

Content, Disciplinary, and Critical Literacies in the C3 and Common Core

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The Common Core Standards (CCS) for English Language Arts and College, Career, and Civic Life Framework (C3) require social studies educators to reconsider connections between literacy and history teaching. In this article we examine three perspectives on literacy teaching: content area literacy, disciplinary literacy, and critical literacy. While some scholars see these perspectives as contradictory or in competition, we demonstrate how content, disciplinary, and critical literacy teaching can complement each other and facilitate teaching to and beyond the CCS standards and C3 framework in intermediate, middle school, and high school history instruction. Our article includes teaching examples as well as appendices of teacher resources.

Key Words: Content area reading, disciplinary literacy, critical literacy, social studies, Common Core State Standards; College, Career, and Civic Life Framework

Introduction

Authors of the College, Career, and Civic Life Framework (C3), John Lee and Kathy Swan (2013a), suggest that the Common Core English Language Arts Standards (CCS) “provide a unique challenge for social studies educators” (p. 327). Because the CCS and C3 prioritize literacy skills in the pursuit of social studies content, social studies educators should create the bridge between content and literacy skills instruction in new ways. In the CCS, literacies needed to understand social studies content are embedded in the Kindergarten-5 English Language Arts standards and explicitly detailed in the History or Social Studies specific standards for grades 6-12 (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2015b). The authors of the C3 state that the Common Core Anchor Standards are “a foundation for inquiry in social studies” (NCSS, 2013, p. 20). Figure 1 from the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) summarizes the connections between the C3 dimensions and CCS expectations.

Emphasis on the integration of literacy skills into social studies instruction is part of a continuing conversation; as early as the late 1800s and early 1900s, scholars were examining reading within the content areas (Mraz, Rickelman, & Vacca, 2009). In what is thought to be the first book on reading integration across content areas, William McCallister (1930) stated, “Guidance in reading should be recognized as a function of every instructor” (as cited in Mraz et al., p. 80). Terms such as content area literacy and disciplinary literacy are used to describe reading in social studies classrooms (Alvermann, Gillis, & Phelps, 2013; Brock, Goatley, Raphael, Trost-Shahata, & Weber, 2014; Conley, 2012; Lee & Swan, 2013a). However, confusion remains about what these terms mean and what other literacies should be considered.

Dimension 1	Anchor Standards	Dimension 2	Anchor Standards	Dimension 3	Anchor Standards	Dimension 4	Anchor Standards
Developing Questions and Planning Inquiries	R 1 W 7 SL 1	Civics	R 1-10 W 7 SL1 L 6	Gathering and Evaluating Sources	R 1-10 W 1, 2, 7-10 SL 1	Communicating and Critiquing Conclusions	R 1 W 1-8 SL 1-6
		Economics		Developing Claims and Using Evidence		Taking Action	
		Geography					
		History					

Figure 1. Connections between C3 Dimensions and CCS ELA Anchor Standards. (NCSS, 2013, p. 20)

In this article we define and provide examples of content area literacy, commonly referred to as content area reading, and disciplinary literacy. We also add critical literacy to the conversation about what it means to be literate in the history classroom. While some writers seem to privilege one of these literacies over another (e.g. Fang & Coatoan, 2013; Hynd-Shanahan, 2013), we envision more success for teachers when the literacies are seen as complementary and dynamic perspectives on the kinds of reading students need to understand social studies content (similar to Brozo, Moorman, Meyer, & Stewart, 2013). We understand literacy involves reading, writing, listening, speaking, viewing, and presenting, and social studies includes history, geography, economics, civics and other disciplines. For brevity and clarity, however, we emphasize reading and history in our examples.

Content area Reading

Content area reading defined

Content area reading focuses on strategies students can use to better understand the informational texts read in their content area classes (Mraz et al., 2009). Research suggests “Content area reading teachers view reading tasks as similar across the disciplines. Given that, students can develop a ‘toolbox’ of strategies that can be used no matter the field to help them with comprehension” (Hynd-Shanahan, 2013, p. 93). Content area reading strategies can be organized into what teachers and readers should do before, during, and after reading to better comprehend an informational text such as the history textbook, primary source document, or trade book (Bean, Valerio, & Stevens, 1999; Fisher, Brozo, & Frey, 2014; Stephens & Brown, 2000; Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz, 2014; Vacca, 2000).

Before reading, teachers often focus on “(1) motivating readers, (2) developing and activating prior knowledge, (3) introducing key vocabulary and concepts, and (4) developing metacognitive awareness of the task demands of the assignment and the strategies necessary for effective learning” (Vacca et al., 2014, p. 141). While students read a text, teachers can direct them to the most important information and use comprehension strategies, such as identifying the main ideas and using text structure, for guidance. After reading, teachers “extend thinking about

ideas encountered during reading” (Vacca et al., p. 144). They direct students toward ways experienced readers understand and use what they read to develop content area knowledge.

Content area literacies are embedded in the expectations of the CCS and C3. The authors of the C3 write, “Learning in social studies is heavily dependent on text and thus has been a key target of content area reading” (Lee & Swan, 2013a, p. xvii), and the new C3 framework demonstrates an emphasis on content area reading. Every dimension of the C3 is correlated with the Common Core Anchor Standards (as noted in Figure 1), anchor standards that are not discipline specific. The CCS ELA standards are separated into “reading: literature” and “reading: informational text” (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2015a) in recognition of the different skills needed to read in content areas.

Content area reading in action

History teachers can apply content area reading strategies with the Before-During-After (B-D-A) framework (Vacca et al., 2014) to reading texts such as the fifth grade text set in the Appendix about the Transcontinental Railroad. A text set is a collection of texts, drawn from a variety of literacy genres and media, connected by a common theme. The C3 and the CCS both ask students to review multiple texts on a topic: to analyze differing viewpoints and integrate knowledge gained from more than one source. Content area reading skills are needed to construct meaning across texts (Dole, Donaldson, & Donaldson, 2014). With this text set, the teacher’s goal is to help students understand the disparate perspectives of the writers and characters on the development of the Transcontinental Railroad.

Before reading, the teacher needs to ensure that students have appropriate background knowledge to understand the conflicting views on the railroad as well as any new and potentially challenging vocabulary. Teachers could use the history textbook’s description of the Transcontinental Railroad to provide general background knowledge. Key social studies vocabulary, such as *ancestors* and *telegraph*, should also be discussed before reading to aid students’ comprehension. Teachers can reinforce comprehension strategies of activating background knowledge and investigating vocabulary prior to reading new texts.

During reading, students should summarize information found in individual texts, and after reading students should synthesize what they have read. Synthesizing requires the reader to combine new and old information to come to a better understanding (Harvey & Goudvis, 2007). Structured note taking can facilitate these processes. While reading the picture books *Locomotive* (Floca, 2013) and *Coolies* (Yin & Soentpiet, 2001) and watching clips and examining related source documents from the “Transcontinental Railroad” (Zwonitzer & Chin, 2003), students can take notes on what they are learning through these different sources.

Two different possibilities for note taking that would lead to summarization and synthesis are shown in Figure 2. Questions into Paragraphs (International Reading Association/National Council of Teachers of English [IRA/NCTE], 2003) guides students into taking notes on specific questions (also see McLaughlin & Overturf, 2013, p. 181, for a variation). The Inquiry Chart (IRA/NCTE, 2011) builds from students’ knowledge and inquiries on a topic (also see Cummins, 2013, p. 159, for a variation). Teachers can help students use these strategies to frame the task of comparing evidence from multiple sources.

Question	Source	Answers
Record the question you would like to explore	Write the title of the book or the Internet site that you used to research the question.	Record notes that will help you answer the question.

Questions Into Paragraphs (IRA/NCTE, 2003)

	Question 1	Question 2	Other interesting facts	New Questions
Source 1				
Source 2				
Summary				

Figure 2. Sample content area graphic organizers

Inquiry Chart (ReadWriteThink, 2011, abbreviated)

Teaching students to use informational text graphic organizers and other comprehension strategies before, during, and after reading is useful for all students and especially helpful for students struggling with reading (National Reading Panel, 2000). These strategies ensure students have the scaffolding needed to understand challenging texts. A goal of content area reading is that “students know how to learn with texts independently” (Vacca et al., 2014, p. 135), and integrating reading comprehension strategy work with social studies instruction will help teachers reach this goal.

Disciplinary Literacy

Disciplinary literacy defined

While the content area reading perspective suggests that the reading process is the same across all content areas, disciplinary literacy focuses on the aspects of reading and writing that are specific to each discipline. Comparing history and science, Cynthia Hynd-Shanahan (2013) writes:

A reader might make a timeline to understand the relationship among events in history if the text being read afforded it, but would not make a timeline to learn an explanation of a scientific principle. Students might benefit from understanding that sentences about historical events construe the time, place, and manner in which things occur, and they construe the actors, their motivations, and their goals. Science reading involves, to a greater extent than other subject areas, the necessity of translating explanations to models, diagrams, or formulas and vice versa. (p. 94)

Here, Hynd-Shanahan demonstrates that reading demands differ across subject areas. The disciplinary literacy perspective asks: how can we prepare students to read and write in civics, economics, geography, and history knowing that “[r]eading, writing, and other forms of expression have unique qualities in each of the core areas of social studies” (Lee & Swan, 2013a, p. 327)?

A well-known approach to disciplinary literacy in history is the Reading Like a Historian Curriculum (Stanford History Education Group, 2016). Available for free online, Reading Like a Historian (RLH) focuses on inquiry around a set of primary source documents. For example, in RLH lesson 1, students address the question “Did Pocahontas save John Smith’s life?” (p. 1)

by examining contradictory accounts from John Smith and historians on his experiences with Powhatan (Reisman & Fogo, 2009). This RLH lesson and others lead students to “investigate historical questions by employing reading strategies such as sourcing, contextualizing, corroborating, and close reading” (Stanford History Education Group, 2016, para. 1). The lessons in the RLH curriculum are formatted to include:

- (1) Background knowledge;
- (2) Central historical question;
- (3) Historical documents; and
- (4) Discussion. (Reisman, 2012, p. 89)

In a manner similar to the Before-During-After approach to content area reading, the curriculum is structured to provide students information before, during, and after reading and exploring historical texts. However, this approach focuses specifically on history and the disciplinary-specific literacies such as sourcing required to read like a historian.

In response to both the CCS and the C3 Framework, authors Chauncey Monte-Sano, Susan De La Paz, and Mark Felton (2014) put forth a model for “teaching disciplinary literacy through a cognitive apprenticeship” (p. 15). This guides students through the processes involved in their learning and organizes the learning environment itself. The cognitive apprenticeship model helps students read and write like historians, i.e. looking beyond literal meaning and constructing strong arguments based on analysis of historical documents and information. The stages of the model are as follows: “1) Prepare students to learn; 2) Model how to read and write like a historian; 3) Support students’ practice; 4) Provide additional, more challenging forms of practice; and 5) Promote independence” (Monte-Sano, De La Paz, & Felton, 2014, p. 18). The authors argue that teachers need time to learn and adjust to this approach, as it may not directly match their current practices.

CCS grades 6-12 standards for the disciplines clearly reflect the disciplinary literacy perspective. In considering the shifts of the CCS, the authors write, “the standards for literacy in history/social studies, science, and technical subjects ensure that students can independently build knowledge in these disciplines through reading and writing” (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2015c, para 11). In related ways, C3 authors consider disciplinary literacies specific to social studies including: “using deliberative processes,” “classifying historical sources,” “determining the purpose of an historical source,” and “analyzing cause and effect in history” (Lee & Swan, 2013b, p. xxvi), and the descriptions of the disciplinary literacies are more developed within Dimension 2. Both the CCS and the C3 recognize the need to teach students to be literate in the social studies in a disciplinary-specific manner.

Disciplinary literacy in action

When examining texts from a content reading perspective in the previous section, we discussed summarization and synthesis of sources. From a content area reading perspective, these are generic comprehension strategies to be applied when reading informational texts. When examining sources from a disciplinary literacy perspective, a historian would further consider the characteristics of primary and secondary sources as unique sources of historical evidence. The authors of the RLH curriculum consider “sourcing [as] the touchstone that distinguishes expert from novice practice” (Wineburg & Reisman, 2015, p. 636) in history, and the Primary Source Analysis Tool we discuss next will support students in developing this set of skills.

Our middle school text set on immigration includes both primary and secondary sources and fiction in order to broaden students' understanding of immigration and historical sources (see Appendix). The Library of Congress (LOC) (Library of Congress, n.d.-b) provides detailed suggestions for teachers and students in reading and understanding primary sources. In the LOC's Primary Source Analysis Tool, students are asked to "observe, reflect, and question" (Library of Congress, n.d.-a) primary sources in specific ways. Figure 3 is a screen shot of the tool, which is available as an online tool or PDF that can be printed.

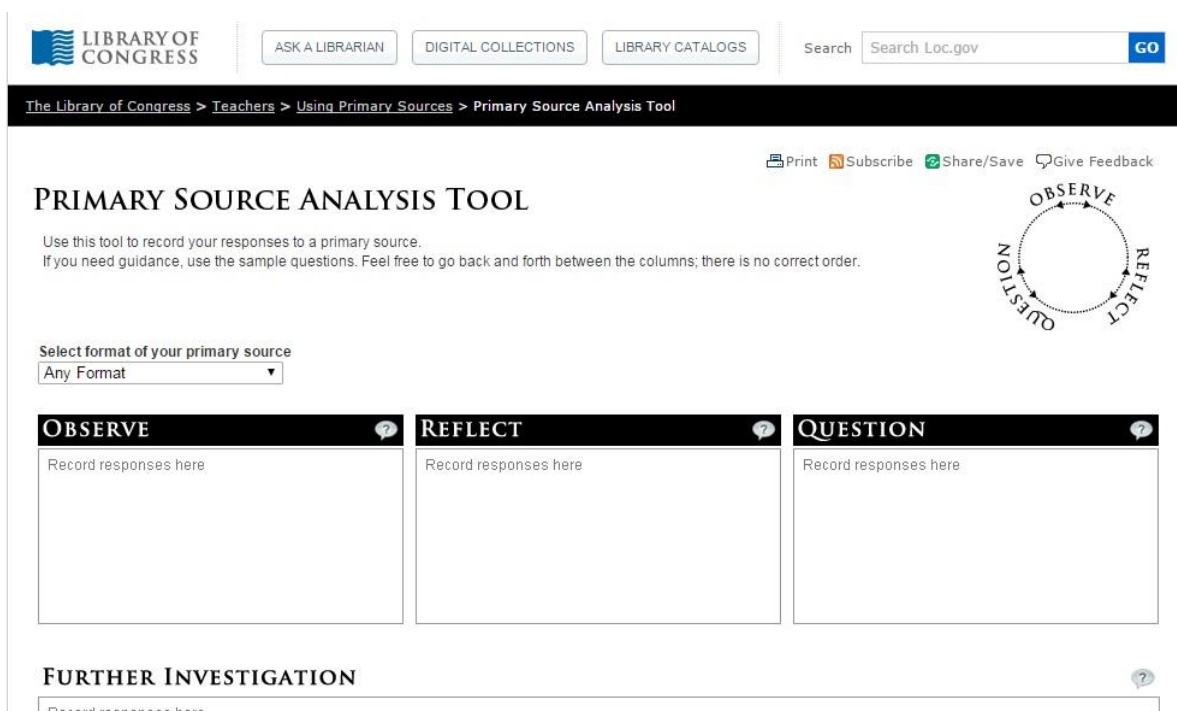


Figure 3. Primary Source Analysis Tool
(Library of Congress, n.d.-a)

After reading one of the oral histories from Ellis Island, for example, a student would be prompted to reflect on questions such as "What was the purpose of this oral history?" and "What can you tell about the person telling the story, and about that person's point of view?" (Library of Congress, n.d.-a). Students should learn to investigate and create evidence based interpretations (Los Angeles County Office of Education [LACOE]/Communications, 2015) while reading historical documents to make historically-accurate conclusions about what they have read.

By teaching content area reading strategies such as summarization, teachers ensure students comprehend the texts they read. Providing students the scaffolding questions from the LOC tool encourages students to comprehend the sources from the disciplinary perspective of a historian as well. Disciplinary literacy strategies should be taught within the context of social studies instruction to ensure that the skills are authentic and purposefully used.

Critical Literacy

Critical literacy defined

Both content area reading and disciplinary literacy practices are required for reading in history. Rather than viewing the two in opposition, we promote a more inclusive approach suggesting teachers use their expertise to determine which skills and practices are most

appropriate for a given text or literacy opportunity. Critical literacy is another perspective that can be applied to social studies instruction and is well-aligned to the CCS and C3. Critical literacy can be linked not only to broader notions of critical thinking as they are applied across all content areas, but also to central questioning specific to history education (LACOE/Communications, 2015; Monte-Sano, De La Paz, & Felton, 2014). It is important to note that critical literacy itself is a distinct approach to examining, questioning, and comprehending text:

Critical literacy practices encourage students to use language to question the everyday world, to interrogate the relationship between language and power, to analyze popular culture and media, to understand how power relationships are socially constructed, and to consider actions that can be taken to promote social justice. (Lewison, Leland, & Harste, 2015, p. 3).

In essence, the critical literacy perspective asks readers to consider relationships between knowledge, authority, and power as created and communicated through text. By extension, critical literacy builds upon, but then moves beyond, the levels of literal and inferential comprehension significant in content area reading. From this point, critical literacy examination can begin. Students may ask: *Why did the author write the text?* Though this may sound similar to the exploration of author's purpose, a critical literacy lens begins with this question and expands it to others such as: *Is everyone included in what we are reading?*, *What do I know about the author or authors?* or *What do I know about the time and place in which the author(s) wrote this piece?* Considering and constructing in-depth responses to these questions requires readers to activate their critical or evaluative level of comprehension (Fisher, Frey, Anderson, & Thayre, 2014; Reutzler & Cooter, 2013).

Critical literacy's simplest and most profound definition comes from the work of Paulo Freire and Donald Macedo. Freire and Macedo (1987) purported that acts of literacy involve "reading the word and the world" (p. viii). In other words, readers must reflect on and understand the power structures of both individual and institutional levels and how they are created and maintained through text, particularly if there is a desire to transform these structures for a more democratic and just society.

Countless studies show how critical literacy can and should be included for all content areas and grade levels because it promotes a more just society (Christensen, 2009; Cowhey, 2006; Lewison, Leland, & Harste, 2015; McLaughlin & DeVogd, 2004; Morrell, 2008; Mulcahy, 2010). Many studies in the past few years also specifically outline how this can be done to meet the CCS in ELA (Agarwal-Rangnath, 2013; Kuby, 2013; Lewison et al., 2015; Williams, Homan, & Swofford, 2011). From C3 scholars, the 7th grade "*Uncle Tom's Cabin Inquiry*" entitled "Can words lead to war?" demonstrates how teachers can integrate CCS, C3 and critical literacy skills (C3 Teachers, 2014). In this inquiry, readers are guided through a close reading of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* and other texts to "grapple with the power of words" (p. 6), a core tenet of critical literacy. In other examples written before the C3, scholars have suggested social studies educators employ critical literacy practices through examining historical images (Long, 2008) and historical narratives (Salinas & Blevins, 2014). This evidence from classrooms is particularly important since educators in all areas may assume that the demands of the standards or challenges in implementing critical literacy may limit the possibilities for critical literacy practices in the classroom (Lewison, Flint, & Van Sluys, 2002; May, Stenhouse, &

Holbrook, 2014). However, these studies demonstrate the potential for connections between the CCS, C3, and critical literacy.

Critical literacy in action

Many critical literacy scholars have paired existing models or theoretical frameworks with specific examples of their practical classroom application (Avila & Moore, 2012; Janks, 2010; Lankshear, Peters, & Knobel, 1997; Luke & Freebody, 1997; Morrell, 2008; Shannon, 1995). An Instructional Model of Critical Literacy by Mitzi Lewison, Christine Leland, and Jerome Harste (2015) outlines critical social practices permeating the creation and implementation of critical literacy curricula:

- 1) Disrupting the commonplace;
- 2) Interrogating multiple viewpoints;
- 3) Focusing on sociopolitical issues
- 4) Taking action and promoting social justice. (p. 7)

Though not intended to be an all-encompassing model of critical literacy, it provides an accessible framework for critical literacy scholars and practitioners alike, including robust explanations of each aforementioned dimension. “Disrupting the Commonplace” includes, but is not limited to, examining how language is used to reinforce or disrupt dominant notions, while “Interrogating Multiple Viewpoints” refers to determining the presence or absence of diverse points of view and perspectives within a text. “Focusing on the Sociopolitical” asks the reader to consider both the context in which a text was created and in which it was read or received. Finally, “Taking Action to Promote Social Justice” highlights literacy as a democratic practice and encourages readers and writers of any age to engage in civic participation. These dimensions, though applicable to all content areas, complement the goals and objectives of instruction in history and the social studies overall.

An examination of the language of the C3 framework clarifies these connections between critical literacy curricula and social studies. For example, C3 authors note:

Now more than ever, students need the intellectual power to recognize societal problems; ask good questions and develop robust investigations into them; consider possible solutions and consequences; separate evidence-based claims from parochial opinions; and communicate and act upon what they learn. (NCSS, 2013, p. 6)

The authors frame their statement in terms of societal problems and solutions, while Lewison, Leland, and Harste (2015) focus on the role of text and its significance within society. Both suggest a progression that, though not necessarily linear, moves from identification and investigation to evaluation and action. Furthermore, content area reading and disciplinary literacy both stem from the principle that text is integral to learning in a content area and building knowledge of and within a specific discipline. In conjunction with content area and disciplinary literacy practices, critical literacy practices, and their emphasis on investigating language, perspective, and intention, as well as taking action, can help students to meet the goals of the C3 Framework.

In addition to underlying principles, the specific skills and strategies required to successfully engage in critical literacy practices are also familiar to content area reading and disciplinary literacy. Questioning, for example, is associated with both approaches and is crucial to engaging in critical literacy (Wilson, 2014). In reading *The Underground Railroad From Slavery to Freedom: A Comprehensive History* (Siebert, 1898/2006), which is noted in our text set for high school in the Appendix, students would rely on questioning for their work in the first

three of the four dimensions. Students conducting a critical language study, as part of “Disrupting the Commonplace,” would question the author’s definition of freedom as used in the title, particularly given the text’s original publication in 1898. Consideration of the social and political context of this time period, or “Focusing on the Sociopolitical,” would reveal the power structures in place that denied social access and political rights to both former slaves and other Americans of African descent. Within this dimension, readers would question the identity of the author, Wilbur Siebert, and the intended purpose for his text. For example, students would determine if the text was a representation of the author, a white scholar and historian, exercising his power, privilege, and influence to set forth a narrative on slavery that serves the interests of his fellow elite, or a representation of the author exercising this power and influence to create a narrative including marginalized voices and stories in an effort to shift perspectives. As mentioned above, disciplinary literacy in social studies calls for readers to “determine the purpose of a historical source” (Lee & Swan, 2013b) among other practices. This example illustrates the existence of some tight connections and points of contact between a critical literacy lens and the lens of a historian, as is the goal of disciplinary literacy.

Critical language study of Siebert’s (1898/2006) title *The Underground Railroad From Slavery to Freedom: A Comprehensive History* would also likely question the use of *comprehensive* which implies the full inclusion of multiple sources and perspectives. Determining whether the volume could be considered comprehensive involves questioning within the “Interrogating Multiple Viewpoints” dimension. This dimension of critical literacy examines the messages, perspectives, and voices present within a text as well as those that are not. Guiding questions could include: *Which positions, voices and interests are at play in the text?*; *How does the text depict age, gender and/or cultural groups?*; *Whose views are excluded or privileged in the text?*; *Who is allowed to speak?*; and *Who is quoted?* For example, King (2014) problematizes the perception and depiction of colonial and revolutionary era Black Americans as docile slaves by highlighting the life and work of Benjamin Banneker, a Black intellectual who challenged Thomas Jefferson’s prejudiced notions. *Chains* (Anderson 2010), written for an adolescent audience, also explores the lives and the agency of slaves in the Revolutionary War through the eyes of the main character, Isabel, a young girl separated from her family through a slave trade (see Appendix).

Again this example falls in line with the C3 Framework and its promotion of “robust investigations” (NCSS, 2013, p. 6), as well as goals focused on expanding historical narratives to include traditionally marginalized, silenced, or unexplored voices and perspectives. Historians like Howard Zinn (1980), Riane Eisler (1988), Ronald Takaki (1993), and James Loewen (1995) modeled these goals through their work in highlighting untold stories that are often deliberately left out of the conventional U.S. or world history textbooks, as well as children’s and young adult literature. Though we celebrate the ways in which these supplemental works often provide a much-needed departure from many textbooks’ sanitized portrayals of historical events and figures, it is important to apply the same critical literacy lens to them. John Bickford III and Cynthia Rich (2014) critically examine several examples of children’s literature focused on slavery in the U.S., uncovering the historical misrepresentations within their pages and offering solutions in the form of primary source documents. Some texts for children and adolescents derive from or even include primary source historical documents and biographical accounts such as *Day of Tears* (Lester, 2005) and *Escape from Slavery: The Boyhood of Frederick Douglass in His Own Words* (Douglass, 1994), which are included in the Appendix.

Reflection and analysis required for “reading the word and the world” (Freire & Macedo, 1987) – namely examining power relations through language, perspective, and context – is essential to fully engage in critical literacy. This falls within Freire’s (1970) broader notion of praxis, which does not simply include reflection but notes reflection should lead to action followed by transformation. As noted earlier, Lewison, Leland, and Harste (2015) include taking action and promoting social justice as the final critical social practice. Though a great deal is shared across content area reading, disciplinary literacy, and critical literacy, including thoughtful reflection and analysis, perhaps the most distinct feature of critical literacy is the action component. Critical literacy scholars remind us that taking action need not be a large-scale endeavor (Lewison et al., 2002), but needs to be present to validate the reflections, investigations, and examinations that precede it and should not be considered optional. It further positions students and teachers as change agents rather than passive participants. In its guidelines for using the C3, the NCSS (2013) explicitly identifies informed action as an element of civic life, as well as the ways in which students are prepared for this specifically through social studies instruction. The guidelines state:

In social studies, students use disciplinary knowledge, skills, and perspectives to inquire about problems involved in public issues; deliberate with other people about how to define and address issues; take constructive, independent, and collaborative action; reflect on their actions; and create and sustain groups. (NCSS, 2013, p. 62)

Students applying a critical literacy lens to the text set on slavery in the Appendix would, for example, likely find inspiration for social action plans from *Slavery Today* (Bales & Cornell, 2008) and *The New Jim Crow: Mass Incarceration in the Age of Colorblindness* (Alexander, 2012). These texts dispel the myth that slavery no longer exists by positioning global and societal problems such as human trafficking, debt bondage, and mass incarceration as modern forms of slavery. Gaining new perspectives and levels of awareness on these issues, students could contact local, state, or national organizations committed to combatting these forces, or they may be inspired to examine the denial of rights or full participation in their own communities and spaces, including school. Through projects like these aligned to the principles of the C3 and critical literacy, students are learning the concept of agency as well as how to enact it.

Applying Literacy Perspectives to the Teaching of History

As literacy scholars, we relish analyzing literacy definitions and debating the merits of each. As teachers, we know that definitions are important, but more important is how we can use the concepts behind the definitions in our teaching (Brozo et al., 2013). Reading the resources cited, studying beyond them to understand literacies in different contexts, and discussing with colleagues across departments will help educators continue to explore the overlapping literacies vital to being literate in the social studies.

In the age of the CCS in ELA and the C3 framework, it is increasingly evident that one perspective on literacy is not enough. Students need content reading skills to understand the complex informational texts essential to the CCS and C3, and students require disciplinary literacy skills to learn to read and write like historians, geographers, economists, and civic leaders. In addition, we have argued that critical literacy and its tenets underlie the ultimate goals of the C3 and the CCS. Reflecting on and understanding the power structures in which we participate at both individual and institutional levels and how they are created and maintained through text is a necessary practice for college, career, and civic participation. Critical literacy practices, along with content area reading and disciplinary literacy, give young people the tools

to study, as well as to shape, the world around them. By rejecting the notion of passive reading, we reject the notion of passive participation in life.

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Appendix

Text Sets for History Instruction

Intermediate Grade Text Set – The Transcontinental Railroad

Floca, B. (2013). *Locomotive*. New York, NY: Atheneum.

- A picture book describing the sights and sounds of a cross-country journey on a locomotive in 1869. The story depicts the traditional narrative of westward expansion, with informational details on the Transcontinental Railroad in the end papers. Winner of the 2014 Caldecott Medal; Sibert Honor Book.

Yin, & Soentpiet, C. (2001). *Coolies*. New York, NY: Philomel.

- A lengthy picture book story of two Chinese brothers, immigrants hired by the Central Pacific Railroad Company to help complete the Transcontinental Railroad. The focus is on the brothers' harsh, unfair working conditions as well as their close relationship and

determination. Inspired by historical events.

Zwonitzer, M., & Chin, M. (2003). *Transcontinental railroad*. USA: PBS. Retrieved from <http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/americanexperience/features/introduction/tcrr-intro/> [Linked in web-based references.]

- Website for the PBS American Experience film *Transcontinental Railroad* with extensive accompanying materials including a teacher's guide. Provides an inclusive historical account, featuring photos and articles about the railroad owners and workers, the settlers moving West, and the Native Americans whose lives were affected by the railroad.

Middle School Text Set--Immigration

Blohm, J. M., & Lapinsky, T. (2006). *Kids like me: Voices of the immigrant experience*. Boston, MA: Intercultural Press.

- Blohm and Lapinsky share 26 personal narratives of young people from around the world who have immigrated to America. With discussion questions, suggestions for research, and extension activities following each first-person account, the authors encourage readers to better appreciate cultural differences and the immigrant experience.

Flores-Galbis, E. (2010). *90 miles to Havana*. New York, NY: Roaring Brook Press.

- A young boy describes the revolution that forced his parent's decision to send him away from Cuba in 1961 and the difficulties he faces in a camp for orphans after arriving in America. A work of historical fiction inspired by the author's own experience coming to the US during Operation Pedro Pan at age 9 with his brothers. 2011 Pura Belpré Honor Book.

State Library & Archives of Florida. (n.d.). The Cuban experience in Florida: Revolution and exodus. *Florida Memory*. Retrieved from <https://www.floridamemory.com/onlineclassroom/cuban-revolution/> [Linked in web-based resources.]

- An online educational unit provided by the State of Florida that includes photos and historical data, a timeline, and lesson plans. The lesson plans include additional primary sources: examples of the Resettlement Recap, a 1960's publication of the Cuban Refugee Assistance Program (CRA), and letters written by refugees who worked for the CRA.

High School Text Set – Slavery

Alexander, M. (2012). *The new Jim Crow: Mass incarceration in the age of colorblindness*. New York, NY: The New Press.

- A text for mature readers that could be used in part with adolescents. Critical perspective on race, class, and incarceration written by a legal scholar. Information about the book including resources is available here: <http://newjimcrow.com/about>

Anderson, L.H. (2010). *Chains*. New York, NY: Atheneum Books.

- Historical fiction trilogy which begins with *Chains* at the start of the Revolutionary War. Well-researched story of enslaved, thirteen-year-old Isabel as she spies on her British-supporting owners in order to gain her freedom. CBC/NCSS Notable Social Studies Trade Book, National Book Award finalist, and numerous other awards.

Bales, K., & Cornell, B. (2008). *Slavery today*. Berkeley, CA: Groundwork Books.

- Modern perspective on slavery with first-person accounts and information text regarding people in current times living in bondage. Part of the "Groundwork Guides" series which give "an overview of key contemporary political and social issues".

C3 Teachers. (2014). *Can words lead to war?* Retrieved from <http://www.c3teachers.org/wp->

content/uploads/2015/06/NewYork_7_UncleTomsCabin.pdf [Linked in web-based resources.]

- A complete example inquiry from the New York State Social Studies Toolkit for *Uncle Tom's Cabin* by Harriet Beecher Stowe. Students read primary and secondary sources to answer supporting questions about how Stowe describes slavery, what led her to write the work, how it was received both in the North and the South, and how the text affected abolitionism.

Douglass, F. (1994). *Escape from slavery: The boyhood of Frederick Douglass in his own words*. (M. McCurdy, Ed.). New York, NY: Random House.

- McCurdy provides an edited and condensed version of Douglass's first three autobiographies. He has shortened the original to "emphasize action and events for a younger audience" (p. xi) but kept Douglass's own words.

Lester, J. (2005). *Day of tears*. New York, NY: Hyperion.

- The largest auction of slaves in American history took place on March 2nd and 3rd, 1859, with 400 slaves being sold. In this novel, Lester uses a dialog format to tell the story from various points of view. Readers will hear from slaves being sold, family members of the plantation owner selling the slaves, the auctioneer, additional slaveowners, runaway slaves, and abolitionists. 2006 Coretta Scott King Author Award.

Siebert, W. H. (2006). *The underground railroad from slavery to freedom: A comprehensive history*. Mineola, NY: Dover Publications.

- A reprint of a text originally published in 1898. Siebert was an Ohio State University professor who collected remembrances of people involved in the Underground Railroad in order to write this text. [Archived versions can be found at <https://archive.org/details/undergroundrailr00sieb>.]

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