesting), and federal land acquisitions (e.g., in Kentucky and nationally). The small group discussion that occurs during the fact-finding session should elicit several questions and be debriefed as a whole class before moving on to the next lesson segment.

Next, the teacher should segue into the economic aspect of the lesson. For this, the students will examine "quality of life" attributes used by the Appalachian Regional Commission's (ARC) demographers to classify groups of people in geographical regions. The teacher will guide students to the ARC (2020) website containing the map and facts about the "economically distressed" counties in eastern Kentucky, especially those of which include the DBNF: https://www.arc.gov/program_areas/MapofARCDesignatedDistressedCountiesFiscal Year2020.asp. Before releasing the students into their fact-finding, the teacher should specify the quality of life attributes used by ARC and demonstrate how to find the information on the website. Specifically, the quality of life attributes students should research include: access to education and training; access to healthcare; poverty, unemployment, and disability rates; access to telecommunication technology; and infrastructure development (e.g., water, sewer, gas, etc.). The students should work together to research and record these facts in their notes. The teacher should

debrief what students learned with the whole class before moving on to the supporting questions and source work phase of the lesson.

Figure 4.

	Daniel Boone National Forest	**U.S. Forest Service**
Year founded		
Mission		
Key Facts / About		
Land Management		
Natural Resources		
Human Impact on Environment		

Supporting Questions

By the time the students have finished the fact-finding phase about the DBNF, USNF, and ARC, they should recognize perplexing issues beginning to emerge, including: public land versus private land; socio-economic disparities within and outside Appalachia; and personal rights versus group rights. By this time, students should also begin to develop a perspective about the compelling question that can either be supported or disputed as further inquiry into the policy issue occurs. During the inquiry, students should begin to see the relationship between political ideology and economic choices as they examine primary sources from various viewpoints. Accordingly, this lesson recommends the following supporting questions about economic fairness, which are adapted from Armento, Rushing, and Cook's (1996) criteria for evaluating economic choices (p. 213):

1) How are economic decisions which affect the DBNF and local economies made and by whom (economic efficiency)?

2) What are the costs and benefits of the economic decisions (income distribution)?

3) Is the system fair (economic equity)?

Evaluating Sources to Develop Claims

For the source work phase of the lesson, the teacher should organize the inquiry into four stations within the classroom through which groups of three to four students will rotate. Each station will contain one or more primary sources—bookmarked on the stations' computers ahead of time—conveying a point of view and which address one or more of the supporting questions about the public lands issue. The students will read together and discuss the primary sources by adhering to civil discourse practices as demonstrated by the teacher. These practices include staying on topic by summarizing key ideas, making relevant comments, asking probing questions, using evidence to support claims, and refraining from personal attacks and irrelevant comments (Hess, 2009). Students will use the matrix graphic organizer (see Appendix A) to record information about the primary sources, and use Cornell notes (see Appendix B) to write personal reflections about what

they read and discussed to shape and refine their individual perspective about the public issue. The teacher should plan two or three days for the stations and allow time for whole-class debriefings in between rotations.

In station one, students will research the first supporting question, *"How are economic decisions which affect the DBNF and local economies made and by whom?"* To begin their research, students will read the press release dated May 2, 2019 from Senator Paul's headquarters in Washington, D.C. https://www.paul.senate.gov/news/icymi-dr-rand-paul%E2%80%99s-field-hearing-provides-mccreary-county-forum-address-concerns-federal-land. After reading the press release together, the students should be able to ascertain the issue and discuss it civilly with each other, and summarize the issue in their own words using their Cornell notes before viewing YouTube video, *"Field Hearing: Costs to the Federal Government from Management of Public Lands* https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=66EKgzjZYvA&feature=youtu.be. The video is a recording of the April 25, 2019 public forum held by Senator Paul in McCreary County, Kentucky. Since the video exceeds one hour, the teacher should watch the video beforehand and document the time for students to scroll to as key participants speak. These participants are: Senator Rand Paul, Deputy County Judge-Executive of McCreary County Nathan Nevels, USFS spokesperson Ken Arney, and community member Olivia Mimmitt. Students should listen carefully to the forum participants' unique comments and positions they advocate. Following the video, the students should civilly discuss and clarify the forum participants' positions as they complete the matrix graphic organizer (see Appendix A), and write how their perspectives might have changed or been refined in their Cornell notes (see Appendix B).

Station two will build on students' understanding of public lands and the federal government's role managing these lands as they continue to research supporting question one, *how are economic decisions which affect the DBNF and local economies made and by whom?* The students will examine two primary source documents: page S1018 of the February 6, 2019 *Congressional Record,* and Senate Bill 47 (2019). The teacher will have the two PDF documents bookmarked on the station's computer/s for easy access. Students should examine page S1018 of the *Congressional Record* first, paying close attention to the names of U.S. senators and their recorded comments about what they think should be contained in the bill. Specifically, the students should search for Senator Paul's comments and the two amendments he proposed that would have affected the local economies in the southern-most vicinity of the DBNF. These amendments are 140, "to give the Secretary of Agriculture the authority to increase access to Lake Cumberland by installing docks, boat slips, and marinas," and 141, "to authorize the Secretary of Agriculture to sell one or more parcels of DBNF land along Highway 27 for the purpose of commercial development" (S. 1018). The students should be able to discuss the amendments civilly and summarize key ideas on their matrix graphic organizer and write how their perspectives might have altered in their Cornell notes.

The second primary source in station two addresses supporting question two, *"What are the costs and benefits of the economic decisions*?" The students will examine the final version of Senate Bill 47, "*To provide for the management of the natural resources of the United States, and for other purposes"* (2019) that was approved by a 92-8 vote in the U.S. Senate on February 12, 2019 (Bird, 2019). Although the bill was passed without Senator Paul's amendments to improve access to Lake Cumberland and expand commercial development within the DBNF, the students should examine the bill for other national forests and familiar national parks (e.g., Great Smoky Mountains, Grand Canyon, etc.) and discuss how these public lands may benefit or hinder economic growth. The students should record these ideas as well as the bill's short title on to their matrix graphic organizer then write their reflections about how the bill has altered or refined their perspective about the public lands issue in their Cornell notes.

Station three addresses supporting question two, *what are the costs and benefits of the economic decisions*, and supporting question three, *is the system fair*? Students will learn how advocacy organizations influence public opinion and policy on specific issues as they consider the costs (i.e., what individuals give up) and benefits (i.e., what individuals gain) of economic decisions. They will wrestle with competing notions of freedom (i.e., are some group rights reduced and others enlarged) and fairness (i.e., are legislative decisions more important than economic opportunity) as they examine the websites of two environmental advocacy organizations that have taken a stand against the sale of public lands for private development: the Sierra Club Bluegrass https://www.sierraclub.org/kentucky /bluegrass/about-us-0 and Kentucky Heartwood http://www.kyheartwood.org/. Students should record the organizations' mission statement and policy stance about the DBNF on to their matrix graphic organizer. Students will find other useful information by clicking on the *About Us*, *Home*, and *Get Involved* buttons, and may also find links to the organizations' blogs, such as this one: http://www.kyheartwood.org/forest-blog/sen-rand-paul-introduces-legislation-to-sell-off-daniel-boone-national-forest-land-calls-urgently-needed. Students should be encouraged to read the blogs and discuss civilly the posted comments with their groupmates. After the students complete the website investigations and discussion, they will write their reflections and how their perspective about the public lands issue has been altered or refined in their Cornell Notes.

Station four addresses all three supporting questions as students read together the primary source document, *Land and Resource Management Plan for the DBNF* (U.S. Department of Agriculture [USDA], 2004). Students should read chapter one of this document first and record key ideas on to their matrix graphic organizer. Specifically, the teacher should guide the students to focus their attention to how public (i.e., governmental) and private groups (i.e., citizens, industry, advocacy) shared in the decisions presented in the plan. The students should also read and record key ideas found in the "Summary of Issues" on pages seven through ten of the document. As students do this, they should discuss civilly any issue that strikes them as fair/ unfair, reasonable/ unreasonable, and determine whose interests are being served by the plan.

The students will proceed to chapter three of the land management plan. This chapter describes the socio-economic profile of the 21-county region of the DBNF in narrative and tabular data sets. The students will analyze DBNF and non-DBNF Kentucky counties' data including population density, per capita incomes, unemployment rates, and industries (e.g., manufacturing, timber-related industries, and tourism). The students should note how the DBNF counties' statistics are similar to and different from non-DBNF Kentucky counties and evaluate whether the statistics present a promising or discouraging economic reality of the region. Following analysis and civil discussion of the data, students will reflect upon and write how their personal perspective about the public lands issue has been altered or refined.

Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action

As the inquiry lesson draws to a close, students should have enough detailed notes and perspective reflections to address the compelling question, *are public lands worth the public cost*? in an argumentative essay. The teacher should conduct a final whole-class debriefing to clear up misunderstandings and to share the perspectives that emerged during the source work. To do this, the teacher may choose to use the Discussion Web Procedure (see Appendix C) (Alvermann, 1991) or other writing graphic organizer to review the students' perspectives and to practice with them how to use evidence to support their claims in their written argumentative essays.

Above all, students should feel a new sense of empowerment and responsibility toward their local communities and be called to action in some form. They should be able to articulate and defend their perspective—whether YES public lands ARE worth the public cost or NO public lands are NOT worth the public cost—by the end of the inquiry. A possible writing prompt to assign the students might be, *Are public lands worth the public cost? Construct an argument that addresses your perspective using evidence to support your claims and by acknowledging competing views.* As an extension activity, the teacher should ask their students to decide upon a course of action that informs others and affects change in their community (Swan, Lee, & Grant, 2018; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). Students should be encouraged to use their burgeoning political voices in constitutionally protected ways, such as by writing letters to newspaper editors and legislators, participating in advocacy organizations and public meetings, and by organizing rallies and demonstrations to inform the public about the issue. These activities, after all, help prepare students for life as democratic citizens, which is the purpose of social studies in our schools (Parker, 1996; Parker & Beck, 2017).

Closing Remarks

In closing, this article presented a problem-based inquiry lesson for teaching the issue of federal land ownership and its impact on local economic opportunity in the rural communities of the Daniel Boone National Forest in eastern Kentucky. As teachers engage their students in inquiries addressing real-world and authentic problems such as this one, they are preparing their students for democratic citizenship, which is the purpose of the social studies (Parker, 1996). High school students are nearing the entry into adulthood and should be encouraged to develop and

defend their own well-reasoned perspective about a real-world problem as thoughtful and informed citizens. Hopefully, after reading this article, social studies teachers and students will have an increased understanding of public lands, particularly the DBNF, and the influence citizens in a democracy can have on shaping policy decisions on a local level.

Dr. Kimberlee Sharp is a Professor of Education and Middle Grades Coordinator at Morehead State University in Kentucky. She is a former classroom teacher having taught high school and middle school social studies in Ohio. At MSU, Dr. Sharp teaches courses in elementary and middle grades social studies methods, classroom management, and literacy in the content areas. Her research areas of interest include pre-service teacher preparation, controversial issues in the social studies, and integrating literacy in the social studies. You may contact Dr. Sharp at k.sharp@moreheadstate.edu.

References

Alvermann, D.E. (1991). The discussion web: A graphic aid for learning across the curriculum. *The Reading Teacher, 45(2),* 92-99.

Appalachian Regional Commission. (2017). *Key findings: Health disparities in Appalachian Kentucky.*https://www.arc.gov/search/index.asp?keywords=percentage%20of%20eastern%20kentuckians%20on%20disability

Appalachian Regional Commission. (2020). *Map of ARC-designated distressed counties, fiscal year 2020.* https://www.arc.gov/program_areas/MapofARCDesignatedDistressedCountiesFiscalYear2020.asp

Armento, B.J., Rushing, F.W., & Cook, W.A. (1996). An approach to issues-oriented economic education. In R.W. Evans & D.W. Saxe (Eds.), *Handbook on Teaching Social Issues, NCSS Bulletin 93* (pp. 211-219). National Council for the Social Studies.

Bird, G. (2019, February 14). Senator Paul's amendments fail to pass. *The McCreary County Voice.*http://www.themccrearyvoice.com/senator-pauls-amendments-fail-to-pass/

Heacox, K. (2001). *An American idea*: *The making of the national parks.* Washington, D.C.: National Geographic Society.

Hembram, D. (2007). *Use of non-timber forest products by households in the Daniel Boone national forest region* (Publication No. 3287202) [Doctoral dissertation, Purdue University]. ProQuest Information and Learning Company.

Hess, D. (2009). *Controversy in the classroom: the democratic power of discussion.* Routledge.

Hoover, K. (2010, June 11). *Congressionally designated special management areas in the national forest system.* Congressional Research Service. https://crsreports.congress.gov/product/pdf/R/R41285

Kentucky. (2019, April 25). *At county's request Sen. Paul holds forum to explore selling some federal forest land.* Spectrum. https://spectrumnews1.com/ky/louisville/pure-politics/2019/04/25/sen--paul-holds-forum-to-explore-selling-part-of-daniel-boone-

national-forest?cid=share_clip

Loomis, J.B. (2002). Integrated public lands management: principles and applications to national forests, parks, wildlife refuges, and blm lands (2nd Ed.). Columbia University Press.

National Council for the Social Studies. (2013). *The college, career, and civic life (C3) framework for social studies state standards: guidance for enhancing the rigor of K-12 civics, economics, geography, and history.*

National Parks Service. (2020a, April 27). *About us.* National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior. https://www.nps.gov/aboutus/index.htm

National Parks Service. (2020b, February 27). *Annual visitation highlights.* National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior. https://www.nps.gov/subjects/socialscience/annual-visitation-highlights.htm

Nelson, R.H. (1996). The future of the national forests. *Society, 34(*1), 92-98. DOI: 10.1007/BF02697010.

Parker, W.C. (1996). "Advanced" ideas about democracy: Toward a pluralist conception of citizen education. *Teachers College Record, 98*(1), 104-125.

Parker, W.C., & Beck, T.A. (2017). *Social studies in elementary education.* (15th ed.). Pearson.

Stanley, W.B. (2010). *Social studies and the social order: transmission or transformation?* In W.C. Parker (Ed.), *Social Studies Today: Research & Practice* (pp. 17-24). Routledge.

Stein, S.M., Alig, R.J., White, E.M., Comas, S.J., Carr, M., Eley, M., Elverum, K., O'Donnell, M.,Theobald, D.M., Cordell, K., Haber, J., & Beauvais, T.W. (2007). *National forests on the edge: development pressures on America's national forests and grasslands.* U.S. Department of Agriculture. http://wren.palwv.org/documents/ForestsontheEdge.pdf

Swan, K., Lee, J., & Grant, S.G. (2018). *Inquiry design model: building inquiries in social studies.* National Council for the Social Studies and C3 Teachers.

U.S. Department of Agriculture. (n.d.). *Daniel Boone National Forest: Lands and Acquisitions.* U.S. Forest Service. https://www.fs.usda.gov/detail/dbnf/aboutforest/?cid=fsbdev 3_032665

Westheimer, J., & Kahne, J. (2004). What kind of citizen? The politics of educating for democracy. *American Educational Research Journal, 41*(2), 237-269.

Source Work Resources

Burke, J. (2000). *Cornell notes.* Tools for Thought.https://colonelhighmedia.weebly.com/uploads/7/5/2/1/75219607/cornell_notes.pdf

Kentucky Heartwood. (2019, February 10). *Senator Rand Paul introduces legislation to sell off Daniel Boone National Forest land. Calls urgently needed.* [Blog]. Kentucky Heartwood. http://www.kyheartwood.org/forest-blog/sen-rand-paul-introduces-legislation-to-sell-off-daniel-boone-national-forest-land-calls-urgently-needed

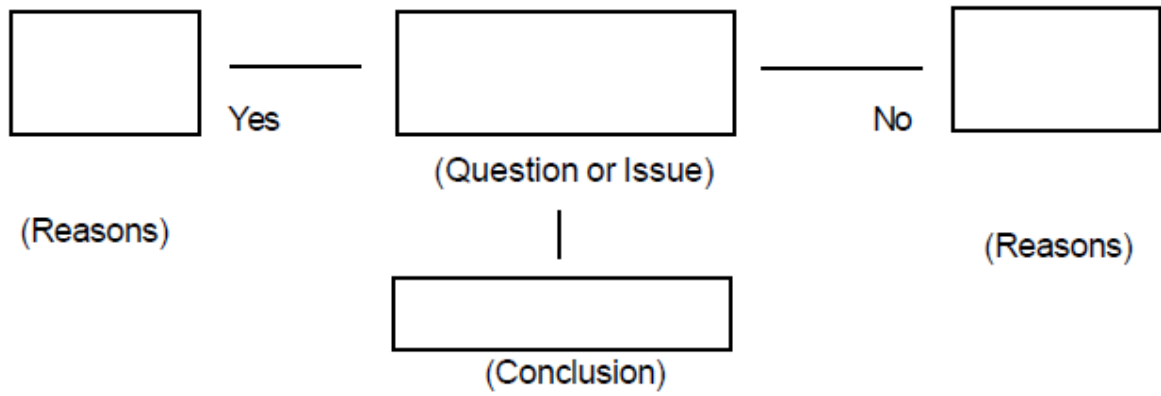Kentucky Heartwood. (2020, May 14). *Kentucky Heartwood: our mission.* http://www.kyheartwood.org/

Natural Resources Management Act, S. 47, 116 Cong. (2019). https://www.congress.gov
/bill/116th-congress/senate-bill/47/text

Paul, R. (2019, May 2). *Field hearing: costs to the fed. Government from management of federal lands – 4/25/29* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=66EKgzjZYvA &feature=youtu.be

Paul, R. (2019, May 2). ICYMI: Dr. rand paul's field hearing provides mccreary county with forum to address concerns with federal land management. [Press Release]. https://www.paul.senate.gov/news/icymi-dr-rand-paul%E2%80%99s-field-hearing-provides-mccreary-county-forum-address-concerns-federal-land

SA 140, 116th Cong., 165 Cong. Rec. S. 1018 (2019). https://www.congress.gov/congressional-record/volume-165/senate-section/page/S1018

SA 141, 116th Cong., 165 Cong. Rec. S. 1018 (2019). https://www.congress.gov/congressional-record/volume-165/senate-section/page/S1018

Sierra Club Bluegrass Group. (2020, May 14). *About us.* https://www.sierraclub.org/kentucky/bluegrass /about-us-0

To provide for the management of the natural resources of the United States, and for other purposes, S. 47, 116th Cong. (2019). https://www.congress.gov/bill/116th-congress/senate-bill/47

U.S. Department of Agriculture. (2004, April). *Land and resource management plan for the Daniel Boone National Forest.* Southern Region, Winchester, KY. https://www.fs.usda.gov/detail/dbnf/landmanagement/planning/?cid=fsbdev3_032595

Appendix A: Matrix Graphic Organizer

	Type of Document/ Source and Title	Author (title) and/ or Participants (titles)	3 or More Ideas or Facts You Think are Important	Stance on Public Lands Issue
Station 1				
Station 2				
Station 3				
Station 4				

Appendix B: Cornell Notes

Cornell Notes

Name	Date
Topic	Class/ Subject

Adapted from Jim Burke (2000)

Appendix C: Discussion Web

Discussion Web Procedure. Adapted from Alvermann, D.E. (1991).

Examining Competing Definitions of Patriotism during World War I

Jeremiah Clabough
The University of Alabama at Birmingham

Abstract

High school students need learning opportunities to explore public issues that they will grapple with as future democratic citizens. One public issue that high school students need to examine is the role of protests in U.S. democracy. In this article, I provide a series of activities for the high school U.S. history classroom to examine the role of protests on the U.S. home front during World War I. The series of activities allows students to examine competing definitions of patriotism. Students analyze Herbert Hoover's Food in War Speech and a series of paintings commissioned by the U.S. Food Administration that advocated for civilians on the U.S. home front to be patriotic by donating for the food conservation effort. They also read excerpts from *Roses and Radicals* (Zimet, 2018) that chronicles suffragists' protests for the right to vote during World War I. The steps and resources needed to implement the series of activities are provided. The series of activities is driven by the inquiry-based teaching practices advocated for in the C3 Framework by the National Council for the Social Studies.

Keywords: U.S. patriotism; U.S. women's suffrage movement; World War I; civic education; C3 Framework

Americans define patriotism differently. This is because people have different values, biases, and beliefs based upon economic, geographic, cultural, social, political, and regional factors (Westheimer, 2008). A recent example of this can be seen with the Colin Kaepernick controversy. Kaepernick refused to stand for the national anthem at NFL games and kneeled due to social injustices and racism still present in American society. Donald Trump viewed Kaepernick's actions as unpatriotic. Trump's responses to Kaepernick's actions show that the divergences in ways that people define patriotism are ever present (Serwer, 2017). High school students need meaningful learning opportunities to explore how and why people define patriotism differently. One ideal example for this is examining civilians' actions on the U.S. home front during World War I.

In this article, I focus on different versions of patriotism espoused on the U.S. home front during World War I. First, I discuss the role that high schools play in preparing future democratic citizens. Then, the focus of the article shifts to briefly examine the importance of teaching public policies such as divergent views on patriotism. Finally, a series of activities is given that looks at competing beliefs about

patriotism on the U.S. home front during World War I. The steps and resources needed to implement this series of activities are provided.

The Role of High Schools Preparing Future Democratic Citizens

The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) defines social studies as the integration of the different social science disciplines in schools to develop K-12 students' civic competencies (NCSS, 2010). After all, the purpose of high schools is to prepare future democratic citizens (Barr, Barth, & Shermis, 1977). Being a democratic citizen is not a passive process. Democratic citizens play an active role in backing potential elected officials, analyzing and supporting public policies, and engaging in service-learning projects for their local communities (Oliver & Shaver, 1966). These examples capture some of the many responsibilities and skills needed for being a democratic citizen. NCSS does a great job articulating many of the needed skills of future democratic citizens for the 21st century in its C3Framework.

The C3 Framework provides a vision for a student-centered classroom where students research issues through compelling questions in the four core social studies disciplines: history, economics, geography, and civics (NCSS, 2013a). Through the four dimensions of the Inquiry Arc in the C3 Framework, students analyze primary and secondary sources to answer a compelling question and then take civic action to help address an issue. Grant, Swan, and Lee (2017) provide the IDM Blueprint to help social studies teachers structure and organize their inquiry-based lesson plans. The implementation of this type of teaching advocating for inquiry- based practices builds students' disciplinary thinking, literacy, and argumentation skills (Lee & Swan, 2013). However, it is important to note that historical thinking is different from civic thinking because historians ask different questions than political scientists to examine issues and events. Civic thinking skills are focused on enabling our students to apply political scientists' analysis skills to examine issues and events (Clabough, 2018). One important component of civic thinking skills is equipping our high school students with the ability to analyze public policies.

An integral component of any social studies curriculum is equipping high school students to analyze public policies. Public policies are enduring issues that are not bound to one era and create conflicting perspectives from citizens (Oliver & Shaver, 1966). These conflicting perspectives are due to the fact that people's solutions are based on their values, biases, and beliefs (Hunt & Metcalf,1955; Hess & McAvoy, 2015). Some examples include the role of the federal government in people's lives and income inequality. It is important for high school students to grapple with public issues because this prepares them to do so as future democratic citizens. Our high school social studies classrooms should be "laboratories for democracy" where students can examine competing solutions to public issues (Clabough & Wooten,2016). After all,

our social studies classrooms are some of the few spaces where students can engage in meaningful discussions about public issues (Kawashima-Ginsberg & Junco, 2018).

One public policy that was a major controversy throughout the 20th century is the role of the U.S. home front in times of war. The issue of divergent perspectives of patriotism during times of war was really an issue during World War I. War on an industrial scale created the need for the home front to contribute more in supplying goods for the war effort. This can be seen with the U.S. government trying to direct the actions of civilians to donate food for World War I

(Miller, 2018; Mullendore, 1941; Jeansonne, 2016). However, many women saw hypocrisy in the U.S. government claiming to fight for freedom abroad while denying them the right to vote at home. This caused many women to protest for the right to vote during World War I (Sneider, 2008; Zeiger, 2000).

Protests during times of war became a common feature in the U.S. during the 20th century: 50 African American sailors were tried for mutiny during World War II for refusing to go back to segregated and unsafe working conditions after the explosion at Port Chicago and the more well-known protests throughout the Vietnam War.

Protests and divisions on concepts of patriotism have extended into the 21st century with the War in Afghanistan, the Second War in Iraq, and most recently with the Colin Kaepernick controversy. Westheimer (2008) argues that there are different versions of patriotism based on people's beliefs. Therefore, it is important for the high school social studies teacher to design classroom activities to allow students to explore the different ways that citizens define patriotism (Kahne & Westheimer, 2003). In the next sections, I provide a series of activities to examine competing definitions of patriotism on the U.S. home front during World War I.

Examining Divergent Definitions of Patriotism in World War I

The teacher starts by reviewing the ways that technological advancements changed warfare in World War I. Students answer the following two questions.

1. How did technological developments change warfare during World War I?

2. How could technological developments change the roles of civilians on the U.S. home front during World War I?

After students answer these questions, there is a class discussion. Students discuss how industrialization altered modern warfare. They also speculate about how industrialization changed citizens on the U.S. home front from having a passive to active role by manufacturing goods needed for the war effort.

After this discussion, the teacher transitions to how the U.S. government

envisioned the role of U.S. citizens on the home front. This role may be best captured by Herbert Hoover's Food in War Speech about the need for food conservation. During World War I, Hoover was the head of the U.S. Food Administration (Mullendore, 1941; Nash, 1996). The teacher may have students in pairs read an abbreviated version of Hoover's Food in War Speech (see Appendix) and answer a couple of analysis prompts. These analysis prompts are provided in the following section.

1. According to Hoover's speech, what was the purpose of the U.S. Food Administration? Use evidence to support your arguments.

2. According to Hoover's speech, why did U.S. citizens need to take part in food conservation during World War I? Use evidence to support your arguments.

The teacher floats around the room to answer questions. These two analysis prompts enable students to examine Hoover's perspective about the role of citizens on the U.S. homefront.

After students answer these analysis prompts, there is another class discussion. Groups share their responses. The teacher asks an extension question to get students to explore Hoover's speech in more depth. Why do you think Hoover gave this speech? This question helps students examine Hoover's goals with this speech. These analysis prompts build students' ability to formulate arguments by utilizing evidence to support their claims (Wineburg, Martin, & Monte- Sano, 2013).

The U.S. Food Administration commissioned a series of 12 paintings based on Hoover's Food in War Speech. Sets of these paintings toured the country to garner support for the war effort by food donations. The teacher starts by introducing students to one of these paintings, *The Body May Die but the Soul Is Unconquerable* (Johnes, 1918) (Figure 1), and models how to analyze the symbolic imagery (The paintings in the following sections and the abbreviated version of Hoover's Food in War Speech are provided with the permission from the Herbert Hoover Presidential Library-Museum). Three analysis questions to help students decode the layers of meaning in this painting are provided on the following page.

1. What stands out to you from this painting? Use evidence from the painting to support your arguments.

2. Why do you think the artist depicted the buildings and street in this manner? Explain your reasoning.

3. What is the message that the artist is trying to convey in this painting? How does the message of this painting connect to Hoover's Food in War Speech?

Use evidence from the painting and Hoover's speech to support your arguments.

Figure 1

"The Body May Die but the Soul Is Unconquerable"

Note. Copyright 1918 by the U.S. Food Administration.

This scaffolding by the teacher equips students with the skills to analyze symbolic imagery found within *The Body May Die but the Soul Is Unconquerable* (Johnes, 1918). Students will need practice to engage in the abstract thinking required to analyze the symbolic imagery within these paintings. These questions help students consider and discuss how images within this painting may be utilized by the artist to convey ideas and arguments.

After modeling for students how to analyze the symbolic imagery in one of the Hoover paintings, students in pairs analyze another painting, *We Need Men and Supplies, as well as Plans* (Streets, 1918) (Figure 2), and answer the following questions.

1. What stands out to you from this painting? Use evidence from the painting to support your arguments.

2. Why do you think the artist utilized soldiers in this painting to evoke certain feelings and emotions? Explain your reasoning.

3. What is the message that the artist is trying to convey in this painting? How does the message of this painting connect to Hoover's Food in War Speech? Use evidencefrom the painting and Hoover's speech to support your arguments.

Figure 2

"We Need Men and Supplies, as well as Plans"

Note. Copyright 1918 by the U.S. Food Administration.

These questions help students see how the U.S. government has consistently connected civilians' actions during times of war to the support of soldiers on the front lines. Students gain experience from this activity of articulating how people use imagery to convey arguments (Sperry & Baker, 2016).

After pairs analyze this painting, there is another class discussion. Students share their responses to these questions and support their arguments with details from the painting. This activity gives students experience deconstructing the messages within this painting and helps them grasp how visual primary sources convey arguments through images (Journell, 2009). The analysis of these two paintings based on Hoover's Food in War Speech helps students articulate one vision for the role of the U.S. home front during World War I and gives them experience deconstructing subtle political messages contained in visual primary sources. However, this was not the only viewpoint about the role of U.S. citizens on the home front.

Throughout American history, the United States has been a democracy in theory as opposed to in reality. Most white women did not gain the right to vote until 1920; most African American men and women did not gain the right to vote until 1965. Students can explore this contradiction in the American character by examining the photograph at the following link, https://www.docsteach.org/documents/ document/kaiser-wilson-suffragette. This photograph depicts a woman with a banner protesting women's inability to vote during World War I. The teacher asks the following question. How does this photograph contradict the U.S. message abroad while being involved in World War I? The class discusses this question, and the teacher helps students to see how many questioned how the U.S. could advocate for democracy abroad while denying women the right to vote at home. The teacher may also discuss how citizens use protests to argue their positions when their elected representatives ignore their pleas (Nokes, 2019; Pearcy, 2019).

The discussion of this photograph prepares students to explore the protest for women's suffrage during World War I. *Roses and Radicals: The Epic Story of how American Women Won the Right to Vote* (Zimet, 2018) is a great trade book for examining the ways that suffragists protested for the right to vote during World War I. The teacher assigns students in groups of three to read pages 121-124 from this trade book. As students read these pages, they complete the following graphic organizer (Figure 3).

Figure 3
Tradebook Graphic Organizer

Why did Alice Paul and her followers refuse to end their protests during World War I? Use evidence from the text to support your arguments.	What tactics did suffragists use to protest World War I, and how were they treated by fellow citizens and government officials? Use evidence from the text to support your arguments.

These questions help students grasp why suffragists protested during World War I. Students can see why these supporters of the women suffragist movement saw hypocrisy in the U.S. claiming to fight for democracy abroad while denying women the right to vote at home (Pearcy, 2019).

After groups read these pages and complete the graphic organizer, there is another class discussion. Students share their responses and add onto their graphic organizer based on peers' comments. The teacher asks the following question. How does the suffragists' arguments about women not being able to vote create a

contradiction in the ways that the United States tries to present itself in the world? This question helps students explore a contradiction throughout U.S. history that a country espousing democratic beliefs should not deny her citizens basic democratic rights (Wineburg, 2018).

The examination of Hoover's Food in War Speech and the ways in which suffragists protested for the right to vote shows students different visions for how citizens on the U.S. home front defined patriotism during World War I. The steps in the activity described above position students to complete one of the following two prompts.

1. Assume the role of a person that has just heard Hoover's Food in War Speech and write a letter to a local newspaper explaining why his message for food relief should or should not be supported in your local community. Your letter should draw on Hoover's statements to support your claims. The length of your letter should be a half page in length.

2. Assume the role of a person that has just seen the photograph of women protesting for the right to vote in front of the White House. Write a speech to be delivered at a local townhall on why women's protests should or should not be supported. Your speech should draw onZimet's trade book to support your arguments. The length of your letter should be a half page inlength.

Through completing one of these writing prompts, students practice taking the role of a democratic citizen. They make persuasive arguments about a form of patriotism. Perspective- writing activities like these strengthen students' higher order thinking skills by utilizing evidence to articulate a person's point of view (Lo, 2018). The steps of this activity position students to

see divergent viewpoints about patriotism on the U.S. homefront during World War I. The examination of issues connected to patriotism can be explored in other wars and also sets students up to individually articulate their own definition of patriotism. In this way, the teacher helps students develop their own civic identity (NCSS, 2013b).

Afterthoughts

In this article, I explored competing ways that Americans define patriotism during times of war. An activity is provided that examines why divergent definitions of patriotism connected to issues and events during World War I. Herbert Hoover's Food in War Speech about the need for food conservation reflects a reoccurring argument made by U.S. government officials that the civilian population should forsake all issues and focus solely on winning a war. However, Zimet's trade book does a great job capturing a dissenting voice during World War I with how suffragists argued that the

U.S. could not disseminate an argument for democracy abroad while denying a portion of her citizens the right to vote at home. The series of activities in this article gives students the opportunity to grasp how and why people define U.S. patriotism differently.

During the Vietnam War, Richard Nixon weaponized protestors as instruments to energize his supporters and maintain his political power. Protestors were seen by many as unpatriotic and not American when in fact they were trying to make government officials come to terms with the contradictions of the Vietnam War (Farrell, 2017; Perlstein, 2008). Since the Vietnam War, protests have been tools employed by politicians for their political gain by dividing the electorate. One way to deescalate the current hyperpartisanship in this country is by setting up opportunities for high school students to examine why people have divergent beliefs about public issues such as defining patriotism in different ways. This critical examination of issues equips students with the knowledge to dissect competing arguments about an issue and apply evidence to take civic action (Hess & McAvoy, 2015; Journell, 2016).

Our high school social studies classrooms are some of the few spaces that students have to discuss dissenting perspectives about public issues (Kawashima-Ginsberg & Junco, 2018).
Therefore, the social studies teacher must design meaningful class activities that allow his or her students to examine different perspectives on public issues. These public issues help students see how solutions were reached to issues in the past and how some topics have endured as new issues in contemporary U.S. society. This way students are equipped with the knowledge to put some issues to rest as future democratic citizens. However, for this to occur, the high school social studies teacher must make a commitment through his or her class activities to preparing the next generation of citizens to fulfill the many responsibilities of democratic citizenship.

Dr. Jeremiah Clabough is an Associate Professor of Social Science Education at the University of Alabama at Birmingham. He is a former middle and high school social studies teacher. His research interest is focused on strengthening middle and high school students' civic thinking, literacy, and argumentation skills. Dr. Clabough can be reached at jclabou2@uab.edu.

References

Barr, R., Barth, J., & Shermis, S. (1977). *Defining the social studies*. NCSS Bulletin 51. NCSS.

Clabough, J. (2018). Analyzing Richard Nixon's "political death and resurrection" to strengthen students' civic thinking skills. *The Social Studies, 109*(4), 177-185.

Clabough, J., & Wooten, D. (2016). Bias, bigotry, and bungling: Teaching

about the Port Chicago 50. *Social Education*, *80*(3), 160-165.

Farrell, J. (2017). *Richard Nixon: The life*. Penguin Books.

Grant, S.G., Swan, K., & Lee, J. (2017). *Inquiry-based practice in social studies education*. Routledge.

Hess, D., & McAvoy, P. (2015). *The political classroom: Evidence and ethics in democratic education*. Routledge.

Hunt, M.P., & Metcalf, L.E. (1955). *Teaching high school social studies: Problems in reflective thinking and social understanding*. Harper & Brothers.

Jeansonne, G. (2016). *Herbert Hoover: A life*. New American Library.

Johnes, F. (1918). *The body may die but the soul is unconquerable*. The U.S. Food Administration.

Journell, W. (2009). Using YouTube to teach presidential election propaganda: Twelve representative videos. *Social Education*, *73*(7), 325-329, 362.

Journell, W. (2016). Introduction: Teaching social issues in the social studies classroom. In W. Journell (Ed.), *Teaching social studies in an era of divisiveness* (pp. 1-12). Rowman and Littlefield.

Kahne, J., & Westheimer, J. (2003). Teaching democracy: What schools need to do. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *85*(1), 34-40, 57-66.

Kawashima-Ginsberg, K., & Junco, R. (2018). Teaching controversial issues in a time of polarization. *Social Education*, *82*(6), 323-329.

Lee, J., & Swan, K. (2013). Is the Common Core good for social studies? Yes, but… *Social Education*, *77*(6), 327-330.

Lo, J. (2018). "'Can we do this every day?' Engaging students in controversial issuesthrough role-play." *Social Education*, *82*(6), 330-335.

Miller, J. (2018). *WW I Crusaders*. Mildbrown Press.

Mullendore, W.C. (1941). *History of the United States Food Administration 1917-1919*. Stanford University Press.

Nash, G. (1996). *The life of Herbert Hoover: Master of emergencies, 1917-1918*. Norton & Company.

NCSS. (2010). *National standards for social studies: A framework for teaching, learning, and assessment*. Author.

NCSS. (2013a). *The college, career, and civic life framework for social studies state standards: Guidance for enhancing the rigor of K-12 civics, economics,geography, and history*. Author.

NCSS. (2013b). *Revitalizing civic learning in our schools*. A Position Statement of the National Council for the Social Studies. http://www.socialstudies.org/positions/ revitalizing_civic_learning

Nokes, J. (2019). *Teaching, history, learning citizenship: Tools for civic engagement.*

Teachers College Press.

Oliver, D., & Shaver, J. (1966). *Teaching public issues in the high school*. Houghton Mifflin.

Pearcy, M. (2019). "It isn't a moment, It's a commitment": Teaching about protest and civic engagement. In J. Hubbard (Ed.), *Extending the ground of public confidence: Teaching civil liberties in K-16 social studies education* (pp. 215-228). Information Age Publishing.

Perlstein, R. (2008). *Nixonland: The rise of a president and the fracturing of America*. Simon and Schuster.

Serwer, A. (2017). Trump's war of words with black athletes. *The Atlantic*. https://www.theatlantic.com/politics/archive/2017/09/trump-urges-nfl-owners-to-fire-players-who-protest/540897/

Sneider, A. (2008). *Suffragists in an imperial age: U.S. expansion and the woman question 1870-1929*. Oxford University Press.

Sperry, C., & Baker, F. (2016). Media literacy: A position statement of National Council for the Social Studies. *Social Education*, *80*(3), 183-185.

Streets, F. (1918). *We need men and supplies, as well as plans*. The U.S. Food Administration. Westheimer, J. (2008). Thinking about patriotism. *Educational Leadership*, *65*(5), 48-54.

Wineburg, S. (2018). *Why learn history (when it's already on your phone)*. The University of Chicago Press.

Wineburg, S., Martin, D., & Monte-Sano, C. (2013). *Reading like a historian: Teaching literacy in middle and high school history classrooms*. Teachers College Press.

Zeiger, R. (2000). *America's great war: World War I and the American experience*. Rowman and Littlefield.

Zimet, S. (2018). *Roses and radicals: The epic story of how American women won the right to vote*. Puffin Books.

Appendix
Herbert Hoover *Food in War* Speech

The Food Administration in the United States is an instrument of our war effort. Its primary concern is feeding our own people and those of the Allies. This guarantees the strength of all men, women, and children on the homefront and abroad.

The question of meeting the food needs for the war is mainly about determining the amount of food we need at home so extra food can be shipped to our soldiers and allies. The United States is the most important part of meeting the food needs not only of our soldiers but the soldiers and citizens of Allied countries. This is because we can ship our extra food to the war effort, plant more food at home, and reduce our waste of food.

The reduction of food use in the United States is important for the war effort to be successful. We have to reduce the food eaten in the United States a little bit to help the soldiers and citizens of our allies. This means that we are going to have to increase the exports that we send to the Allies with food such as wheat and eat a little less of such food items as wheat.

The success of the war effort is dependent on the sacrifices of U.S. citizens on the homefront. This happens through the everyday actions of U.S. citizens and working with local community groups to meet the needs of the war effort. The food producers in the United States have also worked hard to meet the food needs of our soldiers and the soldiers and citizens of the Allies.

One group that we have had to feed is the needy displaced women and children in Belgium impacted by the destruction caused by the German army. We have had this duty for the last three years. Additionally, the food lines for the poor in England, France, and Italy have been worse this past winter. This has really put a strain on the governments of our European allies. This should pull on our heart strings. These food shortages pose a threat to our success in war. U.S. citizens need to volunteer to help with the war effort by eating only what is needed and through saving extra food for the war effort.

I do not believe that anyone has the right to profit from the war through high increases in prices of foods or supplies. Price gouging reflects poorly on the American character and values. If our citizens engaged in price gouging, the United States would be no better than our German enemies. People price gouging hurt our soldiers involved in the war.

The success of the Food Administration is largely because of volunteer cooperation of U.S. citizens on the homefront. With our current war, it will be successful based on the actions of men, women, and children in the United States.