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Letter from the Editors

Greetings!

The start of a new year (and decade) represents fresh beginnings. For our organization, this year denotes a particularly significant moment as we reignite the official publication associated with the Middle States Council for the Social Studies. We resume the important work of providing an outlet for the exchange of ideas, both theoretical and practical. As editors, we look forward to sharing with you scholarly and classroom articles that explore strategies for effective social studies teaching and learning. In addition, each Winter issue will include a “State of the States” report featuring information on social studies initiatives and happenings throughout our member states as well as details regarding the upcoming annual MSCSS conference. Since social studies educators appreciate the opportunity to identify continuity and change over time, each issue of THE JOURNAL will contain a “Time Capsule” segment, which will allow us to look back at items from our organization’s archives.

In 2020, the Middle States Council for the Social Studies celebrates its 117th anniversary! It is worth noting that MSCSS is the oldest social studies professional organization in the United States. This issue opens with MSCSS President Emeritus **David Pierfy** providing the first known attempt to record a history of our organization’s publications. As we relaunch The Journal, Dr. Pierfy’s piece is a fitting item to begin our issue.

In her “Historical Sketch of the First Thirty Years of the Association,” Jessie Evans wrote that, “our attention has always been divided between the demands of scholarship and those of teaching methods and procedures” (1933, p. 89). The remaining articles in this issue mirror nicely the dual concern of our organization with empirical research as well as curriculum and pedagogy. They attempt to bridge the “divide” of theory and practice by offering practical teaching strategies and recommendations grounded in the empirical literature.

Lindsay McCrea’s article invites us to explore the promise of using critical inquiry to meet social studies objectives, especially social justice. She asserts that by teaching students to question dominant power structures and critique oppressive systems, educators nurture democratic citizens who are well-poised to enact positive social change. In their article, **Alexander Pope** and **Diana Wagner** share an inquiry-based classroom strategy for engaging students with a compelling question about the Holocaust. They discuss recurring themes that emerge when groups analyze a set of primary sources and offer suggestions for how teachers might leverage the activity in their classrooms. Lastly, **Teresa G. Wojcik** reports on the varying ways in which pre-service teachers pursuing social studies and language arts certification view primary sources and their place in the curriculum. She suggests that examining pre-service teachers’ beliefs and intentions can offer valuable insights for administrators, mentor teachers, and teacher educators.

We conclude this issue with a look back. Reprints of three seminal documents detail the history of our organization. The articles by Evans (1933), Oeste (1953), and Krout (1953) provide an appropriate starting point for reflecting on the association's origins.

The Middle States Council for the Social Studies will hold its annual conference in Towson, MD at the end of February 2020. The conference offers an opportunity for professional development and recognition, networking, and the exchange of views and ideas. In 1953, Oeste wrote in THE JOURNAL that “a tradition of

friendliness and hospitality has grown up around our meetings [conferences].” We have no doubt that the same sentiment will be true for this year’s gathering.

We hope that you find this issue of THE JOURNAL interesting and engaging and we invite your feedback and submissions for future issues.

Teresa G. Wojcik, Ph.D.
Villanova University

Alexander Pope, Ph.D.
Salisbury University

State Updates

Delaware

Standard setting for the new Delaware Social Studies Assessment (DeSSA) took place September 16-17, 2019. Scores were released in the Fall. The 2019/2020 DeSSA in grades 4, 7 and 11, will factor into school accountability. Practice tests are available online. This year the Social Studies Coalition of DE is providing content and curriculum training for grades 4, 5, 7, and 9-11. K-12 Geography education has been resurrected in Delaware with the new Delaware Center for Geographic Education at the University of Delaware. Financial Literacy Standards are now operational in grades K-12 with new resources and professional development opportunities available for teachers this year.

Representatives

Jennifer Baczewski
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Maryland

Maryland's State Department of Education (MSDE) recently published new information regarding the upcoming statewide 8th grade social studies test. The link below includes a description of the MCAP Assessment, the 8th Grade US History Framework, drafts of rubrics which will be used to score student work, sample test items, and a crosswalk which illustrates the connection between Maryland Social Studies Standards and common source analysis tools. A practice test will be published in the spring of 2020. Feel free to explore these resources to best prepare for this upcoming assessment. [MSDE 8th Grade MCAP Resources](#).

Representatives

Jim Rossi
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New Jersey

The New Jersey Council for the Social Studies held its Annual Conference for K-12 social studies teachers on Monday, October 21, 2019 at Rutgers University. The theme was “One Small Step for Man; One Giant Leap for Educators.” MSCSS Board Member Keri A. Giannotti presented on the topic, “We Were There Too: Women in the Vietnam Era.” For more information on the conference, visit www.njcss.org.

The New Jersey Historical Commission has compiled a website of resources for the 100th Anniversary of Women’s Suffrage and can be found [here](#). In addition, the NJ Historical Commission was awarded a generous grant from the NJCSS for educational theatrical presentations in schools in commemoration of New Jersey’s active role in the 100th Anniversary of Women’s Suffrage. More information can be found [here](#).

New Jersey has become the second state in the nation after California to attempt a law that requires schools to teach about LGBT history. Under the measure, public schools must include lessons about the political, economic and social contributions of individuals who are gay and transgender, starting in the 2020-2021 school year. In addition, the bill requires teaching about the contributions of individuals who are disabled. The bill was supported by Garden State Equality, which is seeking educators to contribute lesson plans this year in preparation for the mandate’s implementation.

Representatives

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Social Studies Teacher
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Laura Siegel
Dean of Academic Assessment
BelovEd Community Charter School

New York

In June 2019, schools administered NYSED’s new Framework Global History & Geography Regents exam. NYSED released both the June and August exams and scoring guides. NYSED also released prototypes and task models for the new Framework U.S. History & Government exam. [See this link](#) for more information. Additionally, the work of the NYSED Civic Readiness Task Force continued through the summer.

Representatives

Lisa Kissinger
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Social Studies Consultant
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Pennsylvania

In August, the board members of the Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies met at Freedoms Foundation in Valley Forge to plan for the organization’s 66th annual conference, which was held on October 17-19, 2019 in Harrisburg. Not a member? Join for free [here](#)!

Representatives

Georgette Hackman
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Nicole Roper
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Washington, D.C.

DC Public Schools began the school year with great news: our test scores continue to rise. Students are showing continued growth for the fourth consecutive year through the Partnership for the Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers (PARCC) scores. DC Public Schools have also made a determination to ensure that every child feels challenged, loved and prepared to influence society in a positive manner and be able to thrive in life. With this commitment, DCPS are working to create a safe and secure environment of learning that supports the whole child and ensures that each student has access to joyful and rigorous academic experiences.

Representatives

Althea Smith
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District of Columbia Public Schools

Paul Howard
Social Studies Teacher
District of Columbia Public Schools

A Short History of THE JOURNAL of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies

David Pierfy¹

Professor Emeritus, Rider University

With this issue the Middle States Council for the Social Studies re-institutes a service to members that is as old as the association itself. The council was founded in 1903 when its first conference was held at Columbia University in New York. The format for that conference included Friday afternoon meetings and a convocation followed by a dinner meeting with a speaker. Saturday included morning sessions and concluded with a luncheon address. Typically, each segment of the conference featured a speech or presentation by prominent historians who were association members or colleagues. The speeches usually emanated from current scholarly pursuits of college professors or important topics of the day concerning history, curriculum and teaching. It is interesting to note that former history professor Woodrow Wilson, then president of Princeton University, was invited to give a keynote address at the first meeting but he regretfully declined saying “I have ceased to be an historian, and have now become a man of business.”

After the Columbia conference presenters submitted a copy, or a synopsis of their speeches which were printed for circulation to Council members. The initial conference proceedings were printed in an eight page booklet containing a brief review of history textbooks, suggestions for a course in local history, a paper on the Louisiana Purchase and remarks by the council president, Professor Lucy Maynard Salmon of Vassar College, outlining prospective council activities. The second edition, based on the 1904 conference at Philadelphia, circulated to 213 members, 170 educational institutions and 70 were sent to other educational journals. Throughout the history of MSCSS council

publications have been mailed to individuals as a service to the membership.

In the first twelve years the Proceedings included articles by five future presidents of the American Historical Association: Charles A. Beard, Charles Homer Haskins, Carlton J.H. Hayes, James Harvey Robinson and William Milligan Sloane. During the next two decades, Proceedings publications featured pieces by five presidents of the National Council for the Social Studies: Edgar Dawson, J. Montgomery Gambrill, W. G. Kimmell, A. C. Kray and Leon C. Marshall. The authors of widely adopted history textbooks (Harry J. Carman, Henry Steele Commager and David S. Muzzey) submitted articles for the Proceedings, as well as three winners of the the Pulitzer Prize for History: Roy Franklin Nichols, Charles McLean Andrews and Merle Curti. Articles usually addressed issues of interest to college history professors and high school teachers; occasionally dealing with history at the elementary school level.

Since most speakers came with prepared remarks, it was relatively easy to collect manuscripts for inclusion in the annual publication. Also, the Council began supporting the formation of local conferences in cities throughout the region. And Middle States began presenting conferences twice each year. The spring meeting included history education presentations, committee reports, council business meeting minutes and election of officers. The fall meetings, usually during the Friday and Saturday after Thanksgiving piggy-backed with meetings of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, the organization

¹ Dr. Pierfy served as MSCSS President 1978-1980.

that conducted accreditation of private and public schools in the region. Sessions at all these meetings were introduced by a chairperson who often followed the speeches with a rejoinder or a different perspective on the topic at hand. Some speeches were circulated prior to the conference to a panel that came prepared to discuss the topics as they concerned college, secondary and elementary levels. The Proceedings often included the keynote addresses, as well as reactions to the speech, sometimes even including notes from the question-and-answer session that often followed a speech. Editors of the Proceedings had a rich treasure trove to draw from.

The Friday-Saturday format continued into the 1970s. At that point membership had decreased. For many reasons attendance at the conference dwindled so the annual meeting was reduced to a one-day affair. Fewer sessions meant it was harder to assemble a publication.

Also, during the 1970s there was a change in the nature of conference break-out sessions. Instead of lectures for the professoriate, presentations were being geared to pre-college teachers. Instead of delivering a lecture, presenters involved attendees by having them role-play as classroom students. Session leaders demonstrated how to run a simulation game, or conduct a game-show type of class review. Some even reproduced lessons from the federally funded “new social studies” projects that were developing curriculum for elementary and secondary schools at universities nationwide. Discussion techniques were modeled. Audience interaction and participation was expected.

Attempts were made to capture the essence of the new session formats through audio-tape to transcribe and describe what happened at conference meetings. This proved to be a difficult and time-consuming task. Instead of an annual publication, the Council was content to produce periodic issues. Some did not see publication until more than a year after the conference. The last Proceedings was

published in late fall 1977 after the 74th Annual Meeting held at Rider College on April 30.

In 1978 the Council agreed to expand the scope of its publication. Instead of simply providing a printed version of what happened at the annual meeting, the council endeavored to produce a journal comprised of submitted manuscripts. The first issue of the newly christened JOURNAL was 40 pages in length and contained seven articles. The first editor was Professor Victor W. Shapiro of Brooklyn College and he moved to establish THE JOURNAL as a refereed publication. THE JOURNAL, in the same format, length and editorial policy was published annually until Fall, 1994 when Volume 15 was issued. Chronologically, subsequent editors were David A. Pierfy and Albert Nissman of Rider College, Rodger C. Henderson and David Warren Saxe of Pennsylvania State University, Fred Savitz of Neumann College and Catherine A. Gatewood of Lock Haven State University.

In 1995 the publication changed its name to YEARBOOK. Yearbooks were issued in 1996, 1998, 2000 and 2001. The first three centered on the national and state standards that were being developed in social studies, history and the social sciences. The YEARBOOK issues ranged from 80 to 160 pages long and since they were collections of sixteen different sets of curriculum standards, these publications were much in demand.

By Fall/Winter, 2003/2004 a new editor assumed command, published one issue also titled THE JOURNAL and designated it as Number 1. No new journals were issued until Fall/Winter 2009-2010 and again this one was called the JOURNAL, edition Number 1. Of late the Council has been hard-pressed to find individuals who are willing to do the hard labor associated with editorship.

Nonetheless, Middle States Council publications have a long and illustrious history. Copies of each periodical as well as other historical

documents of the Council are housed in the Archives Division of the University of Delaware Library at

Newark. This year marks a welcomed return of the MSCSS JOURNAL.

Question, Critique, Change: Educating Citizens through Critical Inquiry in Social Studies

Lindsay Bell McCrea²
District of Columbia Public Schools

For a democracy to thrive, all citizens must be prepared with strong civic knowledge, skills, and dispositions. Schools, through social studies and civic education, bear the responsibility for teaching young citizens how to engage in their democracy through questioning those in power, critiquing their actions, and working to make change in their community. Social studies courses uniquely feature content and phenomena that directly pertain to understanding how history is created and how society functions today (Dewey, 1916; Friedman, 1982). Since the introduction of the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework in 2013 (NCSS), inquiry has taken root as a pedagogy in social studies classrooms across the nation (NCSS, 2018). When inquiry is infused with critical pedagogy, social studies classrooms become a place where students learn to disrupt systems of oppression through asking questions, understanding multiple perspectives, analyzing past actions and their repercussions, and developing civic engagement skills through planning for and taking informed action.

Social studies with a critical inquiry approach pushes students to question, critique, and ultimately, change their world. To prepare students to advocate for democracy, justice, and equality, social studies must have a critical lens that questions the normalcy of injustice, explores the roots and causes of

injustice, evaluates ways to make change, and engages in authentic experiences of civic action. These skills, which are traditionally categorized with critical pedagogy or social justice education, meet the goals of social studies and democratic education head on. In this article, I explore the relationship between critical pedagogy and inquiry within social studies instruction. Through critical inquiry, social studies curriculum and instruction can provide students with the education and opportunities to fully participate in the pursuit of justice and equality.

What is Critical Inquiry in Social Studies?

Critical inquiry consists of the marrying of two instructional methods: inquiry and critical pedagogy. Inquiry is generally defined as an instructional method in which students pose or are presented with questions, seek answers by collecting information, and communicate their conclusions as evidence of their learning (e.g., Banchi & Bell, 2008; Billman, 2008; NCSS, 2013; Whitlock, 2015). Inquiry has its origins in social-constructivist theories as far back as John Dewey (1916). Indeed, Dewey expressed the importance of using inquiry methods to study history specifically, rather than memorization, to better understand social phenomena and contemporary issues. Critical inquiry in social studies (CISS) is a pedagogical framework that supports using inquiry as a vehicle

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for critical pedagogy through social studies content and disciplinary skills.

Inquiry is not a new phenomenon in the social studies landscape, but was crystalized with the introduction of the C3 Framework in 2013. The four dimensions of the C3 Framework provide structure to the inquiry process aligned with five key instructional shifts: (1) craft questions that spark and sustain an inquiry, (2) cultivate and nurture collaborative civic spaces, (3) integrate content and skills purposefully, (4) promote literacy practices and outcomes, and (5) provide tangible opportunities for taking informed action. These instructional shifts not only reference the kinds of academic skills that students should be developing through social studies, but also the dispositions that accompany civic education, many of which overlap with educating for social justice.

Critical theory questions structures of race and inequity, explores dynamics of oppression and power, and advocates for the dismantling of structural inequities (e.g., Crowley & King, 2018; Ladson-Billings, 2003; Taylor, 2015). Critical pedagogy, then, applies critical theory to teaching and learning to provide equity to students who are oppressed by such systems, incorporating methods and content to disrupt these systems through schooling (Freire, 1970). Critical pedagogy draws on multiple perspectives to encourage students to question their world and analyze ways others have tried to change inequitable systems in order to empower students to take action and advocate for change in their own contexts (Crowley & King, 2018; Hackman, 2005; Ladson-Billings, 2003). Indeed, the definitions of critical pedagogy and the instructional shifts of the C3 Framework seem to be inextricably intertwined.

The instructional practices of inquiry and critical pedagogy naturally lend themselves to the content and skills pursued by social studies. Critical pedagogy in conjunction with inquiry equips students with the skills and knowledge to become

engaged citizens through social studies. Both strategies, when situated in social studies instruction, can be organized into asking questions, exploring multiple perspectives to construct narratives, and advocacy and activism through civic participation. These practices have been proven to have widespread benefits for students' development into engaged and active citizens (e.g., de los Rios, Lopez, & Morrell, 2015; LeCompte & Blevins, 2015; Levinson, 2009; Piazza, Rao, & Protacio, 2015).

A Framework for CISS

The skills promoted by critical pedagogy and social justice education overlap with the skills promoted by social studies inquiry, demonstrating how each method can support the goals of the other (see Figure 1). The essence of inquiry is questioning, and questioning structures of power is likewise vital to critical pedagogy. Thus, critical questioning (Chandler & Hawley, 2017) helps students examine issues of race and power, supporting a critical social studies experience (Crowley & King, 2018; Ladson-Billings, 2003). Such inquiries are argumentative, question long-held notions of power structures, and speak to values and morals, empowering students to explore content and determine the nature of issues and potential for action (Crowley & King, 2018).

The next step in the inquiry process is to analyze a variety of sources of information to draw a conclusion; in social studies, this means drawing on "historical thinking skills" such as sourcing documents, contextualizing primary sources, and corroborating evidence (Wineburg, 2001). To infuse critical pedagogy in this step, teachers should select texts from diverse perspectives (Hackman, 2005) to serve as the basis of students' inquiry. Combined, students will gain a more complete understanding of the event or issue and be able to think critically about their own context. As students develop a critical lens through examining examples of change within society (Hackman, 2005), they are able to "identify and challenge master narratives that legitimate systems of oppression and power" through

social studies (Crowley & King, 2018, p. 15). Additionally, students are exposed to the perspectives of marginalized peoples, which helps to promote equity within schools and society by changing the perspectives of all students (Leonardo & Grubb, 2013).

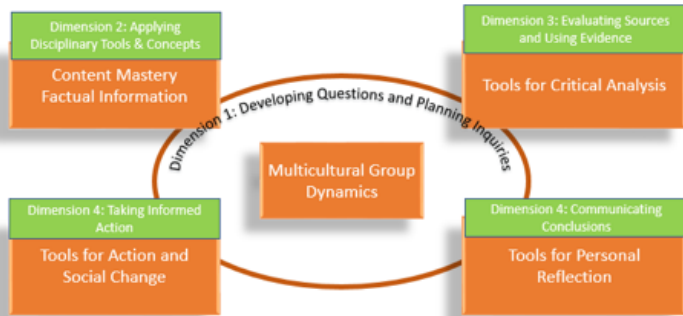


Figure 1. Hackman's (2005) framework for social justice education aligns with the methods of inquiry promoted by the C3 Framework (NCSS, 2013). The above figure demonstrates the overlapping and symbiotic relationship between inquiry and critical pedagogy through social studies.

The inquiry process in social studies is unique in that the conclusion of the inquiry process is activism and civic participation (NCSS, 2013). Critical pedagogy is inherently situated in activism, as students are taught skills with the intent of social change to interrupt injustices (Hackman, 2005; Tyson, 2003), and therefore a natural fit with inquiry in social studies. Through CISS, students not only consider the roots of injustice, but also encourage ways to solve, prevent, or counteract injustice through civic action, which provides students with a more complete understanding of how social issues arise and what people in a democracy can do about them (Crowley & King, 2018; Hackman, 2005; Young & Miner, 2015). To complete their learning experience and promote the learning outcomes of civic skills and dispositions, students must apply their social studies knowledge to their own context by taking action. In order to develop citizenship skills, students must be provided with opportunities for such action.

Critical Inquiry in Action

Critical pedagogy does not necessitate an inquiry-based approach, where students would drive their learning through gathering evidence and drawing a conclusion, nor does inquiry imply that students take a critical approach. A critical inquiry approach specifically considers issues of power, oppression, and resistance from multiple perspectives within the process of asking questions, gathering evidence, and drawing conclusions. For example, the same Compelling Question can be used with or without a critical approach, but the addition of critical pedagogy to inquiry pushes students to examine a topic from multiple perspectives and evaluate the lasting impact of an event on their world today (see Appendix A). In practice, there are myriad opportunities for integrating a critical approach within the inquiry process, from how the overall unit is structured (see Appendix B) to specific probing questions that can be implemented in each lesson (see Appendix C).

Potential Benefits of CISS

Critical inquiry in social studies has the advantage of combining two effective instructional methods, and therefore has the potential for numerous beneficial outcomes in student knowledge, skills, and dispositions. Research around the outcomes of inquiry methods in social studies demonstrates positive outcomes in students':

- Understanding of content and concepts (LeCompte & Blevins, 2015; Reisman, 2012) from multiple perspectives (Chandler & Hawley, 2017)
- Depth of knowledge (Alongi, Heddy, & Sinatra, 2016; Rone, 2008, Wineburg, 2001)
- Historical thinking skills, such as sourcing, corroboration, and contextualization (Wineburg, 2001)
- Literacy skills such as writing (Pang, 2016; Wright & Endacott, 2015) and reading comprehension (Ness, 2016; Reisman, 2012)

- Long-term civic engagement (LeCompte & Blevins, 2015)
- Self-efficacy, autonomy, and self-confidence (Bean & Dunkerly-Bean, 2016; de los Rios, Lopez, & Morrell, 2015; Flynn, 2012; Freire, 1970; LeCompte & Blevins, 2015; Whitlock, 2015)

This approach inherently supports students' civic engagement and navigation of social and civic issues. Students of all backgrounds are exposed each day to acts of oppression by people and institutions in power, and thus need a critical lens to develop democratic citizenship skills (Howard, 2003). By encouraging students to question and critique issues in their community and context, students are able to question systems of power more openly, more critically, and more often (Chandler & Hawley, 2017; Crowley & King, 2018; Ness, 2016). By taking informed action in their communities as a conclusion to inquiry, students are able to internalize and make relevant civic and historical issues, as well as apply their critical analysis skills to their own community (Bean & Dunkerly-Bean, 2016; de los Rios, Lopez, & Morrell, 2015; LeCompte & Blevins, 2015).

A primary responsibility of social studies courses is to teach students how to be active and engaged citizens. This includes basic citizenship skills, such as voting and legislative procedure, but should also include a critical understanding of the functioning of democracy to empower them to advocate for social change (Ladson-Billings, 2003; NCSS, 2018). Similarly, engaging students in controversial discussions in social studies classes allows students a safe space to practice civic discourse (Alongi, Heddy, & Sinatra, 2016; de los Rios, Lopez, & Morrell, 2015; Flynn, 2012; NCSS, 2018). Thus, because critical inquiry supports civic discourse, CISS supports the understanding of democratic processes (Crowley & King, 2018; Ladson-Billings, 2003). This allows students to evaluate strategies for taking action in society (Hackman, 2005), which they can then apply and

reflect on through their own experiences in civic participation.

Social Justice through Social Studies

At its core, CISS aims to disrupt inequities that have been reinforced through traditional narratives in social studies classes by encouraging students to identify injustices and investigate their causes. Besides serving as a vehicle for these concepts and content, CISS can be used to support academic, social-emotional, and civic outcomes particularly for diverse groups of students. Critical pedagogy supports the learning of all students, but affords particular benefits to students of color by promoting social justice and anti-racist pedagogy (Chandler & Hawley, 2017; de los Rios, Lopez, & Morrell, 2015; Ladson-Billings, 2003; Leonardo & Grubb, 2013; Tyson, 2003). Westheimer & Kahne (2004) studied the impact of civic action on high school students in a West Coast school that was socioeconomically, linguistically, and ethnically diverse, with forty percent of students living in public housing. The study found that when students pursued justice-oriented community action projects, they felt greater civic agency and power to make change.

Additionally, inquiry intersects with strategies proven to promote academic outcomes for English learners (ELs), students who are socially and culturally diverse, and students with learning differences. In their meta-analysis of ten studies of culturally responsive literacy practices, Piazza, Rao, and Protacio (2015) found positive impacts of such practices, as would be included in a critical inquiry approach, for students with learning disabilities, ELs, and socioculturally diverse learners across the skills of collaboration, dialogue, visual representation, explicit instruction, and inquiry. Pang (2016) found that inquiry further supported the writing skills of ELs in addition to their content knowledge.

In sum, a critical perspective on social studies phenomena through inquiry practices benefits the

knowledge, skills, and dispositions of all students, promoting the development of critically-thinking and engaged citizens and supporting teaching for social justice. This is particularly true for students of color (Flynn, 2012), who are traditionally marginalized by social studies content (Crowley & King, 2017; Ladson-Billings, 2003). As students participate civically, these skills are reinforced (Bean & Dunkerly-Bean, 2016). When students simultaneously develop skills and knowledge, it can have a liberating effect (Freire, 1970), which completes the “civic trinity” of learning knowledge, skills, and dispositions through CISS. CISS not only contributes to the learning of diverse students, but also to the critical perspective of students from dominant groups, which ultimately supports the missions of democratic and social justice education (Davis & Steyn, 2012; Leonardo & Grubb, 2013).

Conclusion

The tools of critical inquiry, when employed in social studies curriculum and instruction, can be powerful change agents in encouraging students to ask questions about people and institutions in power, critique oppressive and unjust systems, and plan for taking action to change their community and their world. As social studies educators, we bear the responsibility for preparing the next generation of citizens and instilling democratic principles of inquiry, agency, and activism in order to secure a more perfect, more equal, and more just union. Students cannot be expected to develop these skills without explicit practice, which are at home in social studies spaces, as embodied by the framework of CISS. We must provide opportunities for students to engage critically with their history and their world in order to prepare them for real social change.

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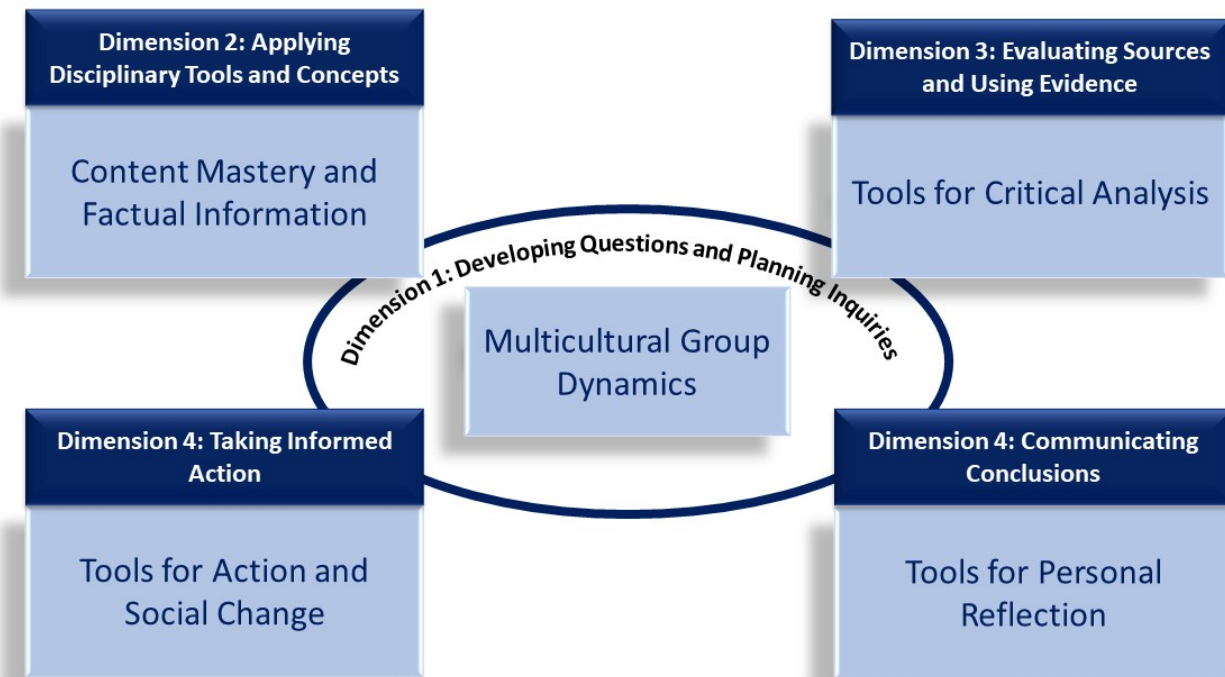
Appendices

Appendix A: Critical inquiry in action.

The table compares a hypothetical unit on World War II using inquiry without and with a critical approach.

	Inquiry	Critical Inquiry
Compelling Question	How does war change a nation?	How does war change a nation?
Disciplinary Tools, Content Mastery	<p>Primary Sources (speeches from Hitler, Roosevelt, Truman; Photographs of the Yalta and Potsdam conferences, etc.)</p> <p>Economic statistics comparing the U.S., France, Germany, Britain, Japan, and U.S.S.R. before, during, and after World War II</p> <p>Maps and demographic statistics before and after the war</p>	<p>Primary Sources (first-hand accounts of Japanese internment, segregation of the military, Navajo code breakers; Executive Order 9066; etc.)</p> <p>Economic and employment statistics by race and ethnic group before and after the war</p> <p>Maps and demographic statistics by race and ethnic group before and after the war, examining “white flight” and redlining</p>
Evaluating Sources & Critical Analysis	Students evaluate the Compelling Question through the lens of each major nation, using evidence to analyze how each nation was changed by the war.	Students read and analyze excerpts from <i>Korematsu v. United States</i> or Executive Order 9981 (military desegregation) to analyze the actions that people took to address injustices brought to the forefront during the war.
Communicating Conclusions & Taking Informed Action	Essay prompt: How does war change a nation? Write an essay in which you identify significant changes that a country experiences due to war, weigh the positive and negative effects of such changes, and draw conclusions about the overall positive or negative outcomes of World War II for the United States.	Essay prompt: How does war change a nation? Write an essay in which you identify key changes that the United States experienced on the home front during World War II, evaluate whether or not those changes were positive or negative, and draw conclusions about the short- and long-term effects of World War II on the United States.

Appendix B: Components of Critical Inquiry in Social Studies



Adapted from Heather Hackman, "Five Essential Components for Social Justice Education"(2005).

Opportunities for Social Justice in a

C3 Inquiry

Dimension 1:

- **Power of the word "should"**: Allows students to take a position and be critical (Should D.C. be a state? How should a government treat its people? When should a president be impeached?)
- Use Compelling Questions to **turn a common phrase or concept on its head** (Ex: Were the enlightened leaders truly enlightened? Does progress help everyone? Who protects freedom better, the people or the government?)
- Allow students to **ask their own questions** to drive their inquiry (Recommended: Question Formulation Technique (QFT) by the Right Question Institute)

Dimension 2:

- Use sources from a **variety of perspectives** and ask **questions analyzing perspective and power** with texts
- Use **sourcing activities to compare** different perspectives of an event
- Incorporate a **variety of topics** – standards can be wide open or very narrow; plan for these crucial connections
- Practice **predicting long- and short-term effects** on different groups of people (role playing, simulations, etc.)

Dimension 3:

- Provide students with examples of people who took informed action relevant to your course content and **explicitly note these efforts** (What were they trying to change? Why were they or were they not successful? How might this have gone differently in another time or place?)
- Engage students in conversation about **issues, problem solving, and argumentation and rhetoric** (role playing and simulations, allowing scenarios to play out)
- Make **authentic connections to the present** through skills and activism
- Foster a culture of **student voice, respect, and questioning**

Dimension 4:

- **Authentic opportunities** can be found at the local, regional, national, and global level – History repeats itself! Skills learned through exploring the past can be applied to the present.
- **Empower students to dare to question, critique, and act** within their context – Encourage them that they are *right* to question what they do not understand or what they find unjust or unfair

Allow students **time to reflect** on and process their learning after experiences where they have taken action or learned about tools for change

Appendix C: Critical Inquiry Probing Question Stems**Questions for taking/experiencing perspectives:**

- How did the context of [this period] impact [the actions of] _____?
- What was the experience of [X group] during [this time] as demonstrated by _____?
- How does the experience of [X group] during [this time] compare to today?
- How does the experience of [X group] during [this time] compare to that of [Y group]?
- If you were in _____'s position, what would you be [feeling/thinking]? What would you do? How would you react to [X event]?
- How much power did _____ have in this situation? Why?
- Should _____ have [taken X action]? Why or why not?

Questions for analyzing power:

- How much power did _____ have in this situation? Why?
- Who had power in [this situation]? Why?
- Who was powerless in [this situation]? Why? What prevented them from obtaining power?
- How did the power dynamics of _____ shift during [this time]? What actions or events contributed to this shift?
- How did _____ demonstrate power in [this scenario]?
- What kinds of oppression were present during [this time]? What evidence is there of this?
- What was the power structure of [this time and society] like? What evidence is there of this?
- How does the power dynamics of [X time period] compare to [today]?
- How did the power dynamics of [this context] impact the choices available to _____?

- Who was privileged during this time? How did that impact the choices they had [in X scenario]?
- How did [the government/other institutions] [support/oppress] [X group]?
- What was the long-term impact of [the government]'s policies towards [X group]? What consequences would this have on future generations?
- How did [X action] impact [Y group]? [Z group]? Why would their experiences [be similar/different]?

Questions for analyzing change:

- What were the goals of _____ in [taking X action]?
- What motivated _____ to [take X action]?
- Why did _____ choose to [take X action] instead of [y action]?
- What were the outcomes of [taking X action] on _____? How did that [help them reach their goals/prevent them from reaching their goals]?
- How could _____ have been more successful? What prevented them from reaching their goals in [their historical context]?
- Should _____ have [taken X action]? Why or why not?
- Was [the government/other institutions in power] right to [take X action]? Why or why not?

Questions for analyzing resistance:

- How did _____ demonstrate resistance against _____?
- What was the impact of _____'s resistance?
- Why did _____ choose to [take X action] under these circumstances?
- What other alternatives did _____ have to demonstrate resistance?
- Should _____ have [taken X action]? Why or why not?

Questions for reflection:

- What lessons can be learned from _____'s experience?
- How does _____'s experience compare to [your own community/context]?
- What problems still exist today that stem from _____? What actions can be taken to address this injustice?
- How can you advocate for change to solve [X issue] in our [community/society]?
- What parallels can you draw between [X time period] and [Y issue] today?
- How should _____ be remembered?

How do you feel about _____'s actions in [this context]? Do you think they were right to do what they did?

Using Visual Sets to Open Inquiry on the Holocaust

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Introduction

The College, Career, and Civic Life Framework (C3) calls upon educators to implement a new paradigm for planning and delivering social studies instruction. One of the foundational shifts accompanying this new framework involves the move away from planning for individual class periods and towards extended inquiry. The new curricular design frameworks focus on content and skills in the context of structured inquiries that enable exploration rather than coverage, and that adequately respond to students' prior knowledge.

Educators may struggle with this distinction, holding to a traditional focus on designing lessons that fit snugly within a 40-90 minute block. This adherence is perfectly reasonable; schools continue to follow a rigid bell schedule and other concerns, such as testing, mean that students still need to “cover” certain material. However, the potential of the C3 Framework to deconstruct instructional planning and explore big questions over extended periods of time warrants greater attention.

Through our regular classroom teaching with pre- and in-service teachers and summer professional development seminars for practicing teachers, we use the Holocaust as an opportunity to demonstrate the potential for inquiry-based curriculum design. We have found that the activity in this paper offers a chance to model the opening of an inquiry related to a compelling question: “How did the Holocaust happen?”

In the activity described in this article, we use primary source material to engage learners in an activity that can fit neatly within an inquiry on the

Holocaust or—with different source material—any other content area. The activity focuses around a compelling question, uses various source materials, and results in teachers (or students) sharing their current understanding of the Holocaust. We find that this successfully models the four dimensions of the Inquiry Arc, with particular relevance to staging a compelling question.

Visual Representations of Holocaust Understanding

Asking students to create a picture demonstrating their understanding is a fairly common practice. Creating a pictorial collage of the Holocaust is not so commonplace, but creates a vivid starting point for intensive learning that examines “where” students are in their own understanding. We agree with the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum (2019) that “all learners bring preconceived notions about the Holocaust” to their classrooms, and that “it is important to know these preconceptions so [teachers] can create lessons that move the students from the simple to the complex and encourage an understanding of not only what happened, but also how and why the Holocaust happened.”

Crane (2008) and others have reminded us that the subjects of Holocaust photography were almost never “willing subjects” (p. 329). And so introducing photographic activities to teachers and students should cause them to consider that they are looking through the perpetrator’s or bystander’s lens—unable—if not unwilling—to help. Additionally, exposure to the photographic history plays a role in shaping the knowledge and memories that people hold about

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the Holocaust (p. 330). The effects of this photographic exposure are not new. Sackett (2006) reminds us that the camera lens is neutral in its capacity for empathy and that camera angles shape the meaning and create the implications of Holocaust photography.

Such was the case when Gerhard Schoenberner published *Der gelbe Stern*, the first folio of Holocaust atrocity photos in 1960. The early appearance of this book created what Sackett calls “West Germany’s public culture of memory and mourning” (p. 531). Introducing photographic activities into Holocaust instruction necessarily creates a classroom culture of memory and mourning as well. Chaitin and Steinberg explore this idea through an extensive literature review in their 2014 work on social and collective memory of trauma. The juncture of historical Holocaust photographs into modern Holocaust education propels this history into the social media age, where we have a “surplus of imagery and capability of viewing” it so that the history takes on a real-time element (Morrison, 2009, p. 64). Learners not only have digital access to the photograph sets used in classrooms, but they have access to thousands more through online databases. The narratives and memories created by these photographs, therefore, shape the understanding of what we learn and teach about the Holocaust.

In the following sections we review a classroom activity that asks learners to create and share narratives using primary source photographs. The lessons from these narratives are then explored, and we close with suggestions for how educators can leverage the activity in other ways.

Classroom Activity

The Maryland Holocaust Educators Network gathers 20 P-16 educators each summer for an intensive one-week institute on teaching the Holocaust and social justice. We open our seminar with a photo activity from the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum. The activity includes

30 black-and-white photographs from 1933-1945, spanning the years most commonly associated with the Holocaust. Images depict a range of events from the mundane to the horrific, from the well-known to the obscure. The photo sets and associated materials (e.g., discussion prompts) are available for free download (USHMM 2019a; USHMM, 2019b).

In groups of 3-4, participants review the images for patterns. Teachers must collaborate in their group to create a six-frame photo collage that represents their understanding of the Holocaust. They have 30 minutes to identify six images that they believe tell an important story of the Holocaust, organize those images into a logical presentation, and prepare an oral presentation for the rest of the class. We provide large post-it notes for groups to organize their photos. Groups can annotate the images or their post-it notes to title their set, explain things like movement, or to connect images to each other. Because all of the groups work from the same set of photographs, they often select one or two of the same pictures.

Such a task is simultaneously intriguing and perilous. For one, it offers an opportunity to see what teachers think and believe about the Holocaust while shaping the belief perceptions of their activity partners. The photo set may plant ideas of the Holocaust that teachers hadn’t thought of before (Chaitin, & Steinberg, 2014). Conversely, the photo set is limiting because it constrains the visual and, therefore, the historical choices teachers can make while also presenting personal and ethical considerations. For instance, the photo set inherently limits the number and types of images that students can work with. The extent to which students identify such limitations offers another opportunity for teachers to highlight ways of working with these materials. In the next section we examine important lessons that emerge from the activity.

Learning from Visual Sets

We include visuals from four sample visual sets. Having conducted these activities with numerous cohorts in our summer seminar, in K-12 schools, and at conferences, we argue that these sets are representative of the types of work generated during the activity. Hence, they are broadly representative of how people might use the visual sets to demonstrate their preconceived understanding of the Holocaust. Resulting presentations are thematic almost by necessity, as learners work to identify patterns and give a formal title to their work.

In organizing their photo sets, learners will use one of four organizing principles. Visual sets will either be presented in ways that seek to provide an overview of the entire time period (1933-1945), or will focus on a particular theme within a smaller sliver of time. Visual sets highlight the extent to which the Holocaust represented a departure from “normal” or “good” life. Visual sets will call attention to atrocities that occurred during the Holocaust. Finally, visual sets will frequently end with the concentration camps.

With these tendencies in mind, a teacher can use this activity as quick student-led pre-assessment of knowledge, assumptions, and understanding of the Holocaust. Knowing what patterns are likely to emerge will allow a teacher to prepare responsive instruction to build on students’ existing understandings. Based on more than 50 visual sets created in different settings, we have identified a familiar set of recurring themes. We report those themes here, so that readers may enter the activity more prepared.

Timeline vs. Snapshot

In perhaps the most common juxtaposition in understanding the Holocaust, students will generate photo sets that either follow chronological progressions or that demonstrate a thematic understanding. In chronological presentations, students use the photographs to tell “the history” of

the Holocaust. Often, this involves starting with life before the Holocaust, incorporating images that represent events during the Holocaust, and culminating with images of liberation or other concluding events.

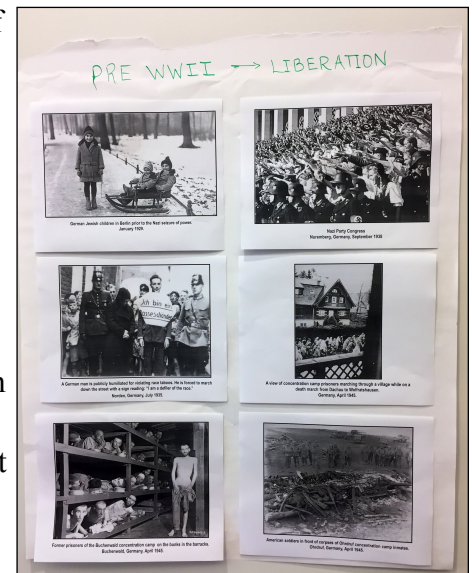
In one example of this chronological presentation, a group used images to depict life from before World War 2, through the Holocaust, and culminating with liberation.

This group presents a direct chronological understanding of

the Holocaust, using images of daily life, discrimination, groupthink, imprisonment, and camp liberation. Their chosen liberation scene highlights the atrocities that Allied soldiers witnessed at the camps and

elsewhere. As with other chronological presentations, there is little attention to the context of life before or after the war. We can also notice that the group jumps 10 years in their presentation, from 1935 to 1945; they omit some of the most important events at the center of Germany’s establishment and implementation of the Final Solution. Thus, this presentation of the Holocaust becomes a time-lapse of sorts, and creates an opening for extended inquiry. The supplemental question to ask becomes, “What is happening within the time lapse?”

Students may choose to organize their photo sets into themes. A thematic orientation identifies a common thread among certain images that tell “the story” of the Holocaust. Stories can address certain groups (e.g., children), events (e.g., atrocity), or even concepts (e.g., complicity). It is important to note



that thematic representations are not necessarily more complex or accurate than chronological representations. It is also important to note that within a given theme, students may still present a chronological progression.

For instance, in a photo set they titled “Innocence Lost” one group decided to address a thematic chronology of children’s experience during the Holocaust.



This representation begins from a simplification of pre-war life: children playing in the snow. From there, a series of five photographs involving young people moves the viewer through specific acts of discrimination, social chaos, and resulting negative

consequences. As mentioned, the necessarily limited nature of the available photographs does constrict the possible choices; however, groups would be welcome to point out those limitations in their presentation or to avoid them altogether by developing a different presentation. When groups fail to make those steps, the teacher has additional opportunities for discussions about working with these sources.

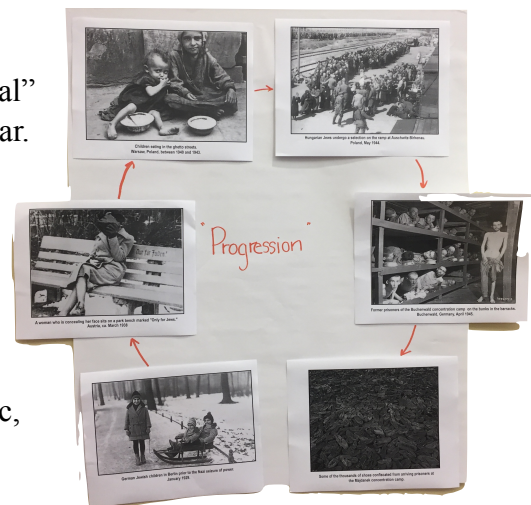
This photo narrative leaves no room for the stories of rescue or resistance and, thus, suggests an inevitability, a loss of individual choices, and a certain demise. This narrative offers an opportunity to talk about the roles of individuals within the broad scope of events. Not limited to the Holocaust, it is important for students to identify points of choice, agency, and action when exploring human rights. Such points reinforce ideas that individuals can be

complicit. Approached from a perspective of rescue or resistance, attention to the individual shows how community members can act as upstanders. To extend a conversation on this point, we would follow up with a supplemental question such as “Can innocence be regained?” Such a question can lead to investigations of remembrance and forgiveness, two prominent concepts in Holocaust studies.

Contrasting the Holocaust with a Decontextualized “Good Life”

Students and teachers often treat the Holocaust as a unique event in the history of the world. This sense that the Holocaust as unique often emerges as students highlight and potentially overstate the extent to which these events broke normal life in Germany during the 1930s and 1940s. In a representative set of this stance, a group used photographs to explore a chronological progression.

This set begins with an image of “Normal” life before the war. This oversimplifies the realities of life in Germany around the Weimar Republic, and removes attention to important historical



context. From there, five images form a circle. We see scenes of hunger, imprisonment, and death. From this presentation, we can form supplemental questions such as “Progress for whom?”

Concluding with an image of prisoners’ shoes, we are left with an overwhelming sense of loss. This group presents the Holocaust as a clean and methodical—though terrible—movement through specific discrete stages. With no images of life after

the killings, we are left to presume that none survived, or perhaps that the world had continued in that final state of sadness and death. This seems to fetishize death in the way that Elie Wiesel and others warn against.

Role of Atrocity

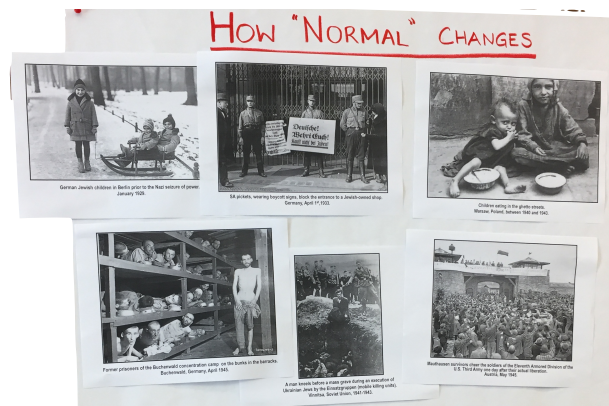
Much of what people implicitly know about the Holocaust comes from images of atrocity. Inextricably linked with visuals of camps, train cars, barbed wire, and poor living conditions, the Holocaust often conjures such images of suffering. In presenting their understandings through image sets, students may focus on the enormity of events and emotions surrounding the Holocaust. Within this theme we see general chronology.

Attention to atrocity can be useful in predicting a general alignment with stages of genocide, offering an opportunity to integrate that specific framework over their existing schema. Interestingly, this example also predicts a relationship with Holocaust denial. This group reminded the class that questions about the Holocaust did not end with liberation. Much of Holocaust study and presentation must unfortunately address ongoing denial, from individuals, groups, or countries. The USHMM, for example, provides an overwhelming message that these events really did happen. Questions of denial offer an excellent opportunity to investigate “never again” and to integrate contemporary examples of anti-Semitism specifically or ongoing hatred generally. A direct question such as “Why would people pretend this did not happen?” can lead to deep conversations about the relevance of the historical record in contemporary society.

Concluding in Camps

The last common theme that we see across photo set activities highlights a tendency to end our understanding of the Holocaust in concentration and death camps. “How ‘Normal’ Changes” explores the idea of normalcy shifting over time. In doing so, it implicitly asks us to think about the normalization of

atrociousness as a gradual progression. One natural supplemental question from this presentation, “What are the steps towards injustice?” can engage students in a review of the connection between everyday actions such as bullying and more systematic persecution.



The photo set begins with a bucolic photo of Jewish children playing in 1925 Berlin. This follows with SA blockading a Jewish store in 1933. We then fast forward nearly 10 years to the heart-wrenching image of starving children in the Warsaw ghetto. The progression moves from suffering children to the suffering prisoners of Buchenwald. The next photo actually goes backwards in time several years to suggest the normalization of the Einsatzgruppen--mobile killing squads--that terrorized Eastern Europe. Finally, the photo essay ends with cheering prisoners at Mauthausen as American soldiers arrive. It is interesting that this collage ends within the camps, stopping short of including a true image of liberation, such as displaced persons enroute to Israel.

Discussion

Using the language of the C3 Framework, the visual sets activity helps to stage the compelling question. Staging the question involves activities that hook students’ attention and interest. The best staging activities also offer teachers an opportunity to gauge students’ background knowledge, assess any misconceptions, and identify potentially new points of interest for the subsequent inquiry. The

visual sets activity described above helps teachers achieve all three goals. But the activity also calls to attention certain assumptions that may be particular to the Holocaust. Three of these warrant additional attention here.

First, the tendency for learners to conclude their sets with suffering and loss. Even in presentations that do not end with images of concentration or extermination camps, learners often conclude with a sense of mourning over what was lost. Though we certainly do not seek to celebrate the Holocaust as a positive event, we are concerned by the lack of hope present in many of these sets. Hope is a hallmark of resistance, survival, and the broader genre of Holocaust literature. Many of the provided photographs show images of hope and resilience, such as Jewish families maintaining elements of their lives and culture. That groups inconsistently identify hopeful scenes may suggest their attention to atrocity. This activity can thus remind teachers to help students find points of optimism and action.

Second, there is a reactive tendency to try and capture all of the Holocaust. The activity in this article is necessarily limiting, tasking students to represent their understanding through only six images. Reviewing the activity may present the tendency to over-correct and try to account for every aspect of the Holocaust. Such a correction would counter understandings of the Holocaust as a “limit event” (Gigliotti, 2003). Limit events are events so extreme that they cannot be understood by people who did not experience them. When encountering such events, it is often necessary to compartmentalize pieces of the event to allow examination and reflection. In these situations, oversimplifications such as those in the visual sets

presented here are useful in generating schema to help individuals examine and begin to make sense of the past.

Third, a potential emerges for presentations to focus on the “best” presentation of the visual sets. It is worth noting again that none of the presentations is complete or exhaustive. Teachers should take care that the activity is not offered as a competition, but rather as a chance to learn where members of a classroom are in terms of their relative understanding and preconceptions of the event. Hence, presentations are not graded based on the creativity of a title or the variety of images selected. If students demand criteria, we suggest focusing on the extent to which their selected images are coherent within and with their identified theme. Focusing students on those concepts increases the likelihood of meaningful discussions regarding the limited nature of the photo sets, how people must work with incomplete information, and thoughtful ways to do that work.

The value of this activity lies in drawing out existing beliefs or understandings about the Holocaust. Through the forced organizing of primary source images, students must grapple with what they know about the Holocaust, what images stand out to them as valuable, and form their own arguments to begin answering the question “How did the Holocaust happen?” The activity lends itself to generating new questions and avenues for further study that can help to guide a unit of variable length. Used with other source photographs, the activity has broad applicability to a range of content areas or purposes.

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Comparing the Perspectives of Social Studies and English Teacher Candidates Regarding Primary Source Pedagogy

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Introduction

In an effort to provide a more holistic approach to teaching and learning, some secondary schools in the United States have adopted interdisciplinary courses combining social studies and English. A few years ago, the secondary teacher preparation program in which the author was teaching instituted a novel approach to the senior methods class by combining the methods courses in social studies and English. As the instructor for the combined course, the author adopted an approach to teaching that nurtured cross-curricular connections. This approach reflected the recommendation in the C3 Framework for Social Studies (NCSS, 2013) to foster connections between social studies education and the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts.

One of the pedagogies that the author viewed as equally powerful for both future social studies and English teachers was the use of primary sources. She was very interested in learning the students' views on the benefits and challenges of using primary sources, the role of primary sources in their respective curricular areas, and their intended use of primary sources in the future. She decided to gather the students' opinions via a questionnaire at the beginning and end of the course. This article shares the author's reflections on the results of that questionnaire. First, the following section situates this discussion within the existing literature on primary source use in English and social studies courses.

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Review of the Literature

Primary sources in the English classroom

One might conceptualize the entire canon and much of the English curriculum as composed of primary sources since works of literature represent artifacts written at a particular place and time. This interpretation is consistent with the view of the two leading professional curriculum organizations in the United States for English teachers, the National Council for Teachers of English (NCTE) and the International Reading Association (IRA), who state in their jointly-authored standards that, “Literary works...are a living archive of a history of philosophical, ethical, and aesthetic thought” (1996, p. 21).

While the exact term, “primary sources,” does not appear in the Standards for the English Language Arts (1996), at least three of the ten standards infer a place for primary sources in the English classroom by asking that students “read a wide range of print and nonprint texts...from many periods in many genres” and “conduct research...and gather, evaluate, and synthesize data from a variety of sources” (standards 1, 2, & 7). To address the standards, English teachers might employ “print” primary sources such as letters, slave narratives, diaries, and newspapers as well as “nonprint texts” such as political cartoons, maps, artwork, and posters. Moreover, English students might find newspapers, historical literary criticism, and autobiographies as rich data sources for research.

The professional literature reveals myriad ways in which English teachers have used primary sources effectively in their classrooms. For example, Barr (1975) and Aldridge (1980) encourage teachers to use historical documents as inspiration for students’ writing. Barr (1975) asserts that primary sources “make effective tools for teaching English” (p. 6) and suggests that students be asked to compile a set of primary sources on a given topic as the basis for generating a thesis statement and supporting details.

Aldridge (1980) describes how she used a historic ship’s manifest as the springboard for an inquiry unit on immigration which concluded with students assuming the persona of one of the immigrants and writing letters to hypothetical family members back home.

In addition to facilitating the teaching of writing, primary sources can also contribute information about the historical context of a novel or the time period in which a piece of literature was written. Claxton and Cooper (2000) note that digital primary sources “...will help students see history through the eyes of people living it” (p. 102). These authors believe that understanding the historical background can increase students’ appreciation for pieces of literature. Rather than relying on secondary accounts of historical events or places to provide this contextual information, Claxton and Cooper (2000) see value in the use of primary sources such as maps, audio files, documents, and digital versions of historical literature to accomplish the same result.

Historical sources can also serve as examples of concepts in the English curriculum. For instance, Beckelheimer (2010) draws on primary sources to teach rhetoric:

Rarely does a student think first of historical nonfiction as an example of rhetoric. Yet when I pose examples such as Vietnam poetry or Nazi documents, their eyes light up with understanding... Regardless of what texts they are analyzing, students must consider the rhetorical situation of the historical event or events as well. (p. 56)

Beckelheimer (2010) also finds historical texts an appealing resource for English teachers because they represent multiple genres and “are authentic and therefore more familiar to students than traditional texts used in English classes such as anthologies and textbooks” (p. 59).

While research on the use of primary sources in English classes is lacking, the practitioner literature cited above reveals that primary sources have a role to play in achieving the objectives of the English curriculum. Support for the use of primary sources in English classrooms can also be found on the websites of some libraries and museums. For example, the website of the Folger Shakespeare Library features a sizable collection of digital primary sources categorized by theme or Shakespearean work.

Primary sources in the social studies classroom

The recommendation to use primary sources in the teaching of social studies and history possesses a long tradition. In his analysis of five early methods textbooks for history instruction published between 1896 and 1902, Saxe (1994) argues that two of the five methods books argue strongly for the use of the “source method” as the pre-eminent instructional strategy in the teaching of history. Barnes’ (1899) definition of the “source method” (as summarized by Saxe) closely aligns with our understanding of primary source pedagogy today: “a thorough examination of original sources through the application of systematic tools of analysis” (Saxe, 1994, p. 486). Fling and Caldwell’s (1897) methods text found the “source method” superior to the dominant narrative-recitation methods of the day because it offered an active instructional approach in which students interrogated source materials for authenticity and reliability before constructing a historical narrative (Saxe, 1994, p. 492).

Over a century later, academic standards published by the leading United States professional curriculum organizations in social studies and history echo the assertion that developing historical thinking skills in students is a central goal of Social Studies curricula (National Council for the Social Studies, 2010; National Center for History in the Schools, 1996). In fact, the C3 Framework of the National Council for the Social Studies places inquiry “at the heart of social studies” (2013). The National Council

for History Education (NCHE) likewise affirms that instruction in history should be rooted in developing the historian’s “habits of mind,” that is, the ways in which historians think about and interact with primary sources (Bradley Commission on History in Schools, 1987). A multitude of resources for the use of primary sources in social studies classrooms can be found in textbooks, commercial curriculum packages, and online at the digital collections of the National Archives and Records Administration and Library of Congress.

Social studies scholars today advocate the analysis of primary sources as a “best practice” in the field of social studies education (Friedman, 2006; Hartzler-Miller, 2001). Researchers such as Wineburg (2001) have identified the ways of thinking employed by historians. Moreover, the National Council for the Social Studies forefronts students’ development of historical thinking in its C3 Framework. Contemporary researchers assert that primary sources have a central role to play in developing students’ ability to engage in historical thinking (Levstik & Barton, 2005; VanSledright, 2002; Wineburg, 2001). Historical thinking requires students to “do history” by raising questions about primary sources and understanding that history is an interpretive exercise (Levstik & Barton, 2005). Furthermore, historical thinking necessitates that students remain “undaunted by indeterminate evidence trails” and “reasonably secure in understanding that exploring history is a fickle and temperamental enterprise” (VanSledright, 2002, p. 1096). Much support exists in the pedagogical literature to help teachers foster these thinking patterns in students (e.g. Levstik & Barton, 2005; Mandell & Malone, 2007; Wineburg, Martin, & Monte-Sano, 2011).

Despite the existing theoretical and material support for using primary sources in the teaching of social studies and history, research on teachers’ actual use of primary sources reveals a disconnect between theory and practice. While voicing a belief

in the value of primary sources, teachers do not tend to incorporate them in classroom instruction extensively or regularly (Fehn & Koeppen, 1998; Hicks, Doolittle, & Lee, 2004; Lee, 2002).

In addition to examining the frequency of use of primary sources, a few studies have addressed how in-service social studies teachers use primary sources (digital and/or non-digital) in their classrooms. Research by Hicks, Doolittle, and Lee (2004) concluded that, “teachers used the primary sources as an alternative resource to reinforce key names, dates, terms, and facts that are typically found within the textbook” (p. 230). Although the respondents stated that they valued inquiry-based pedagogy, “fewer than half of the teachers indicated that they had students analyze primary sources to interrogate historical data based on the context in which a source was created or to assess a source’s credibility, authority, or authenticity” (p. 225). Tally and Goldenberg (2005) argue that, “For many teachers, it is common to use historical images simply as illustrations of established fact, rather than as data from which to reason about the past” (p. 4). Friedman’s (2006) study of six world history teachers confirmed the use of digital primary sources by a majority of teachers as an “additive” to teacher-centered lectures and discussions rather than as the core of a student-centered inquiry activity. For example, the teachers used primary sources such as photographs to “...add zing to their Powerpoint or give students something to look at during a lecture” (p. 138). These studies affirm VanSledright’s (2002) evaluation of the predominant teaching mode in social studies classrooms, “The obsession appears to be with the products of historical study, not with the practice of doing it” (p. 1091).

While the majority of existing research on primary sources and their use in the social studies classroom has focused on in-service teachers, a few studies have considered the beliefs and practices of pre-service social studies teachers regarding primary sources. Fehn and Koeppen (1998) examined the

influence of a social studies methods course infused with primary sources on the attitudes and practice of pre-service secondary teachers during student teaching. All of the teacher candidates in their study looked favorably upon the use of primary sources and used them in their student teaching in a variety of ways: to enliven instruction, supplement text, and have students interpret and analyze documents.

In their social studies methods course, Waring and Torrez (2010) modeled the use of primary sources for pre-service elementary teachers. The pre-service teachers, many of whom had never worked with primary sources, reported having a positive experience interacting with primary sources and realized their potential in the classroom. The researchers found that working with primary sources in the methods course had enhanced their students’ understanding of historical content in the following ways: a) made history real and “alive”; b) challenged their assumptions and beliefs; c) helped them understand content better; d) offered multiple perspectives; and e) fostered an interest in learning more.

This literature review reveals that professional curriculum organizations in both English and social studies deem primary sources valuable instructional tools for meeting curricular objectives. While more empirical studies have examined the use of primary sources by social studies teachers than English teachers, the practitioner literature provides teachers of both content areas a plethora of ideas and resources for incorporating primary sources into their lessons. The next section describes the university methods course and the pre-service teachers whose beliefs are shared in this paper.

Course Context

In two separate semesters, the author taught the combined social studies and English methods course for undergraduate students seeking secondary school certification at a mid-sized private university on the eastern seaboard of the United States. Nineteen

students were enrolled in the course over those two semesters: eleven females and eight males. The majority of the students were white; one female was African American. They had completed high school in a variety of states, including California, Colorado, Connecticut, New Jersey, New York and Pennsylvania. Twelve of the nineteen students were seeking English certification, while the remaining seven students were preparing to teach social studies.

Students take this required methods course during the semester immediately prior to student teaching. Field observations in the school in which they will complete their student teaching comprise an obligatory component of this course. The course meets once a week for 15 weeks. At least two class meetings were dedicated solely to the pedagogy of primary sources and students were required to incorporate primary sources into a curriculum unit project.

At the beginning and end of each semester, the author asked students to respond in writing to the following four questions:

- What do you believe to be the benefits of using primary sources in your content area?
- What do you believe to be the challenges in using primary sources in your content area?
- What do you perceive to be the role of primary sources in your curricular area?
- In what ways do you envision using primary sources, if at all, in your own classroom some day?

After collating the students' responses to each question, the author carefully read the compiled results looking for themes. The section below provides a discussion of the most common student responses.

Results

Perceived benefits of using primary sources

According to both the pre- and post-course surveys, the most often cited benefit of primary sources in the eyes of English teacher candidates was that they provided a historical context for the literature being studied in class. The students believed that understanding the historical context of a novel contributed to a greater understanding of the literature. Furthermore, primary sources had the potential to bring students closer to that historical context by, as one student expressed, "placing you squarely in a time period."

A second, related benefit mentioned by the English students was that primary sources could help students to "connect" with literature. The following two student characterizations of primary sources are representative of this theme: "Provide a sense of connecting to the people who were there" and "Gives students an opportunity to connect and humanize history, makes material relevant". The students expressed a belief that primary sources helped to make literature less abstract and distant and more relatable.

Students cited the "realness" of primary sources as a third benefit. The theme of "realness" resonates with the students' use of the word "original" in their definitions of primary sources. The following is a sampling of students' responses regarding why authenticity of primary sources is a benefit of their use in the English classroom [emphasis added]:

"It exposes the students to great works of literature from the original source without editors or commentators."

"Students are often interested in seeing 'the real things' as if they are secret windows to the past. They can trust them; they don't have to take their teacher's word for them."

“They [primary sources] give them [students] an exact account from a time they are trying to understand.”

The English teacher candidates seemed to value primary sources as unfiltered access to an author’s words or to a historical time period.

The social studies teacher candidates cited similar benefits for using primary sources in the classroom. Like their pre-service English peers, the pre-service social studies teachers believed that primary sources helped students to learn and understand their content area. The social studies respondents also valued the fact that primary sources were “first-hand accounts” of history. However, skill development comprised another benefit mentioned exclusively by the pre-service social studies teachers. These respondents stated that primary sources comprised useful tools for nurturing the following skills in their students: historical thinking, drawing one’s own conclusions, interpretation, research skills, and historical empathy. For the social studies teacher candidates, skill development was the most cited benefit of using primary sources.

Perceived challenges of using primary sources

The students’ responses to the question of challenges associated with using primary sources in the classroom also reveal both commonalities and differences. First, the challenge most often cited by pre-service teachers in both content areas was that primary sources were “difficult to understand.” Students from both certification areas cited difficult language and insufficient background knowledge of the historical period as reasons for why primary sources can be difficult and confusing to use in the classroom. Both groups also mentioned locating appropriate primary sources as a challenge.

An interesting difference between the two certification areas arises when we look at the challenges mentioned in their post-course surveys. The pre-service social studies teachers framed primary sources as “time-consuming,” a concern not

cited by their English certification peers. For instance, one social studies student remarked that primary sources take “a long time to prepare the class to be able to understand them,” while another wrote that primary sources, “take up a lot of time.” It is possible that these responses reveal an underlying tension in the social studies to “cover content” and also develop students’ historical thinking skills. The pre-service social studies teachers appeared more concerned with the additional time and instruction needed to incorporate primary sources into their teaching, but they did not raise concerns about how to integrate them properly, a challenge uniquely voiced by their peers seeking English certification. The following quotes illustrate the specific pedagogical issues stated by the English students:

“Properly choosing and integrating good primary sources”

“Using them correctly so students don’t get confused”

“How to properly employ them; appropriate time spent on them; making them relatable to the lesson”

While the methods course had attempted to balance examples of how to use primary sources in both the English and social studies curriculum, it seems that the English certification students desired more resources for how to adequately use them in the classroom.

Perceived role and intended use of primary sources

Given the benefits and challenges associated with using primary sources in the classroom, students were asked to indicate what role, if any, they believed primary sources should play in their respective curricular areas. Since the question was open-ended, some students responded by indicating the degree to which primary sources should be used, while others indicated the manner. A related question asked students how they intended to use primary

sources, if at all, in their classrooms. This last section of the findings is organized by the certification area of the respondents to facilitate discussion of whether or not the intended future uses of primary sources reflect the roles they assigned to primary sources.

Social studies teacher candidates

Perceived role of primary sources

As might be expected, all of the pre-service social studies teachers expressed the belief that primary sources comprised an important component of the social studies curriculum. They used the words “large,” “enormous,” and “major” to describe the role of primary sources in their content area. One student remarked, “they should be the linchpin of history/social studies,” while another commented that primary sources should be “the backbone of the curriculum.”

Students’ responses to both the pre- and post-course surveys revealed two major functions that they believed primary sources should play in the social studies classroom: to teach research and historiography skills, and to provide learners with access to original, first-hand accounts of history. First, the respondents saw primary sources as valuable in teaching young people how to “interpret [primary sources] as ‘historians’ to uncover the past.” Another student described historical inquiry in this way:

I believe that exposing students to the actual sources allows them to gain a strong grasp of what exactly the meaning is of the sources. Rather than simply explaining to the students, ‘this is what they say...’ - it gives them an opportunity to discover on their own.

The emphasis on skill development in the quote above is consistent with the students’ responses to the question of benefits associated with primary sources.

The second most often cited role of primary sources according to the social studies teacher candidates was providing an authentic window to the past. Note that the student cited above uses the words, “actual sources,” to refer to primary sources. Other students echoed this sentiment in their responses, asserting that primary sources:

“...allow students to gain a perspective of someone who witnessed the event.”

“...allow students to do research straight from the source.”

By incorporating primary sources in the social studies classroom, the pre-service teachers seem to feel that they are giving students access to something special: the foundation of whatever topic they are studying. This point is reminiscent of the English teacher candidates’ view that authenticity is one of the benefits of using primary sources.

Intended use of primary sources

All of the students in this study answered affirmatively to the question: “Do you plan to use primary sources in your own classroom someday?” A follow-up question asked the students to indicate in what ways they intended to use primary sources. Analysis of their responses to this question allows us to determine if the intended uses they cited align with the roles they assigned to primary sources. The responses of the pre-service Social Studies teachers reveal both consistencies and contradictions.

The question of intended use yielded a wide variety of examples of pedagogical uses for primary sources. For instance, the future social studies teachers intended to use primary sources in discussions, assessments, and assignments. In line with their vision of primary sources as tools for skill development, some students mentioned using primary sources to teach interpretation, historical thinking, and research. Also consistent with the stated role of primary sources as windows to the past, other pre-service teachers mentioned using

primary sources as a way to “have the students place themselves in that time period” and “experience the past.”

While the students mentioned an assortment of uses for primary sources, it is questionable whether these approaches represent the “enormous” or “major” role that students assigned to primary sources. Rather, their ideas for implementing primary sources in their lessons seem to suggest a supplemental rather than central role. Phrases such as “as material to help facilitate understanding,” “to help prove a point in lecture,” “to enrich discussions,” and “as reference points for secondary material,” imply an assistive role for primary sources rather than a central one.

English teacher candidates

Perceived role of primary sources

Like their peers seeking social studies certification, the English pre-service teachers saw an important place for primary sources in their curriculum. Two roles stood out among the students’ responses: a) using primary sources to provide context for the study of an author or time period; and b) using original texts as course readings. For the English classroom, the most often cited role for primary sources in both the pre- and post-course surveys was the use of primary sources to frame the study of a piece of literature. The students felt that understanding and appreciating an author’s work was enhanced by understanding not only the historical context in which the author wrote, but also how the author approached his or her work, i.e. the writing process. The following responses illustrate students’ perceptions of how primary sources could be used to provide historical and authorial context:

It is interesting to see first drafts of books and letters to/from authors because it gives students insight to the authors’ lives and shows their writing process (that they too made mistakes!).

They should play a regular role. Seeing an original play or a letter from an author explaining what he/she wanted to get out of their works can really help children understand literature better.

Drafts of literary works and personal correspondence by authors comprise authentic documentation which gives students access to the thoughts and voices of authors they will read and study.

The second most common vision for the use of primary sources in the English curriculum was the use of primary sources as course readings. While some students assigned primary sources the role of providing context, others saw primary texts as the core of the curriculum since, as one student asserted, “all texts are primary sources.” Another student echoed the sentiment writing, “Primary sources are paramount to all English classes. You cannot teach the class without reading the original texts.” In reading the students’ responses, it was clear that the students saw novels and works of literature as constituting primary sources. Did they believe that other types of primary sources could be used in the English classroom? Their responses to the question of intended use provide insight into this question.

Intended use of primary sources

A comparison of the English certification students’ pre- and post-course responses reveals that while using primary sources as course readings remained a popular intended use, the students also viewed primary sources as playing a supplemental role to course readings. Particularly in the post-course responses, students used phrases such as “to enhance understanding,” “to support text,” and “to supplement discussions.” These responses indicate a desire to use primary sources to complement the study of literature. Two specific forms of complementing main course readings are worthy of note (both appeared only in the post-course surveys). First, a third of the respondents mentioned using primary sources in “Do-Now’s” at the beginning of a lesson. This specific pedagogical technique had been

discussed in the methods course. Second, a quarter of the students stated that primary sources could be used to introduce an author, setting, or theme. Two of the three students who brought up this particular strategy had also included it in their response to the question of the role of primary sources in English. Using primary sources to introduce an author or setting is consistent with other students' mention of using primary sources to provide context for the study of a novel, for example.

Conclusion

The author is aware that students may have answered the questions in line with what they thought the professor expected. In addition, since students were not instructed to keep their answers to themselves, they may have influenced one another's responses by talking during the completion of the questionnaire. Although this investigation does not possess the reliability and validity of a research study, it nonetheless provides valuable insight into the ways in which one group of pre-service teachers views primary sources. While the students seemed to understand the benefits of primary source pedagogy and voiced clear intentions to use primary sources in their instruction, those intentions may not translate into effective implementation in the classroom. Methods instructors, administrators, professional development providers, and those mentoring new teachers can help provide the necessary support to bridge this gap between theory and practice.

Incorporating primary sources into lessons requires teachers to determine instructional objectives and then locate primary sources which support the achievement of those objectives, a task which some of the students in this study viewed as a challenge. Even pre-service teachers who are technologically savvy can benefit from instruction in where to look and how to effectively search the massive collections of online primary sources. Navigating the millions of digital primary sources available online can be a daunting task, especially

for pre-service and in-service teachers who are stretched for time. Methods course instructors can purposefully model search strategies with websites such as the Library of Congress and the National Archives and Records Administration. In addition, professors can incorporate into their courses resources such as the short professional development videos available on the Library of Congress website. These videos demonstrate how to search the online collections and use primary sources in the classroom.

The students discussed here also expressed concern that the sometimes archaic and difficult language of primary sources hindered their use in the classroom. The use of primary sources in the classroom necessitates a great deal of preparation, which pre-service teachers often overlook or underestimate. Preparing primary sources for use in the classroom involves not only selecting the "right" primary source, but also carefully choosing which portion of the text or image to share with students and scanning that section for vocabulary or historical references with which students might not be familiar. Methods courses might incorporate strategies for how pre-service teachers can scaffold instruction for their students regarding the reading and evaluation of source materials. Such scaffolding might include the creation of a glossary of unknown terms in the primary source or the inclusion of footnotes that mend any gaps in background knowledge needed to understand the primary source.

Other challenges cited by the pre-service teachers might be at least partially resolved through more interaction of pre-service teachers with primary sources themselves. Tally and Goldenberg (2005) suggest that "professional development programs in history and the humanities need to build teachers' skills in analyzing documents and images, as well as improving teachers' content knowledge of history" (p. 17). Methods instructors may feel pressed for time when it comes to teaching

about primary source use in their classes. However, pre-service teachers' interaction with primary sources can be extended to homework activities and course assignments. For example, instructors might require students to incorporate primary sources into lessons in their curriculum mini-units. In this way, they will gain practical experience in locating and preparing primary sources for very specific objectives.

The development of students' historical interpretation and analysis skills was one of the intended uses for primary sources cited by the social studies pre-service teachers. However, it is unclear what students meant by "historical thinking skills." Here, it is worthwhile to underscore that the inquiry process is an iterative one that involves more than just analysis. As Woyshner (2010) has indicated,

Too often historical inquiry stops short at teaching students to interpret primary sources devoid of context and without a repeating cycle that includes connecting their lives to the topic, wondering about it and its importance, and reflecting on what was learned and its significance. (p. 42)

Engaging in the historical inquiry process is a complex endeavor. Teaching pre-service teachers to employ the process in their future classrooms is likewise a challenging task. Scaffolding the process

for them in methods courses serves as one avenue through which they may learn the process themselves (Tally & Goldenberg, 2005).

While existing research has examined the perceptions and use of primary sources by social studies teachers, much less is known about how pre-service teachers view primary source use in the classroom. And yet, if methods instructors seek to impact the practice of teacher candidates, they should be concerned about students' thoughts on primary sources as well as their "apprenticeships of observation" (Lortie, 1975). Understanding the beliefs of pre-service teachers comprises an invaluable first step in influencing their pedagogical choices in secondary schools.

This article offers insight into the views of a select group of pre-service teachers and cannot be generalized beyond this specific context. However, it does provide a basis for designing research. In addition to gathering information via a questionnaire, future studies should include focus groups and follow-up interviews with students. Moreover, observation of teacher candidates during their student teaching semester would provide an opportunity to determine whether and how their thoughts on primary sources influenced their practice in the classroom. Scholars might also expand the research on primary sources beyond the field of social studies by studying the perspectives of pre-service teachers of English.

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Time Capsule

As this issue serves as the reintroduction of THE JOURNAL, we decided to share three articles from the archives.

Volume 50 of THE JOURNAL, published in 1953, marked the 50-year anniversary of the publication and its parent organization, the Middle States Council for the Social Studies. That volume, which broadly addressed the special topic of “Citizenship Education” included 18 original articles. Several of those articles provided an expansive review of the history of citizenship education. Others addressed current practices or needs. Finally, some articles attempted to predict the future of citizenship education in the social studies.

Here, we reproduce one article of each type:

1. Jessie C. Evans, a teacher at William Penn High School in Philadelphia, provides a review of the organization’s first 30 years (1903-1933).
2. George I. Oeste, of Germantown High School in Philadelphia, provides a review of the organization from 1933-1953.
3. John Krout of Columbia University offers his predictions for “the next 50 years” of the organization, forecasting from 1953-2003.

Together, we think these articles provide valuable glimpses at the long history and impact of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies generally and THE JOURNAL specifically. We hope you enjoy this look at past pieces.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE FIRST THIRTY YEARS OF THE ASSOCIATION

Jessie C. Evans

This paper, which was read by Miss Evans at the Thirtieth Anniversary of The Middle States Association of History Teachers (now the Middle States Council for the Social Studies), May 5, 1933, has been reprinted from the *Proceedings*, Volume XXXI, (1933), pages 3-10.

It has been a pleasure to me to go over the old programs and *Proceedings* of the Association because they recalled to me friendly contacts, familiar faces and moments of high inspiration. From the long sequence of years I have probably made a *personal* choice of the most significant things. Someone else might present a different picture.

The origin of the Association was the action taken by a small group at the fall meeting of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland at Syracuse in 1901. It was initiated by Miss Lucy M. Salmon of Vassar College, and the call was signed by E. H. Castle, E. W. Lyttle, Lucy M. Salmon, J. J. Sheppard, W. H. Mace, J. H. Robinson, and J. M. Vincent. Of those signing the original call three are still members of the Association: Dr. Mace, Dr. Robinson, and Dr. Vincent. When the meeting assembled it was called to order by Dr. A. C. Flick. Dr. James Harvey Robinson was elected chairman and Dr. E. H. Castle secretary. An executive committee was appointed, with Dr. Robinson as chairman, to make plans for the organization. This committee met in 1902 in New York and sent out circular letters to stir up interest. They planned the first annual meeting for March 13 and 14, 1903. That is the date which makes this our thirtieth anniversary.

The first few annual meetings are interesting as completing the form of organization. That of 1903 was held at Columbia University with Dr. Julius Sachs in the chair, because of the absence of Dr. Robinson. A constitution was adopted, Miss Salmon was elected as the first president, and Dr. Castle as secretary. Dr. Herman V. Ames, Dr. Sachs, Dr. Lyttle, Dr. Mace, and Dr. Van Sickle were elected to the Executive Committee. A program was presented. The meeting of 1904 was held March 11, 12, at the University of Pennsylvania. Dr. J. H. Van Sickle, Superintendent of Schools in Baltimore, was made president. At this early meeting there were already 125 members, of whom I was one. At the first annual meeting in 1903 the printing of *Proceedings* was started and two years later the plan for organization of local conferences as branches of the Association was adopted. These local conferences have continued to the present time, though they have not been extended to so many centers as was hoped then. The annual meetings were held in March until 1913, when

they began to vary between April and May, finally settling on the first week in May. An amendment to the constitution in 1911 permitted the Council to decide the time and place. The first November meeting in connection with the convention of Colleges and Preparatory schools, was held in 1912. Since that time it has been a regular affair. An amendment of the constitution in 1914 reorganized the Council, formerly the Executive Committee, including in it the ex-presidents and the representatives of the local conferences. Since then the *Proceedings* have usually reported the minutes of the Council. In 1916 the number of elected officers was increased to four, two elected annually for two years. I think it is only since the presidency of Dr. Lingelbach that the Council has met in the winter between meetings of the Association. This custom, unknown to the constitution, has helped greatly to give to the Association continuity of ideas and action.

Conventions of the Association have always been held on or near the coast. Efforts have been made to reach into the "back country", but each time it is considered, we realize that it means the loss of attendance of the eastern people, and, since these have been most active in the Association, we stay close to the water. Washington, Annapolis, Baltimore, Wilmington, Philadelphia, Trenton, New Brunswick and New York have been the favorites. There is an occasional trip to Easton, Buffalo, Syracuse, or Albany, but those are the farthest inland. So it has not been really a "Middle States Association." We have found too that our members do not travel! Each time the attendance is largely by the local people, and, as we swing up and down the coast, the officers find themselves looking at a changing audience. From the original 125 members we have increased to about 800 in these later years. The greatest increase has been during the incumbency of our present secretary. Yet meetings are small. We have learned not to be discouraged by that for the *Proceedings* carry the gospel to the absent 600, and they like it, for they continue to pay their dues and to attend when the Association comes to them. We acknowledge the kind hospitality of Johns Hopkins, Columbia, Bryn Mawr, Rutgers, Swarthmore, Haverford, Lincoln School, Tower Hill School, George Washington University, St. John's College, Lehigh, Princeton, Girard College and the College of the City of New York. The custom of having an historical excursion on Saturday afternoon following the luncheon is a variable one. Those which I have taken have so impressed me that I was surprised to find that they have been infrequent. Twice we have been conducted to historic spots in lower Manhattan. Once to old Germantown, under the leadership of Dr. McKinley. A trip to Doylestown to see the "Museum of Man's Work" and the interesting house of Dr. Mercer was much enjoyed by the small party which attended. The excursion to the Battlefield of the Brandywine in motors on a fine spring

day was most memorable. Two trips to the old part of Annapolis have been mentioned to me by several people as very enjoyable. One year we followed Washington's footsteps, or rather those of his horse, at Princeton and Trenton.

Of greatest interest is the history of our thinking during the thirty years. Our attention has always been divided between the demands of scholarship and those of teaching methods and procedures. The earlier years were perhaps most earnestly devoted to the cause of the teaching of history. The leaders were much concerned with the lack of training and scholarship among history teachers, with the lack of definite curricula, with the lack of agreement as to what should be taught. The Report of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association, issued in 1899, was slowly winning its way in supplying standards. However, letters in the file from superintendents of schools seem to indicate that the classes in history were given to any teacher who had spare time. Many schools had no regularly trained history teachers at all. Those who did teach it in high schools often had no college education. Courses offered were very meagre. The Association broke out into committees on every topic of concern which arose. At one time nine committees were listed in the *Proceedings*—some active—some born of a moment of enthusiasm only to languish, In 1914 there were:

Committee on College Board Examinations

Committee on the Teaching of Geography

Committee on the Teaching of Economics

Committee on the Selection of Materials for the Use of the History Teacher

Committee on the Training of Secondary School Teachers of History

Committee on Making History Teaching More Definite

In 1916 there appeared in addition:

Committee on the Teaching of Latin American History

Committee on Membership

In 1918 there were added:

Committee on the Teaching of History in Colleges

Committee to Cooperate with the National Committee on Historical Service (war information)

Some of these committees reported, others were silent. The Committee on the Training of Secondary School Teachers reported several times and finally printed a pamphlet on their findings. Later a report on model standards for state certificates to teach history was adopted. The Committee on Latin American History flowered in a syllabus presented by the chairman, Dr. Schuyler. In 1917 the Council was empowered to discharge the committees which had outlived their usefulness and the list was reduced.

In these early years the effort was directed to securing a better statement of content and a better teaching of that content. In 1919 the work of the American Historical Association Committee on History in the Schools led to a discussion of a radical rearrangement of the history curriculum. The report was ably defended by Dr. Bagley and Dr. Knowlton and led to discussion at more than one meeting. Since the World War the interest of the Association has been more equally divided between teaching and historical research. I find in these later years a larger proportion of scholarly papers. To appreciate them all one must re-read the *Proceedings*. Some which made a lasting impression on my memory were: "Territorial Problems of the Peace Conference," by Professor Douglass Johnson, "The New Constitutions of Europe," by Professor Lindsay Rogers, "Political Leaders of Present Day Europe," by Dr. Lingelbach, two addresses by Dr. Carelton Hayes on "Nationalism," Dr. Beard's Addresses at Baltimore and Annapolis, Dr. Cyril James on "Finance and World Affairs."

To attempt to name the distinguished speakers who have appeared before the Association during the years would be to make a list of most of the famous names in the historical field. Probably the most noted was James Bryce, who spoke to us in 1908, under the presidency of Dr. Herrick. His subject was "The Relations of Geography and History."

It is curious that the World War was ignored until our entry into it. Perhaps we were observing very literally President Wilson's request to be "neutral in words and deed"- But as soon as we entered the war the programs centered largely around it. In 1915, 1916 and 1917 we were still discussing the training of teachers, the fate of Ancient History, the Teaching of Latin American History and the support of the History Teachers' Magazine. Meantime the world rocked around us. In 1917 we began to talk about patriotism and the teaching of current events; in 1918 on the duty of history teachers to explain things to a puzzled world, especially in cooperation with Mr. Creel's Committee. Nowadays we have rather uneasy consciences about some of those activities! After 1919 we became international. Post war problems of Europe and the attitude of the United States towards them loomed large. Nationalism, Russia, the new governments of Europe appeared on the programs.

The present era in the teaching of history was ushered in, I suppose, by the publication of "The New History" by our revered former president, James Harvey Robinson. It began before the World War in the re-examination of the content of our courses. Ancient History and Colonial American History were perceived to be slipping and also English History as a separate course. Interest centered in Modern European History, recent American History and World History. The War, of course, gave impetus to this movement. The reorgan-

ization of educational theory which was proceeding at the same time led to a re-examination of our courses in the light of psychology and social needs. We gave much time to the discussion of the work of the Committee of the American Historical Association represented before us by Dr. Bagley and Dr. Knowlton. From 1920 to 1925 Dr. Dawson and Dr. Gambrill came to us twice with reports of their nation-wide surveys of the changes in progress. Finally Dr. Krey and Dr. Kimmel brought us discussions of the new committee work under the American Historical Association and allied associations which are planning a new course in social studies to fit the new age. Another type of growth which has been evident since the War is the broadening of our scope to include besides history the other social studies. A program very interesting to me was that at New Brunswick in 1922 when representatives of the various faculties presented to us the claims of Geography, Economics, Sociology, and Political Science. Since then, the discussions of Dr. Krey, Dr. Kimmel, and Dr. Rugg have grouped these in the new program of the social studies.

The effect of the new education and the new psychology is evident also in our interest in testing. A program at Lincoln School in 1923 presented new types of tests to gauge the products of history teaching other than information. At the November meeting in 1930 the experiments in testing being tried by the Krey Committee were explained.

We are proud of the distinguished names which grace our list of presidents. You have the list on your programs and several have returned to help us with our celebration tonight. Nearly all of them have kept up a continuing interest in the affairs of the Association over a period of years and each has made his contributions to our success. Time does not permit a review of each administration. I remember that Dr. Gambrill came to us at a particularly difficult time in our history and led in the reorganization of our affairs. Four of the presidents have passed on: Miss Lucy M. Salmon, Dr. James Sullivan, Dr. L. R. Schuyler, Dr. J. H. Latané. Miss Salmon, Professor of History at Vassar College, was the founder of the Association. Dr. Sullivan, first of the Boys' High School, Brooklyn, and later State Historian was twice president (the only one) and served one term as secretary. Dr. Schuyler, of the College of the City of New York, was not only president, but served twice as secretary. Dr. Latané, of Johns Hopkins University, was president in 1924-25 and kept up his interest to the last, attending the mid-winter council meeting just before his death.

Our plan of having a single year's term for the presidency puts the burden of steering the affairs of the Association largely on the shoulders of the secretary. The success of the organization has been largely determined by those who have continued to serve for a number of years. Especial praise

should be given them, for the secretary's task is inconspicuous and in that case virtue must be its own reward. Dr. Castle for five years steered the infant Association on its way. Dr. Johnson held on for six years and made us an established and influential concern. Dr. Dawson, having held the presidency, stepped down to the secretaryship and kept us going for three useful years. Without doubt the person who has done most for the Association is the present secretary, Miss Lena C. Van Bibber. For eleven years she has carried our burdens. May our thanks and appreciation persuade her to continue for many more! Under her guidance we have passed from a state of insolvency to one of comparative affluence. The membership has increased from 110 paid up members to about 800. The *Proceedings* have been improved and their circulation increased. Meetings of the Council three times a year have strengthened the organization greatly. The members of the council know better than the membership in general what her services have meant.

It is interesting to note the amount of continuity which exists over the thirty years in the affairs of the Association. Seventeen of those who were among the first 125 members in 1903 are still on the rolls. Dr. Ames was on the first council and has continued his interest steadily ever since. Dr. McKinley, Dr. Gambrell, Dr. Knowlton, Dr. Herrick, Dr. Lingelbach, Dr. Vincent, Dr. Kelsey, Miss Carrigan, Miss Coughlin, Dr. Carman, Dr. Morehouse and Dr. Barnard have maintained a helpful interest in the work over a period of years. Dr. McKinley tied the affairs of the *Historical Outlook*, formerly the *History Teachers' Magazine*, to the Association, gave us much space in his pages and much advice and assistance. In the earlier years Miss Dynes of the Trenton Normal School, Miss Tall of the Maryland Normal School, Dr. Fairly, Dr. Dryan, Dr. Beatman, Dr. Wolfson of the New York High Schools, Miss Briggs of the Horace Mann School, and Dr. Skinner of the New York State Department of Education were active members. Dr. Edward P. Cheyney has always taken a friendly interest in the Association. Our present president is rounding out his first ten years of membership. May he live long and help us prosper!

It is time to bring to a close these rambling reflections of an old timer. We have, as an organization, during all these years provided a focus for the history teachers—a center for the exchange of ideas and for cooperation to secure those improvements which seemed at the time to be desirable. May our successors find in the new era leaders who carry the group upward and onward. The direction of that movement we cannot foretell, but we feel sure that it will be towards higher goals of education.

THE MIDDLE STATES COUNCIL FOR THE
SOCIAL STUDIES:
A REVIEW OF THE LAST TWENTY YEARS,
1933-1953

George I. Oeste

Germantown High School, Second Vice President of the Middle States
Council for the Social Studies

The Middle States Association of History Teachers, as our organization was then known, met in Philadelphia on May 5-6, 1933, to celebrate its thirtieth anniversary. Under the leadership of its dynamic president, Roy F. Nichols, an interesting program was presented. One of the outstanding addresses was delivered by Charles A. Beard, on "Technology and Education." Harry J. Carman spoke on "Congress and the Farmer's Dilemma," a subject which he readily admitted might well have been re-phrased "The Farmer and Congress' Dilemma." Dr. Nichols himself delivered a brilliant presidential address, entitled "History Teaching in this Intellectual Crisis." It will bear re-reading today!

The high point of the thirtieth anniversary was the paper read by Jessie C. Evans, whose "Historical Sketch of the First Thirty Years of the Association" painted for those at the dinner a vivid word picture of the years that had gone. Your present historian, by an interesting coincidence, joined the Association at the very meeting in Philadelphia at which Miss Evans delivered her report.

In spite of the apparent success of the anniversary meeting, our predecessors of twenty years ago were not satisfied with the state of their organization. By a motion of the Council (now known as the Executive Committee) the president was empowered to appoint a committee of "young members, outside the Council, to review and criticize the Association, and to outline a policy for the future." It was felt that a point had been reached where stock-taking was necessary, and a more progressive policy for the future seemed to be indicated. Erling M. Hunt, of Teachers College, Columbia University, was named chairman of this committee. He was destined to have a large share in shaping the course of the Council in the years ahead.

The twenty years which have intervened since that Philadelphia meeting have been eventful ones in the history of our nation and of the world. The two decades have seen the development of mighty weapons of warfare, the carnage and destruction of World War II, and the dawn of the atomic age. They have brought about long-range aviation, television, radar, and super-highways. They have led us to a period when the

minds of free men are challenged to find ways of resolving the dilemmas which modern science has thrust upon us. At the same time we find new threats and assaults upon that freedom of thought which has always been the core of our American way of life.

Throughout these trying times the Council has sought to find answers to many of the great problems of contemporary man. The programs of our meetings, more than those of earlier years, have reflected the times in which we lived, as well as our interest in the problems of our country and the world. We have continued our concern with what shall be taught in the social studies and how we shall teach it.

More than a third of the articles which appeared in the *Proceedings* during the twenty year period had to do with world problems, international relations, and our foreign policy. This seems to indicate the growing interest of social studies teachers in learning about world affairs and in trying to solve the problems arising from them.

Other major interests of the membership centered about such topics as: (1) curriculum developments in the social studies; (2) teaching methods and techniques in the social studies; and (3) American citizenship and civil rights. About ten per cent of the articles in the *Proceedings* might be classified in each of these categories. Under teaching techniques, many new ideas were discussed, including the social process approach, the social studies in general education, teaching low ability groups, and teaching the superior student. All levels of instruction were considered: elementary, secondary, college. Reflecting the change in emphasis from a purely history teachers' organization, the papers on history and biography declined to about five per cent of the total. Among other interesting subjects which engaged our attention from time to time were such matters as: teaching state and local history, current political developments, community relationships, constitutional government, controversial issues and academic freedom, propaganda analysis, consumer education, teacher training, in-service education for teachers, and the study of the problems of youth. Recently we have been concerned with new frontiers and current trends in the social sciences.

The custom of holding meetings from year to year in different parts of the Middle States area was continued. Chiefly, the Middle States audience is found in four major cities: New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington. All but four of our annual spring meetings during the last twenty years were held in one of these cities, the exceptions were Wilmington, Garden City, Frederick, and Hagerstown. In 1945, no spring meeting was held because of wartime restrictions upon travel. This was the only year since 1903 in which no spring meeting took place.

Traditionally, the Middle States Council has also held a fall meeting; usually a single session in conjunction with some other organization. For many years, it was the custom to meet with the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, usually at Atlantic City, the Saturday after Thanksgiving Day. Within the last decade we have departed from this custom. Because of our affiliation with the National Council for the Social Studies, which holds its annual meetings on the Thanksgiving Day weekend, many of our members have attended the National Council meetings. When the National Council has met within our area, there have been joint sessions at the National Council meetings in which the Middle States Council has participated. The Middle States Council has recently held December meetings on its own in Wilmington, Delaware, and Newark, New Jersey, with friendly support from local groups of social studies teachers.

In all of our meetings, the audiences are composed largely of local people, attracted through the excellence of the program and because of the work of local committees in getting people to attend. There is a small group of interested people, including present and past officers of the Council, who travel each year to the meetings. A tradition of friendliness and hospitality has grown up around these affairs, so that visitors are made to feel welcome, and are often taken on extensive tours or excursions to historic spots in the neighborhood. One comes to see old friends and to renew acquaintances at each succeeding Middle States meeting.

The custom of visiting places of historic interest in connection with the meetings of the Council has been continued, whenever conditions or locale seemed appropriate. For many who attend the meetings, these trips add to the enjoyment of the occasion, whether they be visits to lovely rural spots or walking tours in the older areas of our great cities. Those who toured the Battlefield of Antietam last spring will not soon forget the haunting beauty of the wooded lanes and cornfields where so many American boys gave their lives. Other well remembered visits were to Pennsbury Manor on the Delaware, the beautiful gardens of Dumbarton Oaks, the old town of Frederick, colonial New Castle, and the United Nations at Lake Success and in its home on the East River. By all means let us have change and progress in the Council, but let not this old tradition die!

Along with the changes in the Council's program and activities, there have come changes in internal organization and structure. Born as the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, the organization continued under that name until 1932, when the membership adopted the less cumbersome title: Middle States Association

of History Teachers. Within a few years, however, many members felt that this new name left something to be desired: it did not reflect the broadening interests of the membership in the wider field of the social studies. Under the presidency of William G. Kimmel, a committee headed by J. Montgomery Gambrill proposed that the name be changed to Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers. This name was adopted by the membership in April, 1936, but it was evidently a compromise choice. Many voices were heard demanding that the new and more inclusive term "social studies" be used instead of "history and social science."

During this period, the National Council for the Social Studies, founded in 1921, was growing and gaining attention from social studies teachers throughout the nation. Several members of our Council, past presidents Edgar Dawson and J. Montgomery Gambrill, had been among the founders of the new organization. A number of our members were active in the National Council, and in 1935 we had a joint meeting with that body in New York City. In 1942, Robert H. Reid, then treasurer of the Council, took the lead in urging that the actual step of affiliation with the National Council be taken and that the name of our organization be changed to Middle States Council for the Social Studies. Both proposals received the overwhelming support of the membership in the spring of 1943. These and other changes in the structure of the Council were embodied in a new constitution, written by a committee headed by past president Robert I. Adriance, and approved by the membership in April, 1946.

Two other persons must be given a large share of the credit for changing and revitalizing the Council in recent years: Erling M. Hunt and Jeannette P. Nicholas. Both served as presidents of the Council, and both gave much energy and thought to the growth and development of the organization. They were aided by many others who gave invaluable services. To all of those hard workers are due the thanks and appreciation of their fellow-members.

It may be recalled that Dr. Hunt was chosen in 1933 to head a committee for critical evaluation of the Middle States Association. After several years of study and work on the problem, his committee reported that more activity on the part of the members was needed, in order to provide a greater sense of participation. In 1935, Dr. Hunt became secretary-treasurer, succeeding the faithful Lena Van Bibbler, who had served in that position for thirteen years! In addition to the duties of these offices he also edited the *Proceedings*. In 1944-1945 he served the Council as president. In 1938, the duties of the secretary devolved upon Paul O. Carr of Washington, and those of the treasurer in 1939 upon Robert H. Reid. Both were faithful servitors of the Council, and continued in these posts for long terms of service. For a time, Dr. Carr held both offic-

es, but in recent years the two positions have been separate offices.

Others who served as secretary or treasurer were Elsie M. Witters, Eleanor W. Thompson, Raymond J. Hood, Edna R. Carter, Alice W. Spieske, and Edwin M. Barton. Because of the annual turnover in the presidency, it falls upon the secretary and treasurer to provide continuity in the leadership of the Council. It has been fortunate that people of high calibre were found to give unsung and unselfish service in these offices.

During the 'thirties a study of the *Proceedings* was made, by a committee headed by Arthur C. Bining, which resulted in changes and improvements in that quarter. Dr. Bining, who became president in 1945-1946, for a long time contributed reviews of books in the social studies to the *Proceedings*.

In 1933, Morris Wolf (President, 1947-1948) sponsored a "Teachers Exchange", which was conducted for a number of years through the *Proceedings*. Queries were solicited from teachers in the field who might ask for help in their work, information as to methods, or solution of a professional problem. A staff of experienced teachers was recruited to be available to answer questions.

In 1936, under the presidency of Donald L. McMurry, then of Russell Sage College, the Middle States Association expressed itself in strong opposition to legislation requiring a loyalty oath on the part of teachers. At the annual meeting in Wilmington, Delaware, in that year, resolutions were passed by the membership commending the action of C. Douglass Buck, Governor of Delaware, for vetoing such legislation in his state.

Dr. McMurry sponsored a small but active group of the membership in holding "northern regional meetings" in upper New York. For four years, 1937-1940, annual meetings were held at Troy or Schenectady.

Under the presidency of Jeannette P. Nichols (1943-44) the Middle States Council engaged in a curriculum study and discussion among its members and interested persons that led to the publication of *History in the High School and Social Studies in the Elementary School* (Volume 41 of the *Proceedings*). Dr. Nichols based her activities on the following premises: "(1) an association of teachers can ill ignore the elementary school where many Americans still get all their schooling; (2) membership participation is an indispensable corollary to usefulness for a democratic organization; and (3) teaching problems are of the utmost consequence to teachers."

With these premises in mind, Jeannette Nichols attended many meetings, worked to stimulate interest, and organized local committees throughout the Middle States. These efforts

were directed toward studying the existing curricula in world history and American history, and the elementary social studies program, and toward making recommendations for changes. After the local committees worked through 1943, the Council met in New York in December for group discussion of the problems. The study culminated the following spring at the Philadelphia meeting, where plans were drawn up and formulated into definite curriculum suggestions. Attendance at meetings and enthusiasm for the Council's activities reached a new high. Membership increased, the *Proceedings* sold far and wide, and many people had a sense of satisfaction in participating in a constructive accomplishment.

Out of the activities of these years grew the elementary section of the Council, of which Ralph Cordier and Frances G. Sweeney were the first co-chairmen. The elementary section is now a recognized part of the Council, established by the constitution of 1946. Almost every program of the Council contains sections devoted to elementary, secondary, and college levels.

Many of the presidents who served during the last twenty years have already been mentioned in this narrative. Some, like Frances Morehouse (1933-34), Ella Lonn (1936-37), George H. Ryden (1937-38), and John A. Krout (1940-41) did much to maintain the ties with our colleges and universities that have always been part of the Middle States tradition. Others, as Amada Streeper (1938-39), Robert I. Adriance (1939-40), and Morris Wolf (1947-48), brought a wealth of experience in the secondary school field to bear in helping to solve Middle States problems. Richard J. Purcell (1941-42) found time to serve his country during World War II by performing special services as a policy analyst for the War Production Board. Robert H. Reid (1950-51) was in the armed forces of the United States during World War II.

Several recent presidents sponsored programs which gained wide recognition. Harry Bard (1946-47) stimulated a study of state and local history. He has also been active in the National Council for the Social Studies. James B. Ranck (1949-50) turned his attention to "the Social Studies in General Education," and Paul O. Carr (1948-49) made an outstanding contribution with "Teaching America's Heritage of Freedom." Morris Wolf (1947-48) was concerned with "Teaching the World Responsibilities of Americans."

Of the presidents who have served during this twenty-year period, four have passed away! Frances Morehouse, William G. Kimmel, George H. Ryden, and Richard J. Purcell.

The publications of the Council have continued to appear annually as *The Proceedings*. For many years it was the duty of the secretary-treasurer to organize and edit the *Proceedings*, in addition to his other duties. In 1938 the Association

appointed Arthur E. Bestor to hold the office of editor. Those who have served as editor and the years of their service are: Arthur E. Bestor (1938-1942), Morris Wolf (1942-1944), George I. Oeste (1945-1951), James E. Blakemore (1951-1952). After James Blakemore's tragic death in 1952 while he was in South Asia on a Ford Foundation fellowship, Leonard S. Kenworthy took over the completion of volume 49. Eleanor W. Thompson will edit volume 50.

The *Proceedings* today are the result of gradual change from the earlier volumes, which served chiefly as a record of meetings, speeches delivered, and resolutions passed. Recent *Proceedings* have been organized around themes chosen by the presidents for their annual meetings. Many significant volumes have been published, which have gained a wide circulation. The cost of printing has risen, however, and the old difficulty of creating a publication which will interest the members and also serve the purposes of the Council within the limits of its annual budget must still be faced. A committee has been at work studying our publication policies, and it is hoped that their suggestions will bring about worthwhile improvements.

In recent years, new strength has been derived for the Council from the work of presidents Robert H. Reid (1950-51) and Leonard S. Kenworthy (1951-52). Active before World War II, they returned to the Council and were soon drafted to office. Dr. Reid, director of international relations of the NEA, turned the Council's attention to the study of United States foreign policy and how it is made. Dr. Kenworthy, of Brooklyn College, directed our interests to social science frontiers. He also introduced a new type of membership, for students in colleges, which has enabled the Council to grow and to make contacts in an area hitherto unreached.

The preparation of the program of the fiftieth anniversary has been under the direction of president Eleanor W. Thompson (1952-53). The excellence of the program and the arrangements for the meeting must be attributed to her careful planning and excellent organization. The heartfelt thanks of the Council are expressed to all who helped to make the meeting a success.

Today as we look ahead to the new half-century before the Middle States Council for the Social Studies, we may well recall to mind two of the admonitions of Jeannette P. Nichols to the members as she relinquished the presidency:

"Let us provide attractive opportunities for working together"

"Let us unite in making usefulness our constant goal".

THE NEXT HALF CENTURY

John A. Krout

Professor of History and Provost, Columbia University
President of Middle States Council for the Social Studies 1940-1941

Ever since I came to the meeting I have had in mind a little extract of a journal that I came across not so long ago in which a native of Pennsylvania, from the Philadelphia region, was out visiting in the Valley of Muskingum in Ohio; and he attended a house raising there which greatly fascinated him. He recounts in his journal his enormous enjoyment of the folk who had gathered together, the fiddling and the dancing, the singing that went on; and then he has a few asterisks placed, crude marks, and below he says "And the hospitality that came out of that barrel was ferocious."

This has been, I think, one of the pleasantest meetings that I have encountered in the meetings of this association under its several names.

If I were really discreet, I would give firm approval to what Dr. Nichols has said and then maintain silence. But I hope you will bear with me for just a little while if I make my affirmation in a somewhat more protracted fashion.

When I was reminded several weeks ago of this meeting, I was just re-reading a slender volume which contains much wisdom for us today and in the decades that lie ahead. It is the volume that was published a little over twenty years ago as Part 1 of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association and it was entitled "A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools."

In this company we can certainly take justifiable pride that three of our past presidents, Carlton Hayes, Henry Johnson and Charles A. Beard, were on the Commission on Direction that prepared that volume and that much of it was put into final form by Dr. Beard.

It is twenty-one years old now, but it is not dated. What it has to say about the nature of the social disciplines, about the social realities of our time, about the climate of American ideas, could be stamped 1953 just as appropriately as 1932.

There are certain things that are said in that volume that I would like to recall to your minds very briefly.

The social realities of our times, the conditioning factors, are first, the dynamically changing character of the world in which we live and work; second, the industrial drive with its perennial expansion and invention; third, the governmental system, elective and representative, with ever increasing citizen participation; and fourth, the impact of nationalism on a society trying to develop the idea of an international community.

I do not believe, and I doubt whether you do, that any of those four conditioning factors is going to disappear in the next half century or indeed that it will be drastically modified.

If I were to suggest any minor modification, it would be this—that we shall probably have to place somewhat more emphasis than we did, twenty or thirty years ago, upon a question that has run like a steady stream through the history of mankind, the reconciliation of liberty with authority. Beneath almost every contemporary controversy rests the ancient problem—how are you going to protect the minority and at the same time have the force of majority rule? How are you going to prevent a minority, however militant, from seizing control and frustrating the will of the majority?

At the beginning of our independent existence, we thought we had given some answers to those questions. They were drawn very largely out of our experience, as a part of the British Empire, supported by the individualistic notions of the social contract, running from Hobbs to Rousseau, which were set forth so admirably by the great Mr. Locke.

The Declaration of Independence, as has been so often remarked, was almost pure Locke, but compounded under Jeffersonian prescription. Americans generally liked that prescription because it took the things out of their political folklore: the Magna Carta, the common law as the protector of individual liberties, the English Bill of Rights, and all of the popular overtones of interpretation that went with those documents, and used them as a sort of explanation of what had been going on in English America before 1776.

We thought that answer was going to be adequate and we used it through the device of judicial review, by appeals to courts in the hope that we could maintain the majority principle and still protect minority rights and minority interests. I suppose in the main that appeal to the courts was successful, yet it often failed, and I doubt that it was ever so roundly disputed in our history as it has been in the last fifteen or sixteen years. We tried other devices, as you well know; and Jefferson himself, having repented of his early reliance on the courts, suggested state veto. New England in the first fifteen years of the nineteenth century threw back at him his Kentucky Resolves and wondered about actual secession. South Carolina resorted to nullification and at least got a draw in its argument with the National Government in 1833.

John C. Calhoun, so fearful of the destruction of the Union, worked out his concurrent majority in which the essential minority would have the right to block things. The South, having decided Calhoun was not successful, finally turned to war as the means to protect its minority interests. But none of these devices, state veto, judicial review, nullification, secession or even war has been so servicable a medium to us as

our system of political parties.

By that device we have managed now, for almost ninety years, under a two-party arrangement, to hold together divergent interests, different groups, conflicting claims and, sometimes, apparently antagonistic ideas. It has given us a semblance at least of national unity; it has been a great boon to the American people.

What the political philosophers could not do, in a measurable way, the practical politician has done. You may smile and say that is optimistic, as a description of what our two-party system has been and may be in the future, yet I am almost willing to dare you to prove to me that it has not been so. The reaching out of Democrats and Republicans for minority groups and bringing them somehow into the combination has given us the ability to change the character of our majority over the years. We are going to do it in the next half century. We have been able to have united action that still has not denied important minority rights and interests.

Certainly this two-party system has been, for us, the conduit carrying that alternating current of American idealism and American materialism. Certainly it has registered our constantly fluctuating belief in the perfect ability of man and the rather sordid exploitation of man and his deeds.

It has been, it seems to me, the best of our devices for handling an ancient problem that is going to run right through the whole of this twentieth century. That whole system has been closely associated with ethical considerations, many of them drawn from the creeds of revealed religion.

Do you remember that passage in Arthur Koestler's novel "Darkness at Noon" in which one of the men who is being interrogated cries out "There are only two conceptions of human ethics, and they are poles apart. The one is Christian and humane and declares that the individual is sacrosanct and asserts that the rules of mathematics are not to be applied to human units. The other starts with the basic principle that the collective aim justifies all means and that the individual is not only allowed but compelled to be subordinated and sacrificed to the will of the community."

Is not that the great decision that we are going to make in the next fifty years? Only it will not be a dramatic decision made in one grand gesture. It is a decision that you and I are making every day of our lives in the little things that we deal with, on the plane of our local community, our schools, our churches, our clubs, our towns—that is where the decision is being made, not on the national scene, or on the international scene, for the cumulative effects of those local decisions will be the final judgment as to what we do.

We have always believed in this country in progress. Dean Nichols remarked that this was first an association of historians, which reminds me of the incident that the head master of one of New England's important academies related not so long ago in my presence. He said he had been invited to a neighboring village to attend a meeting on a Sunday evening at one of the churches and he got there a little bit before the hour of the meeting. He saw that the clergyman at that church had preached the sermon in the morning on "Progress." When he went into the edifice no one was there but the sexton and to make conversation, he remarked. "That was an interesting subject this morning, wasn't it? Did you hear the sermon?"

The sexton said "Yes" and the head master said "What did he say about 'Progress.'"

The sexton said "The thing I remember about it is he said 'Progress is sometimes achieved by going backwards and retracing your steps.'"

The head master said "That is a novel idea. What did he mean?" And the sexton said "He meant that you make progress by going backwards when you have wandered far from home."

Conference Update

117th Annual Conference

Social Studies: A Diverse Discipline Promoting a more Perfect Union



February 28th - 29th, 2020
 Sheraton Baltimore North
 903 Dulaney Valley Road
 Towson, Maryland, 21204

Friday, February 28 th						
Time	Full Sessions				Round Table Sessions	
	Burke	Grason	McIntosh	Owen	Duncan A	Duncan B
7:15-8:15am	Exhibitor Time/Continental Breakfast (No Sessions)					
8:15-9:00am	Teaching the Legacy of World War II (Josie Perry)	Incorporating Economic Concepts into the History Curriculum (Jennifer Baczewski)	Promoting a More Perfect Union through Rhetoric (James Rossi)	Using Children’s Literature to Hook High School Students (Kristin Barnello)	Us vs. Them: Addressing Othering (Jennifer Laggasse)	
9:10-9:55am	Bringing Movement back into the Classroom (Stacey Bumbernick)	Fostering Civil Dialog (Ben Marcus)	Voices from Medieval Ghana, Mali and Songhay (Brenda Randolph)	Primary Source Analysis and Hands-on for Elementary (Lori Swiger)	<i>Who are American Muslims?</i> (Erum Ikamullah)	Commemorating Suffrage Anniversaries in 2020 (David Armenti)
10:05-10:55am	Engagement Democracy and Youth Success Stories (Lynne Cherry)	DBQ Project (Amie Polcaro)	Spark Inquiry by Connecting Content and Literacy (Lynnette Brent)	National Geographic – Certified Educator (Fay Gore)	We the People for Beginners (Ashley Vascik)	
11:00am-11:45am	George Washington’s Changing View on Slavery (Alissa Oginsky)	Using Historical Newspapers in the Classroom (Marisa Shultz)	Gilder Lehrman Teacher of the year panel discussion (Marcie Taylor Thoma)	Who Will get my vote? (Ann Canning)	<i>Diverse Perspectives and Loose Parts Mapping</i> (Rachel Henighan)	<i>Tradigital History- Bringing the Past Alive!</i> (Dr. James Beeghley)
11:45-12:15pm	Exhibitor Time/Lunch on your own/Prepare for Field Excursion or Experience					
12:15-5:00pm	Field Excursion or Field Experience (see page 14 for more information)					

Saturday, February 29 th						
7:30-9:30am		President’s Awards Breakfast– Warfield’s Ballroom				
9:40-10:25am	Cracking the Social Studies Code (Jennifer Ingold)	<i>Taking Informed Action</i> (Leah Renzi)	Civics for All: Primary Source Strategies (Anna Keneda)	Bring History to Life: Primary Sources Perspectives (Jennifer Jump)	A History of MSCSS Proceedings (Dr. Sandy Pope)	
10:35-11:20am	Coming to America: Telling our Migration Stories (Dr. Jermaine Ellerbe)	Resisting Evil: Stories from the World War II underground (Dr. Teresa Wojcik)	Gentrified – A Look at Where you live (Scott Bacon)	National Geographic – Geo Inquiry Process (Fay Gore)	The Emma Lazarus Project (Chelsea Bracci)	And now the rest of the story... Polish Americans (Cecilia Glembocki)
11:30am-12:15pm	Swipe Right? A Public Service Announcement (Sean Arthurs)	The Longest Hatred: A Look at the History of Europe (Steve Goldberg)	Turning Students into Constitutional Ambassadors (Mike Adams)	Fight Fake: Help Students Evaluate Online Content (Sarah McGrew)	Bringing Korea into the Classroom (Georgette Hackman)	
12:20-1:30pm		Danielle Roselle Luncheon (No Sessions) – Warfield’s Ballroom				
1:45-2:30pm	Access of History Content for English Learners (Amanda Venable)	Women in Maryland (Jean Russo)	Tips for Landing Your First Teaching Job (Dr. Sandy Pope)	Coding with Social Studies in Elementary Classrooms (Han Liu)	Dexit/ Gexit: Germany Status in the European Union (Dr. Jermaine Ellerbe)	Personalizing Professional Development (Kate Long)
2:40-3:25pm	Teaching Climate Change in the Social Studies (Rafael Woldeab)	History Echoes: Voter Suppression Then and Now (Michael Stevens)	A Stitch in Time: Primary Sources and Picture Books (Michael Terborg)	Teaching Agency as a Form of Social Justice (Samantha Averett-Boyd)	Navigating the Complexity of God in Hinduism (Shereen Bhalla)	
3:25-4:00pm		Conference Closing and Clean-up (No sessions)				

Find more information and register at <http://www.midstatescouncil.org>

Submit Your Paper to THE JOURNAL

Now accepting submissions for the Summer Issue

THE JOURNAL of the Middle States Council for Social Studies publishes scholarly and classroom articles exploring strategies for effective social studies teaching and learning. Preference is given to articles utilizing inquiry to explore issues relevant to communities located in Middle States member states.

Open Call: THE JOURNAL holds open submissions for articles. Articles should address the focus of effective social studies teaching and learning, and follow these guidelines:

- Clear suggestions for classroom practice
- 12-16 double-spaced pages, not including references
- APA formatting
- Classroom examples or materials (e.g., worksheets) are appreciated

We will also consider **Classroom Notes**, an option for conference presenters who may not be able to commit to the long-form articles. Classroom notes focus on sharing specific classroom strategies, including:

- Grounding in best practices
- Explanation of their use and success
- Material sets

Timeline for submissions:

- Abstracts due to Editors: First Friday in March for summer issue
- Invitation to submit a full article: Third Friday in March
- Draft manuscripts due to Editors: First Friday in May
- Final manuscripts due: First Friday in July
- Issue published in August

Send Word files to msscjournal@gmail.com

