



American
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Yearbook

2020

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Statement from the 2021 American Reading Forum (Un)conference Organizers:

Conference Co-Chairs: Amy Broemmell, Rachelle Savitz, and Nora Vines

We would like to extend a warm welcome to the ARF membership who are joining us for this year's (un)Conference. The ARF board put in many hours trying to put together a meaningful and manageable program that remains true to the spirit of our traditional face-to-face gathering. Though we cannot replicate the learning, mentoring, and camaraderie we enjoy every December on the beaches of Sanibel Island, we hope that we provided virtual opportunities for such to occur. Under the umbrella of this year's revised theme, "Literacy in Uncertain Times," we offered a keynote focused on digital citizenship along with the opportunity to engage in a Q & A session with the keynote speakers. Both evenings included 5 thematic breakout sessions in which presenters shared lightning (short!) talks and then engaged in discussion with those present. And, to continue facilitating our learning and sharing, the second night included an opportunity for sharing books and resources around each of the sub-themes. Participants came to sessions ready to share a resource, book or tool that they find helpful. Our facilitators compiled the resources and they are available through the members only page of our ARF website. Finally, we integrated social opportunities, like our virtual Spirit of the Times and our Awards Ceremony, throughout the conference. Thank you each for taking the time to renew your membership and join us in this two-night event! Please join us in thanking Dr. Nance Wilson and Dr. Jennifer Van Allen for their work in coordinating the virtual platform and Zoom sessions used to host this conference. Enjoy!

Papers:

Practicum in a Pandemic: Novice Teacher Perceptions of Online Literacy Intervention Centered Around Inquiry by Brittany Adams and Nance Wilson, SUNY Cortland

Abstract: The COVID-19 pandemic forced literacy specialists to shift from face-to-face intervention practices to online video conferencing formats. This article explores the perceptions

of novice literacy teachers after such a switch. In this study, the researchers interviewed new literacy specialists shortly after they had participated in an online inquiry-based literacy intervention practicum experience. The findings advance understanding of the extent to which student-centered literacy intervention can take place online and the factors that teacher educators must consider to meet the needs of literacy specialists and their students.

Creating a Virtual Community of Coaches Using TPACK Principles and a Persona Graphic as a Pre-Writing Strategy by Joyce. C. Fine

Abstract: This article shares a teaching strategy for creating a sense of community in a virtual environment for master's candidates. Using a graphic organizer to pre-write answers about their personal and professional identities, they discover points of similarities in their experiences and backgrounds as well as differences. They make the realization that when they are coaches, they should not try to clone themselves but, instead, help teachers to become the best reading teachers they can be. This content knowledge is used along with technological behaviors to emphasize the need to be open to diverse populations of teachers and students.

Elevating Reading to a Sport: Express, Engage and Experience Literacies Outside the Classroom by Melanie Hundley and Emily Pendergrass, Vanderbilt University

Abstract: Read and Play Saturdays (RAPS) was a program designed to work alongside 4th-8th grade students to experience novels and other media outside the classroom. In this paper, we will share how we build on what students are doing in school to provide space for book discussions and response to literature through art, music, and drama.

Supporting Students and Teachers' Goal Setting To Develop Self-Regulated, Strategic Learners by Zoi A. Traga Philippakos, University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Abstract: The paper presents the function and value of self-regulation in literacy and ways it can be implemented within classroom settings. Even though a focus has been on developing self-regulated student learners, the paper argues for supports that can enhance teachers' self-regulatory skills through the implementation of specific analysis and reflection strategies. Drawing from an evidence-based instructional approach on genre-based reading and writing, the paper provides specific recommendations for educators on the formation of instructional and professional goals using assessment information. Further, a model that explains how instructional goals can inform professional goals is shared and their reciprocal relationship is explained. Resources for school-wide application and professional development practices are explained as well as cautionary notes for effective application.

Creating Culturally Relevant, Virtual Classrooms in Uncertain Times: Teaching Culture with Pop Culture by Tania Gordon and Joyce Fine, Florida International University

Abstract: As the U.S. cultural landscape becomes increasingly diverse, it calls for culturally relevant teaching rooted in our diverse student population's life experiences and heritage. This teaching strategy responds to the increasing need to incorporate culturally responsive teachings and sensitive interactions into the world of virtual learning. As the COVID-19 pandemic evolved, teachers restructured instruction, transitioning from brick-and-mortar classrooms to virtual environments. The instructional activity Teaching Culture with Pop Culture demonstrates an effective strategy that shows awareness of and appreciation for students' unique cultural backgrounds and experiences. Whether in an asynchronous or synchronous environment, this

activity supports multiple expressions of diversity, building social presence and cultural competence.

Promoting Anti-Racist Dialogue Through Holocaust Education by William Kerns,
University of Arkansas at Little Rock

Abstract: This paper provides guidance toward the planning of units of instruction that promote anti-racist discourse in K-12 classrooms with a specific focus on Holocaust and human rights literature. Grounded in critical literacy, a focus is placed on the incorporation of dialogue that builds on anti-racist topics by countering stereotypes, raising attention to topics of systemic injustices, and becoming an Upstander. Instruction that is envisioned within this paper includes a study of the historical context of the Holocaust, current day events, and ethics.

**Practicum in a Pandemic: Novice Teacher Perceptions of Online Literacy Intervention
Centered Around Inquiry**

Brittany Adams & Nance Wilson

SUNY Cortland

Abstract

The COVID-19 pandemic forced literacy specialists to shift from face-to-face intervention practices to online video conferencing formats. This article explores the perceptions of novice literacy teachers after such a switch. In this study, the researchers interviewed new literacy specialists shortly after they had participated in an online inquiry-based literacy intervention practicum experience. The findings advance understanding of the extent to which student-centered literacy intervention can take place online and the factors that teacher educators must consider to meet the needs of literacy specialists and their students.

Keywords: Literacy Intervention, Literacy Specialists, Inquiry-based Learning, Online Learning, Literacy Educators

Introduction

As COVID-19 struck the world, institutions of higher education had to quickly determine how they could provide literacy specialist candidates with practicum experiences when face-to-face instruction was not an option. The study described herein is embedded in one such ILA-accredited literacy specialist program. In our program, literacy specialist candidates engage in a year worth of school embedded assessment, intervention, and coaching field experiences to support their learning. These field experiences provide opportunities for guided practice as candidate develop the skills, dispositions, and knowledge that will help them to address literacy outcomes in schools (ILA, 2017).

The final practicum experience provides candidates supervised opportunities to practice applying what they have learned regarding literacy instruction and intervention (Bean et al., 2015; Risko et al., 2008) while “receiving structured, ongoing observation/supervision, feedback, and opportunities for collaborative reflective practice” (ILA, 2017, p. 36). In a typical year, our program’s practicum is embedded in local summer school programs; yet the summer of 2020 was anything but typical. The closing of schools meant that candidates’ practicum experiences with students in grades 2-11 took place 100% online, using video conferencing software.

Although video conferencing is widely used in a variety of professions in various capacities, it has heretofore had little application for delivering literacy intervention instruction to students (Houge, 2009). Many important questions about the dynamics of video conferencing for literacy intervention remain unanswered. Small case studies have demonstrated the potential of video conferencing for literacy instruction improvement (e.g., Lin, 2016) and policy analysts are calling for technology-based strategies to meet the range of needs of schools across the country (Sindelar et al., 2018). With COVID-19 ravaging the world, there was no other option

besides using the video conferencing format. Thus, we sought to design an online experience for literacy intervention.

Some aspects of the practicum experience we developed were standard for the program (e.g., instructor observations, planning with peers, peer coaching), yet other aspects were brand new (i.e., remote literacy instruction, delayed observations). Concerned about the stress and disrupted learning caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, department faculty worried that traditional intervention would be insufficient to engage students participating in remote summer tutoring. To increase motivation, we worked quickly to incorporate an inquiry focus into the intervention model our candidates used. In the weeks leading up to the practicum, candidates read about and discussed the utility of inquiry-based learning for literacy intervention.

Inquiry-Based Learning

Inquiry-based learning (IBL) is a constructivist pedagogical approach that engages learners in actively building their skills and knowledge through generating and answering authentic research questions (Chu et al., 2017). For the purposes of this study, we use Chu and colleagues' (2017) brief summation of IBL as a definition: "A learner-centered approach focusing on questioning, critical thinking, and problem solving. The learner is actively involved in formulating the question/naming of a problem" (p. 7).

IBL approaches are associated with educational benefits for students involving student engagement (Zafra-Gomez et al., 2014), expertise and self-efficacy (Saunders-Stewart et al., 2012), and gains in content area coursework (Cervantes et al., 2015). Researchers have identified personal benefits for students engaged in IBL including increased creativity, motivation, and metacognition (Stefanou et al., 2013). Additionally, IBL approaches have been heralded as

necessary to develop 21st century literacies (Chu et al., 2017) and have been described as a “cornerstone of curriculum reform throughout North America” (Buchanan et al., 2016, p. 8).

Inquiry in Literacy Intervention

The goal of the study from which this data is drawn was to understand whether an online literacy practicum experience conducted through video conferencing software promoted student-centered teaching practices specific to literacy intervention. Although video conferencing is widely used in a variety of professions in various capacities, it has heretofore had little application for delivering literacy intervention instruction to students (Houge, 2009). Small case studies have demonstrated its potential for literacy instruction improvement (e.g., Lin, 2016) and policy analysts are calling for technology-based strategies to meet the range of needs of schools across the country (Sindelar et al., 2018). However, many important questions about the dynamics of video conferencing for literacy intervention remain unanswered.

Simultaneously, the teacher educators involved in the literacy master’s program decided to adopt an inquiry-based framework for the literacy intervention offered within the practicum. Inquiry approaches to literacy instruction have made inroads in K-12 classrooms “as tools to construct and document meaning making, not as decontextualized skills to be acquired and assessed” (Guccione, 2011, p. 574). Additionally, the limited research into the application of inquiry-based learning specifically for literacy intervention indicates increased motivation and reading improvement (Choron, 2016).

Methods

Research Context

This study took place in an ILA-accredited MS.Ed. program in literacy education at a comprehensive public college in the northeast United States. Graduates of the program earned

certifications for birth through twelfth grade, so literacy specialist candidates were required to work with both elementary students and middle or secondary students during the culminating practicum experience. The practicum that this study examines was a five-week virtual literacy intervention that occurred during the summer of 2020.

In the past, candidates' practicum experiences had occurred in local summer school programs. However, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, all summer school programs in the region were canceled or moved to an online format. So as not to delay candidates' graduation, faculty in the department advertised a free literacy tutoring program in which any parent could enroll their child. The response from parents was overwhelming, likely due to concerns about disrupted learning. Department faculty used the tutoring enrollment data to create homogenous small groups of three to five students. Each candidate was assigned two small groups, one group of elementary students and one group of middle or secondary students.

Using a video conferencing software, candidates met with each group for one hour per day, four days a week. Candidates were provided additional resources, such as their own web pages to edit to support daily lessons and virtual teaching materials curated by the college library. In addition to the daily meetings with their intervention groups, candidates engaged in daily planning sessions and peer-coaching sessions with other candidates. Candidates were also required to record videos of their instruction and submit them for instructor feedback.

When the practicum began, candidates spent the first week interviewing and assessing their students to get a sense of their literacy needs and inquiry topics that would be of interest to them. Collaboratively with their students, candidates identified inquiry questions or topics and spent subsequent weeks providing literacy instruction with materials focused on those questions or topics. As the practicum continued, we noted candidates' successes and challenges related to

incorporating inquiry into literacy intervention. Challenges were expected, given that we did not have time to truly build inquiry into the intervention model that the candidates had been studying for the last year. With so many unexpected modifications to the practicum experience, we felt it was important to solicit feedback from our candidates (newly minted literacy specialists at the time of interviews) regarding both the technology and the inquiry approach. Thus, our research questions were:

1. What perceptions do new literacy specialists have about how effective literacy intervention practices were when moved to an online platform?
2. What perceptions do new literacy specialists have about how literacy intervention practices were impacted by using an inquiry-based approach?

Participant Selection

All candidates enrolled in the practicum (n=11) were invited to participate in the study after the term ended, six consented. Of the participants interviewed, 4 identified as women and 2 as men. All 6 identified as Caucasian and undergraduate foci included elementary education, special education, and secondary English and social studies (Table 1).

Table 1. Participant Demographics

Pseudonym	Pronouns	Ethnicity	Undergraduate Focus
Dustin	He/Him	White	Secondary Social Studies
Hayley	She/Her	White	Elementary Education
Jason	He/Him	White	Special Education
Sasha	She/Her	White	Secondary English Education
Sophie	She/Her	White	Elementary Education
Summer	She/Her	White	Elementary Education

Data Collection

Consenting candidates participated in semi-structured interviews about their experience. The interviews focused on participants' experiences during the online, inquiry-based practicum,

their evaluation of the learning experience, and their recommendations for future iterations. Participants chose the interview format, phone or video conference, and were given questions ahead of time (see the appendix). Brittany conducted the interviews. Each interview followed a semi-structured format and lasted 30-45 minutes. Interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed for analysis.

Data Analysis

Separately, we open coded the interviews, starting with individual codes such as “Guided reading/shared reading was easier because of screen sharing (only need one copy of text).” We then met to collate and negotiate all our open codes before moving to axial coding (Denzin & Lincoln, 2017). During axial coding we examined our open codes for how they connected to one another in order to collapse multiple open codes into one broader code, such as collapsing various codes about the flexibility of scheduling, meeting with peer groups, and location of instruction into one broader code about the inherent flexibility of virtual modalities. Finally, during selective coding we took our axial codes and returned to our research questions to determine how the codes might be collapsed into relevant themes. For example, the axial code related to flexibility of virtual modalities was gathered with other codes to represent the perceived affordances of virtual literacy intervention.

Findings

In this section, we highlight the major themes that emerged in the interviews. Findings are organized by major themes that pertain to each research questions.

Online Literacy Intervention

When the candidates learned that their practicum experience would be moved online, there was a short turnaround for learning new technologies and for thinking about performing

literacy intervention differently than they had previously expected and/or observed. As could be expected, participants encountered technological issues throughout the experience. Some of these issues revolved around student access. Hayley shared, “One of my students went with his mom to work every day so he could use the Wi-Fi at her work. Which was good in that when he logged on at home it slowed us all down, but stuff happening at his mom’s work was sometimes a distraction.” Others commented on how technology challenges impacted giving running records. Dustin said, “If one of the students had a little bit of slow internet connection when they were reading, they may have read it correctly, but their microphone skipped out for a second. So, I’m like, ‘Can you read that again?’ And they’re like, ‘Did I do it wrong?’ And I had to be like, ‘No, I just couldn’t hear you.’ You know?”

Additionally, the online environment made it difficult for participants to tell how students were responding to their teaching. Sasha explained, “Doing mini-lessons was probably where it was the hardest because I would explain something, but I wouldn’t really know what the feedback was or their facial expression. Even if their cameras were on, I wouldn’t necessarily know because most times they were just, like, staring blankly at the screen. I feel like in an in-person setting, you can tell a lot more whether they’re engaged or, like, fidgeting, things like that.” Sophie found the lack of traditional tools a challenge. She shared, “I was expecting them to bring pen and paper every single time to do their writing prompts. But even when they had the materials, some students never emailed me their work. After the first two weeks, I gave up on making them bring anything. I gave them everything and we did as much as we could online.”

Every participant also remarked on the challenge of teaching discrete skills online. For instance, Summer said “I feel it’s easier to teach skills in person because you’re able to pull students aside and work on their individual needs. It was more difficult to make sure that you’re

meeting each child's needs online.” Jason agreed, “They each need the five minutes of letter-sound recognition and sight words and all that. That was hard to do.” Each participant had similar struggles with executing word work. Only one student, Hayley, had success with word work. She shared, “I did was a word scrabble game where I gave them different scenarios where they had to give me a word within the topic.” Overall, the constraints of the online format created various situations where technology interfered with the interaction between the candidate and their intervention students, and the constraints of the format limited participants’ perceived instructional choices.

However, participants also reflected on some affordances of the online context. For instance, they expressed how shared and guided reading was made easier by using the screen share function. Hayley explained, “The reading part, that was probably the easiest. We could all look at the same document.” Similarly, Sasha enjoyed having her students all work in a shared word processing documents because “I could see it in real time, what they were typing out, what kind of errors they were making.”

Participants also appreciated how the virtual practicum structure gave them more agency over their learning and a strong support system. While discussing their recorded teaching videos that were submitted to the instructor for feedback, Sophie commented, “I feel like [recording my teaching] gave me a little more control over, like, if a lesson didn’t go as planned, I could at least send you a note saying, ‘Hey, I know this, this, and this went wrong.’ Whereas if you were in the room watching me, I would be spiraling thinking about what you were thinking [laughs].” The delayed feedback cycle seemed to reduce participants’ anxiety, increase their sense of agency, and prompted them to be more reflective. Participants found that the online context also enabled additional support from their peers. Summer shared, “If something didn't go well or a student

was acting out and we didn't know like how to handle it, we could just hop on a call to share our frustrations.”

A final affordance came from an observation Sophie made. The online context necessitated more informal formative assessment than participants had been trained to expect. Sophie explained, “It’s a lot more running records than I thought [laughs]. It’s so much assessment, all the time. But it helped me realize the importance of that kind of assessment. I could really see where the students were at.” These affordances and constraints of online intervention identified by the participants help us to clearly see the possibilities and challenges of online literacy intervention. Given that these candidates were less experienced with literacy intervention and new to the online environment, we imagine that the affordances they uncovered are just the tip of the iceberg of possibilities.

Inquiry for Literacy Intervention

The move to utilizing inquiry for literacy intervention was rocky for all but one participant. Sophie explained, “I had heard about [inquiry] but we never did anything with it in the program, so I didn’t know how to actually structure a literacy plan with it.” Similarly, Sasha confessed, “I think my lack of understanding affected how I used it. I wasn’t even sure how to explain it to [the students].” Summer said, “I thought inquiry was having students do independent research over a long period of time with a big final project. It’s hard to relate that to what we’re doing.” The perceptions of inquiry were also impacted by the online environment. Hayley said, “In school you can do all these different hands-on things and let the kids go off. Doing it online... it was just something you had to figure out.” Similarly, Sasha speculated, “I think inquiry would have worked in person. But I don't know if the internet is good for inquiry questioning.”

Another struggle with implementing inquiry to literacy intervention was finding developmentally appropriate digital texts on the students' inquiry topics. Sophie shared, "There just weren't many [texts] available. Trying to stay on an instructional text level and within the topic range made it really difficult. It caused me to stray from the inquiry topic a few times, because I was more concerned with staying within the instructional level." She added, "I would rather have the kids not frustrated while reading." Hayley shared, "If I had had more of a tool kit and more preparation, I could have done a better job." To address this challenge, some participants took a looser approach to inquiry. Jason explained, "I just didn't try to overthink it. I just used the topics that they wanted to learn about to design the curriculum. Like, I just found books on animals, or I found spelling words about animals." And Sasha admitted, "I really just used it as a theme, where everything we did was about sports... Otherwise it was difficult to formulate it into something that was going to pique their interest while also learning."

Dustin was the only participant who felt confident about the inquiry approach, as a secondary social studies teacher he regularly does inquiry projects in his class. He shared, "When [the state] made our curriculum inquiry-based, the original plans that published were confusing to me. I had to find other resources that I thought were more applicable in my classroom for inquiry learning. So, I've done a lot of history inquiry in class and trying to explore a topic and have them answer questions about it." Even so, Dustin found the process easier with his secondary group than his elementary group. He said, "I didn't want to only do [the state]'s fourth grade curriculum. So, I was trying to use the word 'discovery' with them a lot... But I felt like I wasn't able to really have them create arguments or do a really dive deep into a topic. We just got a base level understanding of things, like explore this website, answer these questions, report

back to me. I would try to give them some deeper thinking questions, but maybe because I was out of my comfort zone, it was hard for me to do that.”

There was a consensus that inquiry was valuable to center students’ interests through thematic lessons. Sophie said, “It is very helpful for engaging them,” and “I always want to keep student interests as part of [intervention].” Summer said, “Reading about related topics and learning about things they wanted to learn about was very intriguing for them and helped them stay engaged.” Hayley added, “All my kids seemed like they stayed engaged.”

However, participants reported challenges with staying within the bounds of their students’ selected inquiry question or topic when it came to instruction of discrete skills. Summer said, “Inquiry didn't really help with spelling or discrete skills... Oftentimes I would end up doing spelling separate from inquiry because it was kind of hard to think about how to incorporate that into the inquiry topic.” She later added, “Word work was separate. I did word sorts with my kids and it would have been too hard to stick to the inquiry topic. But the one thing that I found with inquiry was I could pick vocabulary words and comprehension questions.” Sasha also shared, “When I did running records, I just went leveled. They didn't really have animals or sports in them.”

Participants’ consistent use of language that presented inquiry and intervention as dichotomous sheds light on ideological challenges we must address if we continue to develop an inquiry-based literacy intervention model for our program. Hayley’s interview embodies this dichotomy most clearly. She reflected, “I went heavy with inquiry. If I were to do it over, I might go back and do a little bit more intervention, more grammar and word work.” When asked whether the practicum experience affect how she thought about literacy intervention, Hayley responded, “Intervention itself, not so much. Because I didn't have experience with inquiry, that

is probably where I learned the most. But not so much the intervention where I'm solely focusing on making sure that they're getting better at whatever their weaknesses are.”

Lessons Learned

COVID-19 may have been the impetus for conducting this online practicum, but we anticipate that advances in technology will profoundly impact the future of literacy intervention as more high-needs schools turn to digital tools to meet their varied needs. If we have learned anything from the way this global event has impacted how we prepare our literacy specialist candidates, we have learned that we must prepare them to be flexible and dynamic in providing intervention for students. The perceptions of the candidates from this study highlight that when the structure and context of intervention changes, novice literacy specialists struggle with a variety of aspects regarding implementing intervention. As we look to the future, we anticipate that the summer 2021 practicum will take a similar form as the one described in this study. We expect that some of the challenges revealed by these findings will be mitigated by increased preparation for the remote setting and embedding IBL literature into the program earlier. In so doing, we hope to make the connections between motivation, engagement, and achievement, directly, so candidates see a more explicit connection between intervention and inquiry (Guthrie, et al., 2009).

However, we also sense a need for candidates to see that “literacy is not just about reading words on the page...reading and writing are transformative acts that improve self and society” (Muhammad, 2020, p. 9). The skills targeted during literacy intervention should be not divorced from the real-world contexts that such skills are intended to support. Though intervention programs are highly structured, literacy specialists must adopt a broader view of intervention as tool for helping students gain strength in literacy, rather than thinking of

intervention as a way to fix a student. Focusing on inquiry may seem like a constriction or an extra step, but a student-centered orientation to intervention justifies the change in demands.

Thus, as we take in the scope of our findings, we note that they speak to both a societal need and a need to help literacy specialists see their role differently.

Appendix

Participant Interview Protocol

Part 1: Reflecting on Practicum

1. What are your thoughts or feelings about the practicum? What was it like?
2. Tell me about your familiarity with teaching online prior to this practicum. How comfortable were you with the idea of teaching online?
3. Tell me about your familiarity with inquiry prior to this practicum. How comfortable were you with the idea of using inquiry for literacy intervention?

Part 2: Pedagogical Evaluation

Participants watch a recording of a traditional intervention lesson.

4. The video(s) you just watched is what typical literacy intervention looks like. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, your experience was very different.
 - a. How was doing literacy intervention online? (strengths? weaknesses?)
 - b. How was using inquiry at the center of your literacy intervention different? (strengths? weaknesses?)
5. In traditional literacy intervention, all planning is structured around the specific reading level that a student is on.
 - a. What was your experience with selecting texts based on an inquiry theme rather than a specific level? What is different for B-6 versus 5-12?
 - b. How has the practicum experience affected how you think about literacy intervention?

Part 3: Program Evaluation

6. If we (the Literacy Department) were to conduct the practicum experience online again, what practices would you recommend we keep or change?
7. If we (the Literacy Department) conduct future practicum experiences in person, what practices would you recommend we keep or change?
8. If you were to describe this practicum experience to a graduate student who had yet to take it, what would you say?

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Creating a Virtual Community of Coaches Using TPACK Principles and a Persona Graphic as a Pre-Writing Strategy

Joyce C. Fine
Florida International University

Abstract

This article shares a teaching strategy for creating a sense of community in a virtual environment for master's candidates. Using a graphic organizer to pre-write answers about their personal and professional identities, they discover points of similarities in their experiences and backgrounds as well as differences. They make the realization that when they are coaches, they should not try to clone themselves but, instead, help teachers to become the best reading teachers they can be. This content knowledge is used along with technological behaviors to emphasize the need to be open to diverse populations of teachers and students.

Keywords: Community, Virtual Pre-writing Strategy, TPACK

Creating a Virtual Community of Coaches Using TPACK Principles and a Persona Graphic as a Pre-Writing Strategy

In the fall of 2020, during the Covid-19 pandemic, most of the Master of Science candidates in our university program were teaching their K-12 students both physically in person and online. This created a demanding, stressful situation. They needed to have a network of colleagues with whom they could comfortably share their experiences and still meet the standards required for the course. One of the major objectives for this master's in Reading Education course was that candidates realize the goal of coaching is not to clone themselves, but to appreciate each teacher's strengths and to help build on those strengths to become the best reading teacher he or she could be.

Theoretical Framework

When creating a virtual master's level course on Zoom for the fall 2020 semester, one of my goals was to create a sense of community for my teacher candidates. As a teacher educator, I decided to use a Persona Graphic as a pre-writing strategy and to incorporate the TPACK framework, (Mishra & Koehler, 2006) and the sociocultural theory of Vygotsky (1978) as well as the concepts about relational identities by Gee (2017). TPACK involves the integration of pedagogy with content knowledge (Shulman, 1986), then expanding to include technological knowledge (Mishra and Koehler, 2006). Combining a sociocultural orientation to TPACK brought the theoretical base to what Van Vaerenwyck, et al. (2014) call TPACK +. Adding the sociocultural aspect helped the candidates share socially situated learning experiences from their lived experiences. A new concept to them about their activity-based identity (Gee, 2017) helped them further refine their appreciation of who they are. These activity-based identities involved thinking of themselves as their natural self, as a person in an institutional setting, how they interact with people, and with whom they choose to socialize.

According to Clark and Mayer, (2016), it is important to add personalized online instruction because it leads to psychological engagement that promotes the achievement of the learning goals. One way instructors can add personalization is by creating a sense of community in their virtual classrooms. The online format is challenging for students to talk or mingle as they would in a physical classroom. With this Persona Graphic pre-writing strategy, the students formed a community by sharing their personal and professional stories.

Persona Graphic Pre-Writing Strategy Steps

The first step of this strategy in building a sense of community was to ask the candidates to develop a personal and professional statement by responding to questions about their identity. I asked the candidates to create two concentric circles, which I demonstrated using the Whiteboard in Zoom (see Appendix). I asked them to divide the outer circle with lines where the 12, 6, 3, and 9 would be on a clock and then divide each of those areas in half, making a total of 8 spaces. They each drew or wrote their responses for the following:

To begin, in the center, draw a picture of yourself. You may create and insert a Bitmoji, if you wish.

1. In the first space to the right of where the 12 would be on a clock, describe yourself in 4 ways of personal identity (Gee, 2000) 1. A force in nature, (e.g., left-handed, a fraternal twin, female, artistic, an adult with ADD) 2. A position in an institution (e.g., education- a teacher, professor) 3. Discourse identity- interactions with people and 4. Affinity groups to which you choose to belong.

2. In the second block, with which communities do you identify? (Language – 1st language, Cultural – immigrants, SES)

3. In the third block- With which work identity do you identify? Most heavily involved in new learning as a Preservice teacher, Apprentice, Novice, Experienced, Master Teacher.
4. In the fourth block- With which kinds of knowledge do you believe you have? Declarative knowledge – learning from books; Situated, can-do procedural knowledgeable to function with support; Stable procedural knowledgeable to function under “normal circumstances”; Expert adaptive knowledgeable to deal with challenges; or, Reflective, organized, analyzed knowledge, able to lead professional development (Snow, Griffin, & Burns, 2005)
5. In the fifth block- What is your perspective on good teaching? (Transmission, Apprenticeship, Developmental, Nurturing, or Social Reform)
6. In the sixth block- What was your entry point to literacy?
7. In the seventh block- What is your current professional context? (Grade, school, content)
8. In the eighth block- What are your goals and how do you intend to get there?

After I pose questions and the teacher candidates write their responses, the candidates share their responses. They note the similarities and differences they have with each other. These elicit emotional reactions, especially about when many of them immigrated to this country, revealing their background knowledge, and connecting to their specific discourse communities (Gee, 2000). Following the discussion, I ask them to write a personal and professional statement using the ideas from their pre-writing graphic and to post it on a course discussion board for all the candidates to read. The discussion brings forth memories that build community engagement within the class.

This strategy incorporates many aspects of effective online learning activities according to Clark and Mayer (2016). Teacher candidates who are learning to be Reading Coaches need to experience community engagement. Engagement is needed on two levels, behaviorally, meaning with overt actions, and psychologically, with relevant cognitive processing (Clark & Meyer, 2016). The strategy provides a graphic for the student to actively engage by visualizing themselves in the center of the graphic and describing aspects of their personalities. By sharing their responses to the questions concerning their identity, they are communicating with overt actions. When they realize they have something in common with classmates, they are cognitively processing connections. At that point, some personal differences become apparent. These differences help them to see that while they all share the common goal of becoming expert reading teachers and coaches, they may have different beliefs and values.

An Application

I started the course using this strategy to increase the candidates' online presence. With reflection, the candidates realized that they share commonalities but have differences. They expressed appreciation that when they will be coaching other teachers, they will need to respect teachers' individuality, cultural differences, and different perspectives. The candidates voiced the opinion that they do not need to agree on everything.

As Gee (2017) might say, it set the tone for the candidates to interact as the identities they had shared, such as a Cuban-immigrant teacher who likes to use Nearpod when teaching and is an active member of her church. This preference was demonstrated when groups were formed to present course content using technological applications and pedagogical strategies as they completed other assignments. Some of the technology that was incorporated in their other

assignments included Nearpad.com, Padlet.com, and Google Docs. These technological tools allowed for collaboration within the groups and with the whole class.

After using the graphic as a pre-writing draft, I invited the teacher candidates to share responses orally and asked them to identify points of similarities they had with others. This allowed the teacher candidates a chance to mention their home situations such as working with their children who are home all day and trying to do school online, or taking care of a grandparent who was at high risk for COVID-19, or trying to teach online including special needs students with short attention spans, or having their underlying health conditions which made them vulnerable. This gave me an indication that I would need to have time at the beginning of each class to ask how their day was going and to give them time to share their daily stresses. I asked them to process the ideas from the graphic organizer, write a personal and professional statement, and post it on a discussion board, providing the opportunity to connect to classmates with written responses. This assignment counted towards participation points as there were no right or wrong responses.

In Conclusion

In these uncertain times, it is important to incorporate as many of the aspects of TPACK+ to support teacher candidates emotionally as well as academically. Teacher candidates learning to be Reading Coaches can use a Persona Graphic to reflect on their unique personalities, share their thoughts and challenges, connect with other teacher candidates to form personal networks, and learn content interactively. This gives them the perspective they need to work with teachers from diverse backgrounds and to realize the job of a Reading Coach is to guide teachers to become the best reading teacher they can be, not a clone of themselves. Teacher educators using

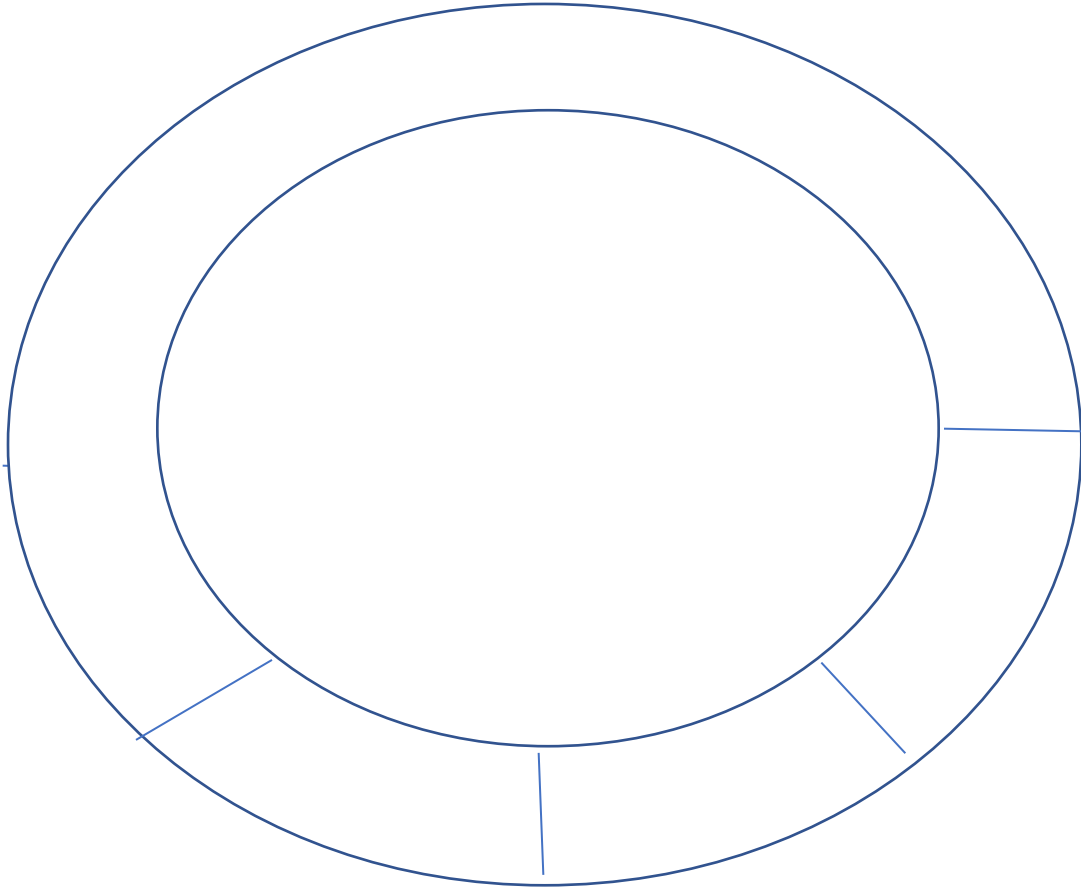
this strategy can teach in a student-centered way, especially when teaching under such previously unexpected circumstances.

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Appendix

Persona Graphic Used in Pre-Writing Strategy



Elevating Reading to a Sport: Express, Engage and Experience Literacies Outside the Classroom

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Abstract

Read and Play Saturdays (RAPS) was a program designed to work alongside 4th-8th grade students to experience novels and other media outside the classroom. In this paper, we will share how we build on what students are doing in school to provide space for book discussions and response to literature through art, music, and drama.

Keywords: Reading, Adolescent Choice, Engagement

Introduction

Adolescence is the time when peer groups become one of the most significant elements in the construction of self-concept (Allen et al., 2005; Lease, Musgrove, & Axelrod, 2002; Savin-Williams, 1979; Wentzel, 1998). Simultaneously, researchers note that as students enter into adolescence there may be “declines in positive attitudes toward reading and in the frequency of reading” (Wilkinson, et al., 2020, p. 158; Clark, 2019; McKenna, et al., 2012). As classroom teachers and literacy teacher educators, we saw how particular young adult novels could become phenomena and propel students into becoming readers. We have two primary goals as teachers: we want students to be readers and writers no matter whether they are in K-12 classrooms or university programs. In 2012, we designed RAPS (Read and Play Saturday), a grant-supported program which focused on developing middle school readers. Through this program, we wanted to immerse students in spaces where they read, played, painted, wrote, and engaged in conversations about books. We hoped that, as a result of this immersion, they would see themselves as readers and continue reading as they moved forward in school.

Goals for RAPS

Title I middle school students are frequently over-researched and over-tested; keeping this in mind, we did not want that to be a focus of our program. We did not want to use them as research subjects or incorporate more assessment into their literacy lives. We felt that both a research agenda and over-assessing might shift the focus of the program away from building a love for reading. We engaged students with books and authors. We challenged them to express their ideas through art, performance, and writing. The students experienced these events and activities on a college campus.

RAPS established goals specifically crafted to increase student engagement and access.

Identifying what counted as engagement was more challenging than providing access to books. We know, as teachers, that engagement can look different for student readers; for our purposes, we defined engagement as participation and talk. We wanted them to participate in activities and talk with us and their peers about the books they were reading. The following goals allowed us to frame much of what we were doing with the students and books as play.

1. **read** multiple young adult novels;
2. **talk** with peers about the novels;
3. **engage** in art, drama, music, and writing tasks focused on the novels;
4. **use** digital tools to explore the novels and their communities;
5. **interact** with college students and the campus so that they could “see” themselves as college students; and
6. **showcase** work on a blog that students, their families, and our community could access.

We focused on the idea that students needed to do something with books beyond read-and-answer questions.

The Goals Explained

The first goal, **read** multiple young adult novels, focused on providing choice and access to the students. An Interest-Based Model of Reading (Fink, 2008) relies on linking texts with student interests; pairing student interests with motivational materials from a well-stocked library is a key component of building student enthusiasm for reading. Program participants selected books and read as individuals, as part of a literature circle, and as a whole program. Being able to choose their books empowered students. We provided books for students to take home, but we also developed a RAPS lending library available to students and classroom teachers.

Student choice of books, participation and engagement, and play were an important part of the Saturday morning RAPS program. One young boy participant stated, “if I got to pick my book every time, I would be a lot more interested in what I read. Or a lot more interested in books. Instead of teachers telling me what to read and me read it. So yeah, I’d say I’d be more interested if I got to read more of the books I like to read.” This comment reinforced for us Rosenblatt’s (1995) notion that “the reading of a particular work at a particular moment by a particular reader will be a highly complex process” (p. 75). Allowing students to make the choices of which books they wanted to read increased their willingness to read and participate in the program.

The second goal, **talk** with peers about the novels, was an important focus of the program. We modeled how to talk about books and how to navigate disagreement about books. One participant explained, “I didn’t know exactly what I thought about that character until I was able to talk about it with my group.” As students talked, they learned to value their ideas, to ask questions of their peers, and to generate conversations around texts without teacher guidance. They created shared meanings and predicted their peers’ responses to scenes or events. They valued different understandings of the texts. As one reader explained, “It was okay that we disagreed because we had our own reasons for what we thought and they were all part of the text.”

Encouraging talk helped students engage with the ideas in a book and make sense of new and/or complex ideas. Both parents and students became aware of the importance of talking about books and valued these conversations. Gallagher and Kittle (2018) argued that, “some of the deepest conversations that we had about reading happened when we gave our students opportunities to talk to one another—during book clubs and when studying a core work together”

(p. 17). As students practiced talking about the books and became more comfortable with sharing their ideas, we saw increased talk around major plot points and complicated nuances from the books. We also saw an increase in students providing their reasoning for recommending books to other students.

Our third goal, **engage** with art, drama, music, and other writing tasks, focused on getting students to create and perform in response to the novels. For example, after reading Patterson's *I Funny*, students researched and created jokes to tell in their own stand-up comedy routine, complete with a student-created stage and backdrop to use as they performed. We believed that engaging with participatory, arts-based activities (rather than quizzes or essays) would deepen students' understanding of the books they read as well as increase their willingness to read more difficult texts. We were able to witness confidence and comprehension grow as students engaged in artistic tasks with the books.

Students also used the texts that they were reading as mentor texts. They wrote poetry based on poems in *Brown Girl Dreaming* and comedy sketches based on having characters from different books interact. They wrote Twitter responses to authors, book trailers, and short movies. Additionally, they wrote short stories modeled after stories that we read. After we read *Skeleton Creek*, they created stories that included both text and video. One student explained, "I'm not really a writer but I got to try out some different things and they were okay." This focus on performance and creation provided space for students to both connect to the books and enact their own stories. In addition to incorporating performance, we also focused on performance in settings that allowed students to build something—whether they were building origami, creating dragons with artists, writing and performing spoken word poetry with local poets—students were focused on creating a product to share in some sort of digital space.

The fourth goal, **using digital tools**, provided new opportunities for students to create and interact with the novels. We used digital tools to create, communicate, and share with both our students and their communities. We chose tools for their ease of use and end-product they afforded (e.g., Padlet, MovieMaker). The students' interest in new technologies ensured that they were engaged in both reading and production. Using tech tools to promote reader responses (both individually and with small groups) highlights reading as a critical and social task (Park, 2012). In addition to trying out different digital media, students also tried out Scratch Coding and Animation. The digital tools offered additional ways for us to share the work we were doing and fostered interactions with the community. One parent shared that she “appreciated the artwork and writing pieces” that her child published each week.

Engaging with the books through talk, art, and digital media allowed us to create opportunities to engage with the authors of the texts that we read. The students participated in multiple interactions with authors in social media (Twitter, Instagram, etc.) and in person. Each year, we brought one author to campus to talk to the students. After listening to Jacqueline Woodson read from *Brown Girl Dreaming* and talk about her experiences as a writer, a student commented that he “never thought about authors as people who did stuff like buy groceries or have kids.” After meeting and talking with Christopher Paul Curtis, another student told her parents that she “got to meet a real, live author.” The realization that authors are real people that are not, as one student said, “already dead and gone” made them recognize that they could be authors as well. Seeing authors who looked like they did also made a difference in how they engaged with books. One student explained, “[Sharon Draper] was black like me and a teacher like my mom. And she writes books.”

The fifth goal, **interact** with college students and the college campus, provided several ways for our students to engage. Students met with, and participated in, activities lead by different campus organizations. For example, we read *Hoot* by Carl Hiaasen, and college students who were part of a science program on campus came in to demonstrate how the decomposition of different materials happened. Another set of novels incorporated explosions and chemical reactions, and the same group of college students helped the students create experiments with different chemical reactions. When the RAPS students read a series of crime and mystery stories, campus police came in and set up a crime scene where the students could collect evidence and suggest possible solutions to the crime. Another book focused on music and members of the marching band taught students about instruments and music. Interacting with professors, campus leaders, and college students showed students the many opportunities available on campus.

One student stated, “I didn’t think about college as a real place until we were doing stuff here. People said stuff about college, but it wasn’t real.” Students visited dorm rooms, ate in the cafeteria, explored the library, met professors and student-scientists, worked with marching band members, attended football games, etc. We used photo scavenger hunts to encourage them to tour the different parts of campus. One parent said, “My kid talks about college as a place he can go now.” For many students, college was a far-off and scary place that did not seem real to them. Participating in activities in various locations on campus and interacting with college students and faculty allowed students to develop a sense of comfort and belonging.

Celebrating the work that the students did was a necessary component of the program, but we wanted the sharing and celebrating of the work to extend beyond the program itself; therefore, we created a blog to showcase the work that the students did. This goal, **showcase**

student work, provided opportunities for students, parents, teachers, and community members to access the work that students created. Stewart and Pendergrass (2015) found that social relationships impact what and how students read; further, “these relationships included conversations outside the classroom” (p. 28). The blog (<http://www.pattersonraps.com/>) provided a space for students to share their creations with friends, family, and teachers. The communicative aspect of the blog was crucial for current, and future reading and writing as their reading experiences now extended beyond the program. As one student explained, “I told my teacher about my book trailer posted on the blog, and she showed it in class. My friends said it was good.”

Conclusion

Engaging in and beyond the text provided RAPS participants with the opportunity to see books differently. They realized that books could have multiple interpretations, that authors were real people, and that there were real-world equivalents to what they saw in books. This set of realizations broadened the students’ understanding of books to explore the world around them. Books, as one student claimed, “became like real, legit things” that they could “do things other than taking a quiz on.”

A final aspect of the RAPS program was the focus on games and interaction. We took the “play” aspect of Read and Play Saturdays seriously. We played games at the beginning and end of the Saturday sessions. We did this to create community and allow the students to see a side of reading that they may not have seen at school. Reading can be fun and playful; readers can engage with books in ways that can be different. We created spaces where we encouraged students to be silly. We could dress up in costumes, play games, and still see ourselves as readers. As one participant explained, “We played a lot and did games, and things and the books

were just a big part of the playing we did.” Another participant said, “in school, everything about reading is serious and right or wrong. Here reading can be fun, like something we do with friends.”

The initial choice to do this work on a Saturday “elevated reading to the level of sports” as one student said, because it gave him something to do on Saturday mornings, just like his friends playing sports. One parent described the program, writing, “... students are encouraged to read, ask questions, and share in a friendly environment. The students also have the chance to see so many others (their peers, instructors, and volunteers) engaging in reading for pleasure—on a Saturday. I can assume that this helps to promote reading as something that is ‘cool’ for the students to do.” This program’s participatory and interactive components countered the deeply entrenched idea that reading is a solitary act and promoted the connections among readers sharing texts.

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Supporting Students and Teachers' Goal Setting To Develop Self-Regulated, Strategic Learners

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Abstract

The paper presents the function and value of self-regulation in literacy and ways it can be implemented within classroom settings. Even though a focus has been on developing self-regulated student learners, the paper argues for supports that can enhance teachers' self-regulatory skills through the implementation of specific analysis and reflection strategies. Drawing from an evidence-based instructional approach on genre-based reading and writing, the paper provides specific recommendations for educators on the formation of instructional and professional goals using assessment information. Further, a model that explains how instructional goals can inform professional goals is shared and their reciprocal relationship is explained. Resources for school-wide application and professional development practices are explained as well as cautionary notes for effective application.

Keywords: Professional Development, Writing Instruction, Reading Instruction, Self-regulation, Teacher Instructional Goals, Teacher Professional Goals

Supporting Students and Teachers' Goal Setting To Develop Self-Regulated, Strategic Learners

The goal of learning is to acquire knowledge and skills that were previously unknown and internalize their use. Educators' goal is that students go beyond learning content to develop procedures and strategies that can help them continue their quest for knowledge and learning. To accomplish this goal, educators do not only address cognitive strategies but also metacognitive strategies to assist learners' understanding of how and why a specific strategy or plan is utilized. A strategy is a conscious plan that is developed to assist a learner in the completion of a complicated or challenging task (MacArthur, 2011; MacArthur & Graham, 2016). Within the context of strategy instruction, learners access declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge while they also learn to independently apply strategies and flexibly set goals and manage their behavior and environment to achieve them (Paris et al., 1983). This latter goal of self-regulation can be embedded in instructional approaches and in professional development to assist teachers' and students' self-regulatory practices and progression. The purpose of this paper is to provide information on processes of classroom assessment for performance that informs students' practice and goal setting and can also support instructors' goals. In the next section additional information is shared on self-regulation. Then the components of a specific approach to reflection and self-regulation are explained, and the model of instruction and assessment for student and teacher goal setting is shared.

Self-Regulation and Learning

Cognitive science shifted focus from responses to stimuli to learners' unknown thinking processes, thus developing interest about learners' ability to self-regulate their performance to reach success (Sweller, 1988). Prior to cognitive science, learning or the challenges associated

with it were attributed to the learner and their ability without consideration given on learners' thinking paths, motivation, and self-regulation (Winne, 1996; Winne & Hadwin, 1998). Self-regulation refers to processes learners' use to identify short term and long term goals, manage their completion, monitor themselves and their actions, complete those goals, analyze the reasons for these results, and develop new goals (Zimmerman, 2002). Self-regulation addresses feelings, behaviors, and thoughts a learner has about a specific task. Thus, self-regulatory learning does not occur as a response to teachers' teaching but rather as something students do for themselves to reach specific goals (Zimmerman, 2000; Winne, 1996). Further, their success is guided by their personal goals as well as the goals set by a specific task. For example, when working to complete a response to reading, the task would be to complete a cohesive response that satisfies the requirements of the assignment. A personal goal may be to cite evidence from the text to support specific claims. In doing so, learners will monitor their performance and will evaluate their progress against the specific set goals and will reflect on their performance as a manner of setting new goals. It is important to note that self-regulated learners view learning as a personal goal and work to accomplish it while they continuously and consistently reflect on their performance and improvement. This reflection allows them to be on a trajectory of improvement, seeing their growth, and their progress helps them remain positive toward their next step and motivated as they are satisfied by the task and their performance (Zimmerman, 2000). However, it is challenging for learners to manage themselves alone. Support can come from self-awareness, knowledge of skill (as well as self-monitoring when learning a skill is a new task), and the ability to make adaptations to effectively apply that knowledge.

Learning to apply cognitive strategies is complex and involves the knowledge of the skill and of the content overall. In addition, it requires metacognition (thinking of your own thinking;

Flavell, 1977) and metacognitive practices (Pressley et al., 1987). Instruction can address the development of needed self-regulatory skills (Veenman et al., 2006), and this can be done effectively. In the following section I further explain instructional applications in writing and reading for goal setting and self-regulation.

Developing Students' Self-Regulation in Writing and Reading

In the Developing Strategic Writers Curriculum (DSW; Philippakos & MacArthur, under review; Philippakos & MacArthur, 2015; Philippakos, MacArthur, and Coker, 2015) teachers employ think-alouds to model the completion of specific cognitive tasks (e.g., planning, revision, authors' purpose, and genre), and of metacognitive thinking processes. During think-aloud modeling for a writing task, teachers make audible their thinking process and how they navigate from ideation to organization of ideas, to evaluation, to revision, and to editing. In addition, they model how they set goals about the specific writing task, how they monitor their progress toward their goal, how they problem-solve when challenges occur, and how they reflect on their time, effort, and use of strategies to set new goals (Traga Philippakos, 2020). Similarly, when completing reading tasks, teachers make audible the process of analysis of a text to determine its genre and how to read it to take notes. Modeling practices include coping without expert presentation to better support students' emulation of these taught practices and strategies (Traga Philippakos, under review a) since coping models are more effective than expert models (Zimmernann & Kitsantas, 2001). "In a coping model, contrary to an expert model, teachers begin [instruction] by explaining how challenging the task is, and how it can be managed by identifying and applying a specific strategy" (Traga Philippakos, p. 7., in press a). Then teachers model live how to problem-solve as they complete a specific task.

After guided practice, when students are asked to complete a task independently, they attempt to emulate teachers' cognitive and metacognitive practices. Thus, they may use procedural facilitators (e.g., posters) as well as self-talk that can help them manage their actions. For instance, students may ask, "*What have I completed so far? Where am I in the writing process? What is the next step? What strategy do I use to complete it?*" Teachers may display such statements and questions or assist students to develop such self-talk and include it in a binder or tape it on their desk for easy access. Most importantly, students regularly observe teachers' use of such talk during modeling and overall practice. This consistency in the use of strategies gives value on their use, and students gradually internalize them and modify them as they make them their own.

One of the ways that students are further supported is through reflection on the use of strategies and on goal setting at the revision stage (Traga Philippakos, 2020). This reflection can be part of a pair-and-share activity, can be part of a classroom conversation, or can be recorded in students' journals. After the completion of their writing, students reread their work and evaluate its clarity for the reader using a genre-specific rubric (see Philippakos & MacArthur, 2016a; 2016b). The evaluation includes numerical values of zero (not present), one (present but confusing to the reader), two (clear to reader) that are applied against specific criteria (see Philippakos et al., 2015; Philippakos & MacArthur, 2020., 2015; 2020). Figure 1 provides the criteria that would be used in in the case of argumentation:

Figure 1: Criteria for Argumentation (Traga Philippakos, 2021).

Beginning

- ∇ Issue
- ∇ Position

Middle

- ∇ Reasons and Evidence
- ∇ Opposing position, reasons, rebuttal

End

- ∇ Restatement of Position
- ∇ Message to the reader-Call for action

If while rereading for evaluation purposes, learners assign a score of zero on the statement of position, this would mean that the element is not present, and they neglected to include it in their paper. Thus, their revision goal will be to add a position statement that will clearly state to readers their stance on the issue (e.g., It is imperative that learning loss is addressed with systematic and coordinated educational efforts). Their goal beyond that one paper will be to use the elements of argumentative writing to carefully plan and draft so all elements are included, and the paper addresses the expectations of that discourse.

This process of systematic examination of progress with iterative goal-setting procedures helps learners progress toward their own learning goals as they also tend to their classroom's grade-level expectations. Regardless of the latter, though, their personal, learning goals guide their growth and are not necessarily the same with the ones other colleagues have set. Learners

self-regulate to manage their behavior, actions, feelings, and when they receive feedback from their teacher or from peers use it to adjust their learning goals.

As students identify how they progress across time and how much progress they have made on a specific goal for a given assignment, they advance in their ability to take control of their learning and develop a mindset of gradual improvement (Traga Philippakos, 2020; Dweck, 2016). Thus, they may share, *“I am not able to complete Z, yet, but I will if I use X and Y.”* In the context of writing this may be, *“I did not write an essay with all elements for the Middle, but next time I will use the sentence frames to guide me in stating the Opposing position and Rebuttal.”* The use of formative assessment as a guide for goal setting can empower students as independent, self-regulated learners.

Teachers Set Instructional and Professional Goals

In the same manner that self-regulation is expected and supported for K to 12 learners and even postsecondary and college ones, teachers can also be supported as adult learners in their goal setting. Teacher-level goal setting can focus on student learners and on teachers’ professional growth. Figure 2 depicts the process of determining instructional and professional goals to support student learning and teacher development. Further, the cyclic relationship between teachers’ instructional goals, students’ application, and identification of students’ needs is shown. The specific teacher-level goals are explained further in the next section.

Instructional goals. By the term instructional goals, I refer to plans teachers make to teach or reteach specific content. The process of determining what to teach, though, is not only based on observational data, a given curriculum, or arbitrary criteria. Teachers can analyze students’ writing to determine what specific needs exist for the whole classroom, for a group of students, and for individuals. This information can then be used to design mini-lessons that can

be delivered and modeled to those groups scaffolding their development as writers (See Figure 2 with sample matrix; see also Philippakos & MacArthur, 2020 for additional matrixes). Drawing from the previous reference to argumentation, when students complete their writing, teachers analyze their papers using the same genre-specific rubric that students use to self-evaluate. Then teachers place the information on the matrix in a descending or ascending order.

An examination of the matrix's results can then show to teachers that all students find the call for action in the end of the paper challenging. This information can be used to provide a whole-group lesson on "messages to the reader" and on ways the reader can "think more" on the issue. Teachers may also identify that a group of students struggled with the development of the opposing position and rebuttal, while another group found the inclusion of evidence challenging. These various needs could become different lessons that teachers can design and provide to different learners. Thus, in this approach, all students' differentiated needs are supported as they all grow in their argumentative writing (Traga Philippakos & Moore, 2019). It is not uncommon for a group to lack knowledge of all elements of argumentation. In these cases, teachers will support students to develop their personal goals. For learners who lack all elements of argumentation, expecting them to write an essay with all elements of argumentation would be unreasonable and can have devastating effects on their motivation. Thus, for that first paper, teachers may help students set a goal to include the elements of Position, Reasons, Restatement of Position using their strategies to plan, draft, evaluate to revise and edit. After self-evaluation, reflection, and revisions, students and teachers may develop a new set of goals building on the ones from the previous analysis (e.g., students may now work to include evidence on their next paper in addition to the previous elements (if that goal is also achieved)).

Figure 2: Matrix for Analysis of Classroom Needs

	Beginning		Middle									End	
	Issue	Position	R1	E1	R2	E2	R3	E3	Op. Pos.	R. Op.	Rebuttal	Restate Position	Message to Reader
Student Name													
Total													

Comments on use of convincing reasons: _____

Comments on use of transitions words/sentence frames: _____

Comments on the use of Accurate information from Readings. _____

Comments on the use of Appropriate in-text citations. _____

Other: _____

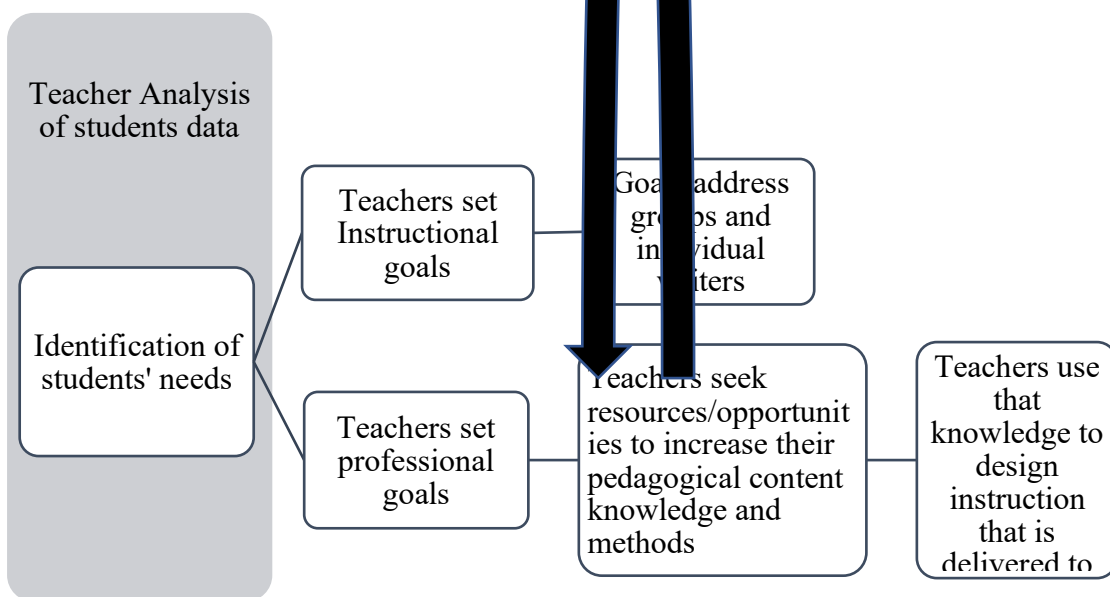
[adapted with permission from © Guilford Press]

Professional goals. Professional goals can influence the content and delivery of topics that are included in instructional goals. For example, teachers may set as a professional goal to further learn how to support students’ audience awareness or revision in writing or authors’ bias and note-taking on reading. These goals will lead them to seek out opportunities to attend

webinars to answer these questions they may have and look for resources such as books and articles and University-professors' advice to increase their knowledge base and make instructional decisions.

The specific learning goals teachers set can affect their instruction and lesson design for their whole-class and for their small-group instruction. There is a relationship then between teachers' professional goals, their growth as learners, and their students' growth. Teachers support different learners by providing targeted instruction that addresses students' needs. As students complete their writing and set their own goals, teachers analyze responses to determine what additional differentiated support is needed and what additional areas of personal growth they need to achieve (see Figure 3). Teachers who set professional goals may dedicate time and effort to their own learning as they know that the better equipped, they are, the better they can support students.

Figure 3. Process of Teacher Goal Setting for Self-Regulation



Professional Development Applications

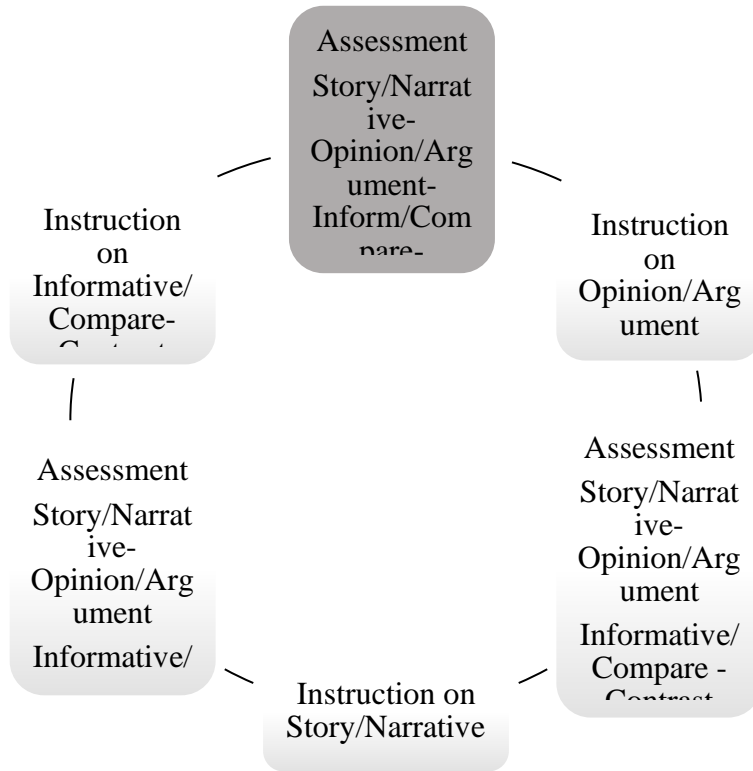
In professional development (PD) sessions, specific instructional practices are introduced to teachers. Usually, the theory and research are first explained, then teachers observe the application of the strategy or practice, they apply it in groups or independently and receive feedback (Tallerico, 2004; Traga Philippakos, in press b). In addition to supporting teachers' knowledge and understanding, a goal is to support them with their self-regulation and self-reliance on utilizing practices that can guide students' work, design differentiated instruction, and improve their pedagogy.

The DSW PD approach (see Traga Philippakos, 2020) engages teachers in a model of assessment and of instruction to support students' goal setting and teachers' goal setting. In a recent study with K to 12 teachers at a district of ten elementary schools, four middle and high schools in a rural south eastern district, teachers applied this model (Traga Philippakos, unpublished data under analysis). Teachers assessed their students, analyzed the data, and developed instructional goals and personal learning goals. In Figure 4 you may see the model of assessment that was applied (Traga Philippakos, 2020; Traga Philippakos & Voggt, in press).

Teachers collected assessments prior to instruction of any genre, while they also collected information across all genres (See Figure 4; Traga Philippakos, 2020; Traga Philippakos, unpublished data). Teachers were supported in developing a matrix for each of the genres (see sample Figure 2) and collaborated in their Professional Learning Communities to develop mini-lessons. From one instructional cycle to the next they identified-as a grade-level team- the specific needs students had, codesigned instruction, and shared resources. The researcher was a resource for information that could guide their professional learning, and through workshops the

researcher provided, teachers learned to filter resources that were not supported by evidence and began to make selections independently.

Figure 4: *A representation of the process of assessing and instructing across time.*



In this work, the goal was not for teachers to only develop understanding about genre-based strategy instruction and the delivery of instructional units with fidelity and integrity. Rather the goal was for teachers to function as learners themselves, use the formative measures as a guide to support their students and themselves as professionals who are lifelong learners.

Discussion

Learning is challenging but also rewarding. For the learner to be self-disciplined to complete tasks independently, knowledge alone is not sufficient because cognitive load can affect attention and completion of tasks and learners' self-efficacy beliefs and motivation (Winne, 1996). Further, previous experiences can affect students' beliefs and dispositions.

Supporting students' self-regulation is necessary for their independence as learners, and it can have a lifelong effect on their ability to be professionally successful (Zimmernam, 2002).

Instruction that supports students' self-reflection and guides them to set personal goals can support their self-efficacy and satisfaction about their work. The use of genre-specific rubrics can support students' self-reflection and goal setting (Traga Philippakos, 2020). That way students become strategic in the ways they complete tasks. In this paper I suggest that the analysis of all students' data and their representation in a table can support teachers' development of instructional goals that can lead to the design of lessons to improve specific skills students lack or need to improve. This use of formative data addresses differentiation needs within a tiered-instructional approach for writing (Traga Philippakos & Fitzpatrick, 2018). Further, this analysis can lead teachers to develop professional goals as they may identify specific topics and ideas that are not as clear to them and need to learn to be effective professionals. Thus, teachers strategically improve on their pedagogy and on the methods, they implement to support students.

The process of developing professional and instructional goals can be a goal for teachers within a site, a grade, and an individual goal. I suggest, though, that it is essential for professional development efforts to first connect with specific instructional practices teachers are asked to apply in the classroom (and for those to be evidence-based) and for teachers to be supported through specific, feasible, and sustainable approaches to set professional and instructional goals.

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Creating Culturally Relevant, Virtual Classrooms in Uncertain Times: Teaching Culture with Pop Culture

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Abstract

As the U.S. cultural landscape becomes increasingly diverse, it calls for culturally relevant teaching rooted in our diverse student population's life experiences and heritage. This teaching strategy responds to the increasing need to incorporate culturally responsive teachings and sensitive interactions into the world of virtual learning. As the COVID-19 pandemic evolved, teachers restructured instruction, transitioning from brick-and-mortar classrooms to virtual environments. The instructional activity Teaching Culture with Pop Culture demonstrates an effective strategy that shows awareness of and appreciation for students' unique cultural backgrounds and experiences. Whether in asynchronous or synchronous environment, this activity supports multiple expressions of diversity, building social presence and cultural competence.

Keywords: Culturally Relevant Teaching, English Language Learners, Online Teaching, Teaching Culture with Pop Culture.

Creating Culturally Relevant, Virtual Classrooms in Uncertain Times: Teaching Culture with Pop Culture

In the early spring of 2020, teachers worldwide find themselves scrambling to continue teaching despite a global health crisis. The sudden closing of schools due to the COVID-19 pandemic forced millions of educators to embrace “emergency e-learning protocols” (Murphy, 2020, p. 492). As all schools moved quickly from brick-and-mortar environments to virtual learning, the questions arose: How do educators foster Culturally Relevant Pedagogies in an online setting? How do educators create an online learning environment to celebrate cultural diversity in the classroom?

Culturally Relevant Pedagogies (CRP)

Culturally Relevant Pedagogies framework is based on three propositions: academic growth, cultural competence, and socio-political/critical consciousness (Ladson-Billing, 1995). This article attempts to explain this theoretical formulation in nexus with students’ academic achievement and cultural competence. Ladson-Billings (2021) affirms that culturally competent students are confident in their own culture—language, traditions, history while also gaining knowledge and fluency in at least one different culture. Literature that discusses culturally relevant pedagogies agrees that reflecting students’ lives and cultures in the curriculum is critical to cope with differences, highlight students’ unique cultural strengths, and value diversity (Ladson-Billing, 1995; Ladson-Billing, 2021; Temple et al.; 2018). In various educational settings, scholars exploring the relationship between culturally responsive teachings and sensitive interactions present a consensus that illustrates the importance of capitalizing on learners’ differences to promote learning growth (Bauml & Mongan, 2014; Paris, 2020; Temple et al.; 2018).

The challenge of remote teaching tested educators’ resilience and directed them to ponder how to recreate culturally responsive instructional settings in a virtual world. It was especially true for English as Second Language teachers who, in a matter of days, needed to

construct virtual student-centered teaching activities to support students' culture and linguistic heritage while encouraging student engagement and collaboration. Hence, using students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds as a point of reference for impactful teaching (Thomas, 2020).

Teaching Culture with Pop-Culture: Teaching Strategy

The benefits of including pop culture in teaching to advance students' language development have been pivotal for various studies. According to Werner and Tegge (2020), pop culture understanding can serve as cultural capital in language development. In agreement, several publications have shown that incorporating different forms of pop culture in lessons supports students' knowledge and experiences, creating a meaningful and motivating learning atmosphere (Werner and Tegge, 2020; Woodley et al., 2017). When teachers embrace pop culture through engaging activities, sharing questioning, and open dialogue, it greatly promotes children's diversity and uniqueness (Bauml & Mongan, 2014; Temple et al., 2018).

In the midst of a pandemic, it was of imminent urgency to explore pop culture resources and digital affordance to effectively integrate technology into teaching and learning. The strategy, Teaching Culture with Pop-Culture (Gordon & Fine, 2020) is relevant to creating a meaningful and motivating virtual learning environment. This strategy, in which students build a virtual scene with culturally relevant objects, is an e-learning activity that fused culturally relevant teaching and technology. Throughout this activity, teachers and students engage in conversation about culture, languages, and literature while promoting a safe learning environment and online collaboration. This learning activity aims to promote a virtual, valuable, and sensitive conversation to promote cultural competencies and appreciation for others' backgrounds, languages, and experiences.

The approach consists of asking students to create a virtual room or scene using objects or items representing their culture, experiences, language, hopes, and dreams. The students create an avatar using Bitmoji (Bitmoji.com) application and a room or scene background in PowerPoint, Google slides, or Office 365. They then find pictures of their family, representations of their country of origin, an image of their favorite book in the language of their choice, and different representations of their cultural holidays, foods, and future careers to outline and create their scene or background. The students also could opt for dressing up their Bitmoji to depict something about themselves. After completing their Bitmoji scene, the students publish their final project and share their creations with their classmates.



Gordon & Fine, 2020



Gordon & Fine, 2020

Given that during the fall of the year 2020, most of the classes were still conducted entirely remotely, the students used the Flipgrid (Flipgrid.com) platform to share their projects. Using Flipgrid, the students could share their individualities, welcome their peers, and get to know each other while learning online. Another advantage of integrating Flipgrid into this activity was the “effective cultivation of social presence” (Jones-Roberts, 2018, p.1) and the ability to maintain a sense of community within a virtual environment. Incorporating diverse methods to aim online social presence results in more motivated students, active

learning, and collaboration, translating to a constructive and effective online learning environment (Jones-Roberts, 2018).

This teaching idea explores how educators can incorporate pop culture and new technologies to champion curriculum standards through culturally relevant teaching. In these unprecedented times, activities such as Teaching Culture with Pop-Culture offer a pedagogical pathway to support culturally relevant practices as well as interactivity and social presence in asynchronous and synchronous teaching and learning modes. Embracing pedagogical practices that respect and welcome students' cultures afford teachers the opportunities to enrich the understanding and global perspective of everyone.

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Promoting Anti-Racist Dialogue Through Holocaust Education

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Abstract

This paper provides guidance toward the planning of units of instruction that promote anti-racist discourse in K-12 classrooms with a specific focus on Holocaust and human rights literature. Grounded in critical literacy, a focus is placed on the incorporation of dialogue that builds on anti-racist topics by countering stereotypes, raising attention to topics of systemic injustices, and becoming an Upstander. Instruction that is envisioned within this paper includes a study of the historical context of the Holocaust, current day events, and ethics.

Keywords: Critical Literacy; Holocaust Awareness; Holocaust Education; Anti-Racist Education

Introduction

This paper presents ideas that will help teachers link Holocaust Education with a discussion about human rights abuses and genocides worldwide, including those occurring in the present day. Following a brief overview of trends in Holocaust Education in the United States, I will describe ideas that can inform instruction about the Holocaust. Critical literacy education provides the foundation for this paper, with Holocaust Education, intended to be transformative to the way students see the world while also flexible to the context in which the instruction occurs (Janks, 2017). There has long been a push and pull between two different schools of thought. One end of the continuum links the Holocaust with other human rights abuses and genocides on the international stage. Another approach focuses specifically on the Holocaust as *Ha-Shoah*, the catastrophe causing great suffering to the Jewish people (Gray, 2014). I wish to honor both approaches, though this paper falls in the former end of the continuum. Here, I believe it is essential to situate myself as an ally (white, male, Christian) in this paper's topic.

During part of my elementary school years, I attended a private Jewish School in Pittsburgh, with memories and first-hand accounts of *Ha-Shoah* running deep. This experience deeply influenced my interests in social justice issues over the years and my choices to be an English teacher, a reading teacher, and now a teacher educator. Yet, I am also aware that not being Jewish, my connection to tragedy and sorrow would have been different if I were raised Jewish. During third grade through much of sixth grade, I attended Synagogue on Saturday in the Squirrel Hill region of Pittsburgh and a Mormon church service on Sunday. The call to be an upstander – one who speaks up and stands up against injustices (Bartrop, 2016) – and not a bystander stayed with me long after my family moved from Pittsburgh to Central Florida. The influence is both personal and professional. I remain drawn to the study of prophetic approaches

of speaking against injustices and the misuse of power, which can be found within Jewish traditions (Ellis, 2018; Heschel, 2001). Over time, I joined the African Methodist Episcopal (AME) Church, drawn to the understandings of prophetic approaches that are grounded in Black Church traditions of the United States in response to systemic racism and oppression (Hendricks, 2011; Thurman, 1996). I credit the Holocaust education I received as a child for contributing to a journey that has led to my view of teaching as a calling, tied in with broader movements encapsulated in the stance of an upstander (Darder et al., 2017). I believe that Holocaust education combined with inquiry and dialogue, which includes exploration of cultural and historical contexts, can have a transformative impact on students as it did for me as a child.

Debates About Curriculum

Harriet Sepinwall and Samuel Totten represent two sides of a debate over when and how to teach elementary school-aged children about the Holocaust. Sepinwall (1999) argued in favor of introducing elementary-aged children to the study of the Holocaust so that children will explore important ethical themes. A visceral exploration of empathy (Jennings, 2010; Johnson & Vasudevan, 2012; Spector & Jones, 2007; Zembylas, 2016) is fostered by combining literary discussion groups and inquiry-based learning activities with stories that depict the lived experiences of people in concentration camps (Adler, 1995; Spiegelman, 1996; Wiesel, 2006), children missing a parent (Kerr, 2009), children hiding from capture (Dauvillier, Lizano & Salsedo, 2014), or the courage of risking one's life in resistance to the Holocaust (Hesse & Watson, 2004). Totten (2002) countered that children are too young to understand the complex themes and may become traumatized. Indeed, when literature used within the unit turns to graphic imagery and detail of experiences in concentration camps (Shackleton & Whittingham, 2019), it is possible for students themselves to experience trauma (LaCapra, 2001), and teachers

would be wise to be prepared to use trauma-based instruction and caution when teaching the Holocaust to children (Jordan, 2004). The risk of trauma is heightened in the case of students who are Jewish (Levitt, 2007).

Concern is warranted over the accuracy of literature chosen to support a unit of study. For example, Heather Morris's *The Tattooist of Auschwitz* (2018) and John Boyne's *The Boy in the Striped Pajamas* (2006) have come under criticism for historical inaccuracies and misrepresentations (Witek-Malicka, 2018; Randall, 2019). Established in 1993, The U.S. Holocaust Memorial Museum (USHMM) provides resources, including curriculum guidelines that can aid teachers at various grade levels in dealing with issues of historical accuracy and choosing age-appropriate material. In 2020, the *Never Again Act* expanded the museum's responsibility to develop and distribute material that promotes effective Holocaust Education in schools. However, instruction about the Holocaust in public schools can vary significantly from one state to another. This inconsistency is problematic for teachers who seek guidance related to key debates over teaching about the Holocaust. According to USHMM (2021), only 16 states require Holocaust Education in public school.

Methods in Teaching About the Holocaust

In the 1970s, systemic Holocaust Education became increasingly common in social studies classrooms in the United States (Fallace, 2008). Trends that emerged were strongly influenced by leading Holocaust historians. Primo Levi (1989) urged that lessons about the Holocaust should shed light on the evils of the Holocaust. This approach should include instruction that does not shy away from the atrocities within concentration camps while exploring the moral context. Meanwhile, Saul Friedländer's (2014) approach integrates education about the Holocaust with a type of historiography in which a study of the Holocaust is

deeply emotional and intellectual, with students gaining insight into the context of the Holocaust and lived experiences of victims and survivors.

Henry Friedlander's (1979) landmark paper, "Toward a Methodology of Teaching about the Holocaust," remains foundational in describing why and how teachers can plan instruction centered on the Holocaust. Namely, Holocaust Education can inform studies of present-day events, including human rights abuses and genocides. Holocaust Education units can be part of studies of human psychology and a study of society, which can include integrating ELA units with civics and sociology. Additionally, a unit on the Holocaust can consist of studying the implications of both ideology and technology. Finally, studying the Holocaust contributes to studies of morality and ethics, or what Friedlander called civic virtue. Friedlander argued that instruction on the Holocaust should include studying the historical context that gave rise to the Nazi movement. English language arts teachers can plan interdisciplinary units that integrate social studies curriculum on defining totalitarianism and historical trends that detail how totalitarianism can rise to power. Importantly, however, students also need to study Jewish history to understand the context of reactions of Jewish people to the Holocaust. Holocaust Education should include a study of those who were bystanders to the Holocaust, including reactions worldwide to the Holocaust. Finally, Friedlander urged teachers not to shy away from teaching students about conditions in the concentration camps.

Critical Literacy and Holocaust Education

Critical literacy provides the foundation for pedagogical approaches in this paper. I wish to encourage teachers to integrate Holocaust Education with the broad range of language arts, including reading (Luke, 2012; Street, 1984), writing (Lewison et al., 2015), listening with empathy and compassion to learn from one another (Pinar, 2015), participation in varied forms

of speaking such as poetry (Alim, 2011; Call-Cummings et al., 2020), making meaning of visual representations, often through digital technology (Kress, 2009; Reinking, 2019), and creating visual representations through art (Albers, 2008). Reading is viewed within critical literacy as socially and culturally situated (Gutiérrez et al., 2009; Lee, 2007), multimodal (Kress, 2009), and it is a tool associated with social capital (Bourdieu, 2000).

Drawing on Freire (1970), proponents of critical literacy argue that students should gain the literacy skills involved in “reading the word” and confront injustices by reading the world (Jenkins, 2016; Shor, 1999). Freedom to explore concepts of justice and personal responsibility through discourse (Fairclough, 1989; Weninger, 2018) is key to instruction in a classroom that uses critical literacy to challenge preconceptions of identities (Holland et al., 1998; Lewis, Enciso & Moje, 2007) and varied forms of power relationships (Foucault, 1984), including the power that is grounded in systemic injustices and systemic white supremacy (Love, 2019; Morrell, 2008; Paris & Alim, 2017). Graphic novels and picture books (Roche, 2015), for example, provide children with powerful tools for exploring critical literacy in the classroom.

Holocaust Education that is informed by critical literacy involves not only an analysis of ideology and social structures that gave rise to the Holocaust but also the critiquing of unjust power relationships in daily life (Luke, 2012). Young children can, for example, become involved in a problem-based learning project in the context of literacy instruction as they explore concepts of right and wrong in social relations (Kim & Cho, 2017). This critique leads to action, intending to help students consider how to take steps toward more just lives and a more just society (Comber, 2001). Critical literacy in a language arts classroom can lead to a deep exploration of themes related to personal identity (Beach et al., 2015) and a new understanding of moral responsibilities (Janks, 2012). For example, Yoon (2020) implemented a curriculum

designed around critical literacy with second-grade students, fostering open and inquisitive conversations. Yoon noted that these conversations about moral themes would not be possible with a scripted curriculum and that teachers need the flexibility to adapt to the flow of dialogue.

Curriculum Design

Many approaches to critical literacy education have been developed over the years (see also Allen & Alexander, 2013; Paris & Alim, 2017). I will focus on two that inform the approach to critical literacy for which I advocate. First, I will discuss the interactive model of cultural literacy (Janks, 2010). Then I will describe how Holocaust Education can also be informed by Lewison's four dimensions of critical literacy in language arts (Lewison et al., 2002). According to the interactive model of critical literacy education (Janks, 2010), classroom teachers should address each of the following: (a) issues of dominance and power; (b) access to the print and digital tools of literacy; (c) diversity of representation and the use of diverse multimodal texts and tools; and (d) the ongoing redesign of instructional approaches based on reflective practice. These dimensions depend on one another for critical literacy to be effective. Even teacher's efforts if a teacher is careful to empower the voice of students, failure to address issues of diversity in texts or address access to multimodal forms of texts will render the efforts of the teacher less effective. Janks argued that approaches to critical literacy should be adaptive to the contextual needs of changing times and situations. In other words, critical literacy should not be viewed as a set of methods but also as a philosophical mindset that promotes a critique of injustices and a critique of power relationships (Janks, 2017).

Lewison's four dimensions of critical literacy in the language arts classroom can also inform unit design in Holocaust Education (Lewiston et al., 2002). In the first dimension, students disrupt a text by critiquing how a text is positioning them as readers. When reading a

textbook that presents historical information relating to the Holocaust, students can question what values and messages are privileged in choices made about what information to present and what information to leave out of the text. Likewise, when students read about human rights abuses, slavery, or genocides. Students can question how they are being positioned by the text in relation to traditional debates among historians and policymakers. In the second dimension, students consider whose voices are included in the text they are reading and whose voices are excluded to consider multiple points of view.

The third dimension involves examining the sociopolitical context. For example, students might critique the sociopolitical context of why their state may or may not have legislation that requires K-12 students to learn about the Holocaust. Students may also critique the sociopolitical context of media coverage related to the Holocaust. Turning attention to studies of present-day human rights abuses provides students with opportunities to critique the sociopolitical context in which these abuses take place. A study of slavery in the United States is, clearly, an area where students can critique the sociopolitical context behind choices made by leaders of South Carolina or by Abraham Lincoln. An overarching unit theme may center on sociopolitical contexts in which genocides occur. Finally, students can explore action steps in the context of Holocaust Education. Students might write letters to lawmakers advocating for Holocaust Education to be mandatory in their state (if they live in a state where it is not compulsory to teach about the Holocaust). Students also might argue in favor of actions to resist Neo-Confederate ideology, Neo-Nazism, and other forms of a white supremacist ideology.

Units on the Holocaust take careful planning, given the complex themes and need for sensitivity to trauma and tragedy (Raglund & Rosenstein, 2014). Teachers would be wise to carefully consider whether instructional material is appropriate and information sources used are

accurate and consider which topics to focus upon in-depth within a limited timeframe of the unit and the emotional impact on students (Lindquist, 2008). The exploration of ethics tends to be encouraged in the context of critical literacy (Janks, 2018). Integrating instruction on the holocaust with instruction on human rights promotes reflective inquiry on moral choices (Clyde, 2010) and discussions on what it means to be an upstander who speaks out and stands up against systemic racism (Spector & Jones, 2007). Studying lessons raised by the holocaust promotes a critique of power relationships in social interactions and society (Schweber, 2004). For example, Jennings (2010) conducted ethnographic observations as fifth-grade students explored complex themes and historical trends from the Holocaust in the context of bilingual instruction using vivid imagery and exploratory dialogue. Students can engage in units focused on studying fiction and non-fiction novels that combine studies of the Holocaust with studying slavery and genocides (Jones, 2011). Understanding key historical facts and details remain important while studying the holocaust. Children should do more than moralizing. They also need a deep dive into methods of historical analysis (Eckman, 2010).

Conclusion

This brief paper aims to spark reflection that can benefit English Language Arts and reading teachers while planning instruction. There is no uniform way that the Holocaust is taught in the United States, though commonly, classroom teachers may combine history details with a novel. Teachers should be careful as ever to adapt instructional planning according to the social, cultural context of students in a classroom and the personal background and interests of students. The guidance provided in this paper ultimately comes down to making instruction meaningful and personal. Children need opportunities to forge connections with victims and survivors of the Holocaust, and instruction in this area should not just be a matter of reciting historical facts.

Beyond this, I urge teachers to view Holocaust Education as an opportunity to help students see the difference between being an upstander and a bystander where there is injustice and to choose to be upstanders.

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