EXAMINING HOLOCAUST EDUCATION MUSEUM-INITIATED PROFESSIONAL

DEVELOPMENT: THE PERSPECTIVE OF MUSEUM EDUCATORS DURING PLANNING

AND IMPLEMENTATION

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ABSTRACT

Museums today frequently consider education as one of their priorities. As such, museum

administrators will provide resources, field trips, or professional development opportunities to

support teachers and schools. In an era of high-stakes testing, museums, like schools, are also

influenced by standards that may dictate what information is taught and when. Therefore, to

remain relevant and useful to school systems, museums have altered their educational practices

to align with standards. Some museums choose to provide professional development workshops

for educators that focus on a topic included within those standards. The Holocaust, a topic that is

mandated by over 30 states, is an example of one such topic—albeit one that might also be

difficult or controversial to teach. A regional Holocaust Museum that has chosen to provide a

weeklong professional development opportunity for educators on teaching the Holocaust serves

as an example of a museum providing support to local school divisions. However, the literature

indicates that museums and teachers, while both working toward the goal of educating students,

often have little communication with each other. While multiple studies have examined how

teacher participants react to professional development workshops, far less attention has been paid

to those that plan such opportunities. The multi-tiered issue of interest, then, is that little is

known about how museum educators plan a Holocaust-related professional development

opportunity, what role they play in workshop implementation, and what they consider to be

crucial when preparing teachers to cover the topic

This qualitative inquiry focused on understanding how museum educators planned and presented a weeklong Holocaust education workshop for teachers. The research question was developed to determine how museum staff members understand the Holocaust and Holocaust education, and how that understanding influenced their role when implementing the workshop. Data collection methods included observation and semi-structured interviews. Analysis methods utilized in this study included first and second cycle coding methods, as well as episode profiles for each participant.

The key finding from this investigation suggests that museum educators' understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust education greatly shaped their planning processes, as well as the role they fulfilled in workshop implementation. Though museum staff members agreed that the Holocaust is difficult knowledge, they each approached the topic and how it should be taught in a different manner. The implications of this study, its limitations, and suggestions for future research are detailed herein.

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CHAPTER 1.

INTRODUCTION

Educators are expected to remain current with the latest trends in education, although it can be difficult to follow state mandates and evolving ideas about best practices among the plethora of other responsibilities teachers face such as planning, grading, and various meetings. To that end, professional development opportunities are frequently used to introduce teachers to changing practices or new mandates, often with the goal of improving instruction (Guskey, 2000; Melber & Cox-Petersen, 2005). Such opportunities may also introduce new strategies and content, or train teachers to deal with unfamiliar or difficult topics (Betten, Allen, & Waddell, 2000; Grenier, 2010; Howe & Stubbs, 1996). In a vocation that sees fluctuating trends but also professionals with limited free time, it is critically important for professional development to be effective. I use the term "effective" to mean that what is presented during professional development opportunities is useful, meaningful, and relevant for teachers, and likely to be incorporated into the classroom.

In addition to teachers and schools, there are multiple and varied institutions that also claim education as a priority. For example, museums—and especially science and history museums—embrace education as a priority (American Association of Museums, 1992; Boyd, 1993; Hudson, 1975; International Council of Museums, 2007). Museums have undergone a long transformation from privately-owned collections to public institutions that strive to educate diverse audiences (American Association of Museums, 1992; Hudson, 1975; Wittlin, 1949). Like teachers and schools, museums have also felt the impact of educational reforms such as No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and have been forced to alter their programs in order to remain relevant and meet changing standards and evolving teaching methods (Davis, 2005; Tran, 2007).

Though schools and museums share the goal of education, they don't necessarily work collaboratively. Some of the disconnect stems from teachers being unfamiliar and uncomfortable with informal learning strategies that are useful in a museum, uncertain of their role in working with museums, and uninformed of the support museums can offer. The divide is exacerbated by a lack of communication between teachers and museum educators, who are often the ones responsible for planning programs and exhibits, managing field trips, and creating resources. Both parties need to take steps to improve their collaboration (Marcus, 2008). Many museum educators are working to ensure that their programs and resources align with state standards so that they are useful to classroom teachers (Davis, 2005; Tran, 2007). As Ramey-Gassert, Walberg III, and Walberg (1994) stated, "Informal learning environments such as zoos, natural history and cultural museums, and science centers have the potential to captivate and arouse interest, motivate learning, and allow students to build connected knowledge through meaningful experiences" (p. 360). If both museum educators and teachers considered each other's perspective and communicated their perceptions on content, pedagogy, teacher and museum educator roles, and resources, perhaps they could collaborate to create those meaningful experiences for students.

In response to the need for museums to focus more explicitly on education, the position of the museum educator was created. This role has been referred to as the "uncertain profession" due to the lack of consistency across the field regarding qualifications (Dobbs & Eisner, 1987). One of the difficulties in determining exact qualifications for this role may relate to the multiple responsibilities fulfilled by museum educators, which draw on a wide variety of skills and knowledge. Though a background in teaching and learning has not always been viewed as necessary for museum educators (Ebitz, 2005), Bailey (2006) found that many museum

educators consider this knowledge essential to their work. Unlike teachers in formal schools, museum educators often learn this pedagogical knowledge on the job, unless their background is in formal schooling.

One of the many responsibilities often assigned to museum educators is that of preparing and presenting professional development opportunities to teachers. In general, early models of professional development were predominately staff development or training models meant to introduce classroom practices (Grenier, 2010; Guskey, 1995). In the field of science, for example, such efforts were usually designed to introduce teachers to pre-packaged curricula over which they had no control (Howe & Stubbs, 1996). These traditional models have come under attack by multiple scholars (Borko & Putnam, 1995; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Sparks & Hirsch, 1997). In response, the 1990s saw a push to change the traditional models of professional development to models that were more interactive, practical, and useful for teachers and would be beneficial in an era of educational reform.

Newer models of professional development have several characteristics in common, including direct and prolonged engagement (De La Paz, Malkus, Monte-Sano, & Montanaro, 2011; Dixon, Yssel, McConnell, & Hardin, 2014; Penuel, Fishman, Yamaguchi, & Gallagher, 2007; Porter, Garet, Desimone, & Birman, 2003) and a need to fit the teacher's local context (Loucks-Horsley, Hewson, Love, & Stiles, 1998; Penuel et al., 2007; Thompson & Zeuli, 1999). Active participation in professional development workshops allows teachers to practice and experiment with new strategies and discover ways in which those new tools might be compatible with their current pedagogical approaches. Collaboration has been shown repeatedly to be an important component to effective professional development (Borko, 2004; Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Park, Oliver, Johnson, Graham, & Oppong, 2007; van Hover, 2008)—not only

providing support for teachers, but also affording opportunities to exchange ideas and learn from each other.

Many contemporary models of professional development mention the importance of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Shulman (1986) defined PCK as that which "goes beyond knowledge of subject matter per se to the dimension of subject matter knowledge for teaching" (p. 9). PCK involves an understanding of the most effective ways to represent material, as well as the aspects that make a specific topic easy or difficult to understand for students (Shulman, 1986).

One particular model of professional development that combines multiple characteristics of effective professional development, often including PCK, is museum-initiated professional development (MIPD). MIPD is defined as "programming designed and provided by museums to support the professional development and workplace learning needs of individuals" (Grenier, 2010, p. 502). Grenier (2010) found that teachers participating in MIPD sought to address gaps in not only their professional knowledge, but also in their pedagogical practices, suggesting that MIPD is well suited to help teachers achieve PCK. Participants were not only willing to attend the summer MIPD opportunities, but excited about their learning experiences and motivated to incorporate them into the classroom, which is a finding supported by Marcus, Levine, and Grenier (2012).

Additional research has also concluded that MIPD is often successful and popular with teachers (Aivazian, 1998; Hodgson, 1986; Kuster, 2008; Melber & Cox-Petersen, 2005). MIPD attendees have reported positive experiences (Melber & Cox-Petersen, 2005), increased confidence in content knowledge and teaching ability (Pickering, Ague, Rath, Heiser, & Sirch, 2012), and improved communication between teachers and museum staff (Yu & Yang, 2010).

These studies suggest that MIPD could help alleviate some of the concerns found in the museum-school relationship, and help teachers develop PCK for their particular content area, potentially increasing their confidence in using that expanded knowledge in the classroom.

Professional development opportunities also have been shown to help prepare teachers for teaching more difficult content, such as the Holocaust or, more broadly, the subject of genocide. Despite prior student knowledge, the subject's widespread treatment in the media, and a plethora of available resources, professional development opportunities that strengthen teachers' content knowledge about the Holocaust, as well as aids them in determining appropriate methods for teaching this graphic and often difficult subject matter, are important.

Betten et al. (2000) and Wolpow, Johnson, and Wognild (2002) have focused on Holocaust education workshops for teachers. Though neither workshop was a MIPD opportunity, both workshops did meet several criteria for effective professional development including partnerships with universities, a focus on content and pedagogy, time for collaboration, as well as an extended period of time spent in structured professional development. In both instances, feedback regarding the workshops spoke positively about the content, speakers, resources, and activities. Betten et al. (2000) reported that many participants remained in contact with each other and institute directors, creating and maintaining the communities of practice that others have described as a valuable resource (e.g., Borko, 2004; Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001; Howe & Stubbs, 1996; Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Little, 1993). Additionally, Wolpow et al. (2002) documented increased self-efficacy among teachers regarding content knowledge and skills for integrating the Holocaust into their curriculum—particularly for those teachers who attended 36 hours or more of workshops sessions. This

finding lends support to the idea that prolonged professional development is more effective than shorter workshops.

Keeping in mind the positive feedback discussed by Betten et al. (2000) and Wolpow et al. (2002) in their Holocaust education workshops—coupled with the fact that many MIPD opportunities have been favorably received by participants—this study was designed to determine whether partnering with museums would prove to be useful in conducting similar workshops on the Holocaust or genocide, as well as what such a workshop might look like. Importantly, professional development opportunities that incorporate museum resources may have the added benefit of not only preparing teachers for more effective field trips, but also introducing teachers to informal learning strategies that may be implemented in the classroom, particularly when incorporating varied resources such as art, literature, or photographs.

Research Question

The review of the literature indicates that teachers are often willing to attend museum-initiated professional development opportunities (Marcus et al., 2012). Furthermore, Grenier (2010) found such workshops to be beneficial, especially when they include materials and content that are transferable to the classroom. However, the literature also indicates that the perspective of the museum educator in planning for and working with schools is often overlooked (Marcus et al., 2012).

Therefore, the following question guided my study and helped focus on the perspective of museum educators as they planned and implemented a Holocaust education workshop for teachers:

1. How does museum staff members' understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust education shape their role in implementing a MIPD workshop for teachers?

The question was designed to elucidate how and why museum staff at a regional Holocaust museum prepared a MIPD and what role each staff member fulfilled during the ensuing workshop. In order to fully answer the research question, consideration and analysis of multiple factors was necessary from the perspective of the museum staff involved in the workshop. Factors influencing museum staff included their understanding of Holocaust history, appropriate pedagogies for teaching the Holocaust, and their own beliefs as to whether content or pedagogy was most important for preparing educators to teach the Holocaust.

To summarize, the purpose of this study was to examine how museum education staff at a regional Holocaust museum planned and presented a workshop on teaching the Holocaust for educators. Specifically, I examined how the museum education staff at this institution designed a weeklong summer workshop on teaching the Holocaust, how museum staff understood the Holocaust and Holocaust education, as well as what role each museum staff member played in the implementation of the workshop.

Statement of the Problem

MIPD could be a powerful opportunity for preparing educators to teach the Holocaust, a difficult content area, in pedagogically sound and richer ways, and potentially create stronger ties between museums and schools. Museums such as the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum (USHMM) currently conduct teacher education institutes, although as mentioned by Marcus et al. (2012), further research is needed to determine the perspectives of museum staff who may be responsible for planning and conducting such workshops, teacher beliefs and practice, as well as any long-term impacts of the workshops on teacher practice. Though a disconnect between museum education staff and teachers has been documented (particularly with respect to field trips), and museums are currently adjusting to education reforms such as NCLB

to maintain their relevance in education, MIPD has been frequently viewed favorably by participants and museum educators (Melber, 2007; Pickering et al., 2012; Waite & Leavell, 2006; Yu & Yang, 2010). Thus, the potential for MIPD to alleviate that disconnect, in addition to preparing teachers to cover difficult content that is mandated by the state, often without support, is worth further exploration.

To that end, I studied a weeklong summer institute offered by a regional Holocaust museum to examine the perspective of the museum educators responsible for planning and presenting the workshop. Few studies have focused on how museum educators plan for and conduct professional development opportunities for teachers. My goal was to examine the workshop from the museum educator's perspective in order to gain a greater understanding of how museum educators plan for an audience with which research indicates they have little communication.

Rationale

Though museum educators and teachers are frequently working toward the same goal of educating students, there is a severe lack of communication and little cooperation between the two. With the lack of communication between museum educators and teachers, and the lack of research examining the perspective of the museum educator, I was interested in how museum educators planned MIPD for participants with whom they have little contact, how they understood the Holocaust and Holocaust education, and what roles museum staff members played during the workshop.

Over 30 states mandate the teaching of the Holocaust, including the state in which the regional Holocaust museum is located, making it important to examine how the museum is preparing teachers to cover this required topic. A bill passed by this state's legislature required

the State Superintendent of Public Instruction to select a manual emphasizing the causes and ramifications of the Holocaust to be distributed to each district in the state. Furthermore, local school divisions were required to distribute age- and grade-appropriate portions of the chosen manual to history and literature teachers within the district. Teachers within the state are then required to teach material that is at times difficult to assimilate and can be controversial. Though a manual was distributed, training and support for covering the material was not a requirement. Since MIPD has been well received by participants in preparing to teach other historic topics, I was curious how the regional Holocaust museum approached covering the topic in the classroom and what they took into consideration when preparing educators to teach the Holocaust.

Overview of the Study

This study sought to examine how museum educators understand the Holocaust and Holocaust education, and how those understandings shaped their planning and presentation of a weeklong workshop. The study was unique in that it focused on the perspective of museum educators, which is often ignored in the literature (Marcus et al., 2012). The overarching conceptual frameworks that guided this study were social constructivism and adult learning theory, coupled with museum-initiated professional development and pedagogical content knowing. These frameworks helped me examine how the MIPD was designed for a particular audience of adult learners, and how the content covered during the workshop was presented.

The study involved a five-day Holocaust education workshop, held twice in July. Each workshop was attended by at least 30 teacher participants from all geographic areas of the state, representing multiple grade levels and content areas. Observations were conducted each day of both workshops. Data collection also included pre- and post-workshop interviews with the three museum staff responsible for the workshop. Data analysis for this study was completed using

First and Second Cycle coding methods as suggested by Saldaña (2013), as well as an episode profile (Maietta & Mihas, 2014) for each participant. First Cycle coding methods included descriptive, *in vivo*, values, and evaluation-coding techniques grouped under the umbrella of eclectic coding. Second Cycle coding methods were comprised of pattern and focused coding. An episode profile was created for each museum staff member in which 10-15 quotes from interview transcripts were chosen because of their significance. Quotes were examined in relation to each other, and subsequently used to develop a profile for each participant regarding their roles during the workshop. The analysis of this study included researcher reflexivity, member checking, and triangulation to help ensure reliability and dependability.

Document Organization

The remainder of the study is divided into four additional chapters. Chapter 2 focuses on the existing literature around museum education, professional development, and Holocaust education. This chapter highlights the evolution of these ideas, as well as key research examining their purpose. Chapter 3 details the methodology behind the study and introduces the Holocaust Educator's Workshop (HEW), which was the primary focus. Chapter 4 describes the findings from the study. Finally, Chapter 5 explains the limitations of the study, discusses the findings, and offers suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In Chapter 1, I introduced this study by describing its purpose and the research question. In order to explore my research question about museum staff members' understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust education, as well as their role in implementing a Holocaust MIPD, this chapter reviews the literature on the development of museums as educational institutions, the evolution of professional development practices, as well as the rise of Holocaust education in the United States. I argue that the convergence of these three areas of scholarship may lead to effective and useful professional development opportunities that prepare educators to cover the Holocaust, a difficult topic that is often mandated but lacks support for those who are responsible for teaching it.

This chapter consists of four sections. In the first section I examine the transition of museums from private collections held by the elite to institutions that strive to educate a diverse audience. I pay particular attention to the push for museums to work alongside schools, which is a trend that occurred after the conclusion of the Cold War when administrators began to consider the increasing diversity of the museum-going public when planning educational endeavors. I also closely examine the rise of the position of the museum educator, a specialist position devoted to the educational aspects of a museum, but one in which little consistency for qualifications and responsibilities exists across the field. The second section details the purpose of professional development, and the evolution of various styles of professional development. While early models of professional development frequently involved an expert presenter sharing information with an audience of teachers, scholarship now indicates particular characteristics that contribute to meaningful and relevant professional development opportunities for educators that

have a stronger classroom impact. I examine these characteristics, as well as newer models of professional development—some of which are planned and presented by museums that tend to incorporate such characteristics into their models in order to create meaningful learning opportunities for educators. In the third section, I chronicle the rise of Holocaust education in the United States, which began in 1978. I pay particular attention to early instructional strategies for teaching the Holocaust, as well as common pedagogical errors that are often employed in covering the content. I also examine curricular debates surrounding the Holocaust and how it should be taught, such as the Holocaust uniqueness factor that argues that the Holocaust should be taught as a separate and distinctive event. In examining these arguments and debates, the sensitivity of the topic is highlighted, which further supports the importance of specific frameworks and guidelines for teaching the Holocaust. In the fourth section, I conclude this literature review with a summary and analysis of the strengths and gaps within the research literature. Specifically, I argue that while the involvement of museums in planning and presenting professional development for educators may lead to teachers who are more confident and better prepared to teach difficult content, a better understanding of museum educators and their planning and implementation of MIPD is necessary.

The Importance of Museums

Although most youth in the U.S. complete 13 years of formal education, people continue to learn in multiple informal settings throughout their lives. One such setting is the public museum—an institution that began as a somewhat elitist establishment for the wealthier upper classes, but has become a place for anyone who wishes to step through its doors in search of knowledge, enjoyment and enlightenment (American Association of Museums, 1992; Boyd,

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1993; Hudson, 1975; International Council of Museums, 2007). The International Council of Museums defines a museum in the following way:

> A non-profit, permanent institution in the service of society and its development, open to the public, which acquires, conserves, researches, communicates and exhibits the tangible and intangible heritage of humanity and its environment for the purposes of education, study and enjoyment. (International Council of Museums, 2007, para 3)

With museums playing a larger role in education, it is beneficial to examine the part that museum educators play in the learning process, and the overall relationship between museums and schools. Although many museums cite education as their primary goal (American Association of Museums, 1992; Boyd, 1993; Hudson, 1975; International Council of Museums, 2007), the preservation and presentation of artifacts is still important. Given this duality of purpose, the educational focus of many museums today has evolved over several centuries and is not always clearly defined.

The Evolution of Museums as Educational Institutions

What we think of today as public museums began as private collections owned by aristocrats and royalty. These collections were not open to the public and only scholars and other distinguished guests were invited to view the artifacts. The push for equal educational opportunities that arose with the Enlightenment began the shift from closely-guarded private collections to actual public museums that would benefit the larger population. This practice grew slowly, however, and even after collections were turned over to a state's board of trustees, these institutions only benefited a small elitist portion of the population (Hudson, 1975; Wittlin, 1949).

Wittlin (1949) detailed two periods of reform in early museums. First, museums began to open their doors to a broader populace with less discretionary income and leisure time via lower

admission prices (or free entrance) and extended visiting hours. Exhibits, however, were not necessarily designed with ease of learning in mind, and Wittlin (1949) lamented how the vast number of artifacts and the lack of written documentation could often bewilder visitors, rather than educate them.

A second and related reform shift had to do with the fact that proponents for the museum as an educational tool became more vocal. George Brown Goode (1889) described his vision for American museums as being staffed by scholarly, well-informed men who were trained to engage in educational work. Goode's vision though, was not necessarily aimed at school-age children, but for the adult population. According to Goode, teachers were well equipped to teach their students, but formal schooling ended before the mind reached maturity. In order to avoid "mental starvation" after formal schooling, museums could fill the void by providing stimulating educational opportunities. Goode (1889) also wanted to ensure that that the museum was designed for a variety of visitors, from the working class to professionals to the leisure class. His ideas not only broadened the move to make museums more accessible by the general public, but also pushed for exhibits to be more visitor-friendly.

The Move Toward Education

Though Goode (1889) did not envision museums as primarily designed for students, the rise of progressive education a few years later meant that museums were becoming more closely linked with schools. Progressive educators argued for "pedagogy based on experience, interaction with objects, and inquiry" and wanted to serve the entire population rather than selected groups (Hein, 2013, p. 161). Advocates for museum education in the early twentieth century shared progressive ideals and called for a partnership between schools and museums to benefit student learning. For example, Anna Billings Gallup and Louise Connolly applied

progressive principles and social goals in their work with museums. Contemporaries of Goode, Gallup, and Connolly in England were also working to connect museums more closely to schools. According to William E. Hoyle (1903), the Director of the Manchester Museum at Owens College: "It behooves us, who have the direction of the museums, and those who teach the children, to take counsel together" (p. 229). Hoyle also alluded to several museum-school partnership trends that are still visible today, such as the correlation of teaching in a museum with teaching in a school for maximum benefit to students—say, for example, by preparing students for their museum visit. Furthermore, Elijah Howarth of the Museums and Art Gallery in Sheffield (UK), echoed Holye's call for museums and schools to work together more closely. Specifically, Howarth (1915) believed that "museums cannot fully enter into the direct education of the schools without becoming intimately related with their teaching methods" (p. 277). Moreover, Howarth (1915) initiated discussion of a topic that is still deliberated today within museum education—the creation and role of an appointed "museum educator." When discussing museums as a center for the kinematograph (an early motion picture camera) and making it available for schoolchildren, Howarth (1915) seemed to advocate the creation of the museum educator in stating, "There is no reason why the education authorities should not only provide the apparatus and materials but should pay the salary of a competent member of the museum staff to do the work" (p. 284).

As the twentieth century progressed, museums continued to refine their educational goals—at least in the U.S. By 1958, Lothar P. Witteborg of the American Museum of Natural History stated what he believed should be the goal of a museum: "The primary purpose and function of a museum and its exhibits is to educate" (cited by Hudson, p. 48). Thus, the philosophical shift of museums away from being elitist institutions catering to the few had been

achieved. However, although museum professionals welcomed the change, they were left with questions concerning the best and most effective ways to educate the public and build beneficial relationships with schools.

The Role of Museums in Society and Education Today

The rise of progressive education, particularly the notion of learning from objects and promulgating that knowledge as widely as possible, contributed to the creation of museum education as a field in its own right. Early museum educators like Gallup and Connolly worked to incorporate progressive ideals into their work. In the decade after Witteborg cited education as the primary purpose of a museum, three science museums were established (The Lawrence Hall of Science in Berkeley (CA), The Exploratorium in San Francisco (CA), and Canada's Toronto Science Center) that incorporated these progressive ideals and introduced experiential and interactive exhibits (Hein, 2013). These museums, which opened their doors during the period of the Cold War (the mid-to-late 1960s), had a more intense focus on education as was common at the time, particularly for science and technology. Additionally, science museums were at the forefront of creating interactive exhibits for visitors; thus, numerous studies have examined their impact on learning (Griffin & Symington, 1997; Karnezou, Avgitidou, & Kariotoglou 2013; Kisiel, 2005; Ramey-Gassert et al., 1994; Tal, 2001; Tran, 2007).

The identity of museums as educational institutions has not changed significantly in the past five decades—although the 1990s saw a push for museums to rethink their role as active educators of the public (Black, 2005; Bloom & Mintz, 1990; Boyd, 1993; Falk, 1999). Boyd (1993), citing the 1990 Report on American Education from the National Endowment for the Humanities, indicated that museums were identified as "parallel schools" of the nation that should embrace their role as "community centers of learning" (p. 763).   Boyd (1993) further

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noted that "to be an effective center of learning, a museum must have a clear educational commitment, curricula, and methods. In pursuing educational objectives, museums, like schools and universities, must be modest" (p. 763).

Despite all good intentions, Falk (1999) pointed out that prior to the 1990s museums tended to be characterized by their "historic inability to document the educational impact [they have] on [their] own visitors" (p. 259). Overall, however, Falk (1999) concluded that there is "consistent evidence of learning in museums" (p. 270). Recognizing the growing diversity amongst visitors, Falk (1999) nonetheless suggested that museums alter their educational focus in order to attract historically-underrepresented groups and create meaningful learning experiences for a variety of visitors.

Prior to Falk's 1990 report, however, The American Association of Museums (1992) had already recognized the importance of diversity by stressing the need to "include a broader spectrum of our diverse society in their activities" (p. 8). The report goes on to detail the educational role of museums as central for public service. It also expands on the idea of including a more diverse audience in museum activities and creating strong leadership within and outside the museum in order to meet the goal of providing excellence and equity in museum operations and programs (American Association of Museums, 1992).

Museums in the U.S. (and, indeed, worldwide) have had a long history of evolution from their start as private collections owned by aristocracy to public institutions focused on education and community. After embracing their role as educational institutions, museums underwent changes again as they determined exactly what part they would play in the new century. The past 25 years have witnessed a reassessment of the relationship between schools and museums, a move toward better understanding the experiences of diverse visitors, a focus on factors that

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hinder or promote a successful field trip, debates over the authority of the museum to promote

certain knowledge and values, as well as challenges related to the creation of new media

technologies. While research has contributed a wealth of knowledge about each of these topics,

all of them are still relevant today. For example, multiple studies indicate that field trips are not

as effective as they could be, and teachers are often unsure of their role in museum visits and

lack the skills to create meaningful connections between the classroom and the museum (Kisiel,

2003; Tal & Steiner, 2010; Wright-Maley, Grenier, & Marcus, 2013). Museums must address

the rise in social networking, which has exponentially changed the ways people communicate

and learn, thereby cementing their relevance among today's technologically savvy consumers.

Communication is often lacking between schools and museums, which research shows is

essential for beneficial collaboration (Sheppard, 1993). Despite these challenges, there has been

positive growth—and one important indicator of that is the creation and professionalization of

the museum educator, a position developed specifically to promote the educational mission of

museums.

The Professionalization of the Museum Educator

Early on, museums defined education in a more formal sense and created programs that

were similar to schools (Bloom & Mintz, 1990), and early museum educators would conduct

lessons in a manner similar to the classroom. As educational responsibilities began to change

and expand, museums assigned educational responsibilities to various staff members. Eventually,

the need for a targeted position to promote the educational goals of the museum was born—and

with the position the official job posting for the "museum educator."

The American Association of Museums (2002) defines the museum educator in the

following way:

. . . specialists who help museums fulfill their educational mission. They recognize that many factors affect the personal, voluntary learning that occurs in museums. They seek to promote the process of individual and group discovery and to document its effect. On museum teams, museum educators serve as audience advocates and work to provide meaningful and lasting learning experiences for a diverse public. (para 3)

One of the biggest concerns with hiring a museum educator has to do with the necessary qualifications for the position. As early as 1958 (the same year Witteborg declared education to be the primary purpose of museums), the question regarding the appropriate qualifications for a museum educator arose. In an early work on museum educators, Hellman (1958) pinpointed three challenges that continue to confront institutions: the responsibilities of the museum educator, his or her specific qualifications, and how to attract and maintain high caliber educators. For starters, Hellman (1958) called for museum educators to have training in educational psychology, general psychology, and sociology—thereby giving them a leg up in connecting with the learning abilities of the students with whom they came into contact. He also alluded to the variety and ever-changing nature of that person's responsibilities, which is a concern that is still rings true today.

Three decades later, Dobbs and Eisner (1987) referred to the position of the museum educator as the "uncertain profession." Indeed, questions still revolve around museum educators, their responsibilities, their qualifications, and how educational functions interact with broader museum functions. Although speaking specifically about educators in American art museums, Dobbs and Eisner (1987) discussed issues that are pertinent for museum educators in many institutions—for example, the confusion that can beleaguer the efficacy of the museum educator, and the tensions that sometimes arise between educational staff and curatorial staff. Indeed, Dobbs and Eisner painted a bleak picture of the field of museum education in the 1980s, describing the lack of professional development, journals, and support for educational practices,

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as curators chose content knowledge over educational knowledge. They concluded by

suggesting actions to help professionalize the field. Similarly, Anne El-Omami (1989) echoed

many of the same complaints, decrying in particular the lack of clear training guidelines for art

museum educators.

Interestingly, it was Mariner who in 1972 first sounded the call for the professionalization

of museum workers; she asserted that museum professionalization should include a number of

key components, including formal training, a code of ethics, and the development of professional

organizations. Though Mariner (1972) and others (e.g., Teather, 1990) applied these

components to all museum workers, the work of Dobbs and Eisner (1987) targeted museum

educators, although several of their suggestions correlate directly with Mariner's (1972)

components of professionalism.

Standards for Museum Educators

In 1990 in an attempt to help professionalize the field, the American Association of

Museums (AAM) created the first set of standards for museum educators. By 2002, those

standards had been revised in order to "reflect the complexity of engaging a diverse audience in

vital and meaningful learning experiences" (EdCom, 2002, p. 55), as well as to promote

interdepartmental collaboration, the implementation of new technologies and

planning/assessment tools. Recognizing that the position covers a broad range of

responsibilities, the Task Force (2002) organized their standards into three categories

(accessibility, accountability, and advocacy), with correlating principles to help museum

educators meet those standards.

Even after the creation of the AAM standards, there is still debate over proper preparation

and qualifications for museum educators. For example, in reviewing the qualifications and the

professional preparation/development of art museum educators, Ebitz (2005) noted that many of the changes Dobbs and Eisner (1987) had suggested almost two decades earlier were, in actuality, already taking place. Ebitz's (2005) work more closely resembles that of El-Omami (1989), in that he discusses the preparation for art museum educators and the preference for those who fill the position to have degrees in art history, rather than training in education. Ebitz (2005) also described his own experience as head of education and academic affairs at the J. Paul Getty Museum (Los Angeles, CA), where a doctorate in art history is now required for the position—as well as for those being considered for the post of museum lecturer in the education department. However, Ebitz also pointed out that at the time of his own appointment in 1987, some museums (e.g., the Denver Art Museum) were starting to shift from content knowledge to educational background, which also supports the reforms suggested by Dobbs and Eisner that same year. Also important to note is that many universities now offer a degree in museum education, which Ebitz (2005) credits to a greater understanding of the museum's role in education, the professionalization of the field, and the revamping of traditional art history curricula for those seeking a career in museum education.

Tran and King (2007) also took a scholarly interest in science museum educators, who they claimed lack "common understanding about what constitutes best practice in informal science contexts" (p. 131). The authors argued that even after the creation of professional standards and decades of discussion, the field of museum education still lacks an agreed-upon foundation for preparation and practice. Nonetheless, Tran and King (2007) acknowledged the diverse roles that museum educators could fill, and applied a sociological framework of professionalization to suggest steps to create consistency within the field. Though Tran and

King (2007) focused on science museum educators, they did suggest that their findings could be useful for educators in other types of museums.

Obstacles to Professionalization

One of the main issues that has slowed professionalization of museum educators is the lack of consistency in knowledge and practice (Tran & King, 2007). Tran and King (2007) defined professionals as people with specific knowledge and skills who share a common identity and commitment to their field. In order for museum education to complete the professionalization process, the skills and knowledge must be common across the field and widely understood to be necessary for the post. The authors, for instance, discovered that science museum educators had an understanding of pedagogical knowledge, but it was applied inconsistently or was specific to exhibits or programs rather than across the discipline (Tran & King, 2007). After surveying the research and conducting small group discussions with museum educators and colleagues, the authors devised a list of six components that would aid in the creation of a pedagogical knowledge base for museum educators: context, choice and motivation, objects, content, theories of learning, and talk (Tran & King, 2007). When addressed effectively, these six factors could support the development of a museum educator capable of creating enjoyable learning experiences for the visitor. The authors then combined those components into three broader categories: museum content knowledge, museum contextual knowledge, and museum pedagogical knowledge, which mirror Schulman's (1986) concepts of professional knowledge for teachers. Specifically, Shulman (1986) suggested that teachers should have an understanding not only of content, but also instructional strategies and student learning in order to transfer knowledge most effectively to students. Tran and King (2007) recommended a

similar approach for museum educators, which would go a long way toward creating consistency and best practices across the field.

Although Tran and King (2007) have been somewhat critical of recent efforts to professionalize museum education, their practical implications offer guidelines to begin establishing the necessary foundations for knowledge and skills across the discipline—not just in science museums but across the profession, since many of their recommendations are applicable to the broader field. Though recent studies suggest that museum directors are beginning to scrutinize the roles of their museum educators more seriously, available scholarship makes it clear that work remains to be done to professionalize the role in deliberate ways (Ebitz, 2005; Tran & King, 2007).

The Multiple Roles of the Museum Educator

Since museums tend to employ a smaller number of staff, many museum educators play numerous roles. Fulfilling multiple responsibilities is one of the reasons that it has been difficult to determine the exact qualifications a museum educator should possess. Based on a survey of museum educators at Chicago's Adler Planetarium and Astronomy Museum, Dragotto, Minerva, and Nichols (2006) listed the range of activities that their museum educators are expected to carry out: "coordinating family events; training volunteers; writing a planetarium show script or grant proposal; facilitating a distance learning program; performing in a live planetarium for 300 school children; and collaborating with another museum on a joint project" (p. 215). It should be noted that the Adler Museum was founded with the express purpose of educating the public and employed 11 museum educators at the time of the study. Interestingly, Adler's museum educators are divided in such a way as to highlight the multiple methods of learning that take place in a museum. Informal educators at Adler focus on enhancing the experience of the

general public and school groups, while formal educators provide professional development opportunities for teachers. Distance learning and technology educators are responsible for reaching audiences via videoconferences or podcasts.

The Adler study clearly delineates the various skills that an effective museum educator must possess in order to do the job well (Dragotto et al., 2006). Some skills—such as flexibility, the desire for continued learning, and thinking on one's feet—mirror those of the classroom teacher. Other skills (e.g., planning events, managing budgets, and doing public relations) also fall under the umbrella of the museum educator's job description. The Adler study supports Malloy's 1992 study of museums in Boston, which detailed a similar multifaceted job description of museum educators. Malloy (1992) also discussed the interactions between visitors and museum education staff, estimating that the average museum educator in Boston comes into direct contact with 4,901 visitors annually, in addition to the multiple behind-the-scenes responsibilities for which they are accountable.

One role of the museum educator as discussed by Dragotto et al. (2006) and Malloy (1992) is that of promoter of civic engagement and community liaison. Henry (2006) also expanded on this particular role adding that "core values of accessibility, relevancy, and inclusiveness" (p. 223) should represent the "heart" of museum education. Within the role of community engagement, museum educators must take into consideration the views of the local community when designing exhibits and programs in order to engage and create positive relationships with the community. By focusing on Henry's (2006) core values, museum educators can create meaningful experiences that resonate with and connect to the community.

Based on the research discussed in this section, it clearly has been difficult to unambiguously define the role of the museum educator. Many factors affect their

responsibilities, from the size and location of the institution in which they are employed, to the

number of educators on staff, to the identity and input of the local community. It is certain that

those in this position will be tasked with a wide range of responsibilities, some of which may

seem to be only marginally related to education. Those who fill these positions often view

themselves as educators first, enjoy sharing information with students and the general public, and

thrive in the often hectic work environment that is a museum (Bailey, 2006).

Perceptions of the Museum Educator

Though the position of museum educator is relatively recent in terms of the long history

of public museums, it has nonetheless undergone drastic changes in its short existence—

particularly after the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) in 2001. While the

position was still in the process of defining itself in the 1980s and 1990s, (Dobbs & Eisner, 1987;

Teather, 1990), the NCLB introduced state academic standards, standardized testing beginning in

grade three, and adequate yearly progress goals that schools were required to meet in order to

continue to receive federal funding (Editorial Projects in Education Research Center, 2011). Not

only did the NCLB change the ways that schools were run, it also impacted other institutions that

had long partnered with schools—namely, museums. As a result, museum educators have had to

alter their methods in creating programs and exhibits for schools in order to remain relevant and

useful. With the description of the museum educator seemingly in constant flux, it is helpful to

examine the perceptions of those who choose to work in this field.

Bailey (2006) explored this very issue in her study of science museum educators. Like

other studies in the field of museum education, Bailey's results are applicable to many in the

museum profession and reinforce the multiple responsibilities of museum educators. Those in

her study divided these responsibilities into "program work" and "exhibit work," differentiating

between assignments that cater to education-specific audiences and the general public. Many described themselves as educators or teachers, whether they came from a formal education background or a science background. Although museum educators may not necessarily have to document formal pedagogical training and education to be employed, many in Bailey's (2006) study described the knowledge of teaching and learning as essential to their work. Unlike teachers in educational institutions, however, museum educators often learn this pedagogical knowledge on the job—unless their background happens to include such formal training. They are also quick to point out the differences in working in an informal learning environment versus a formal learning environment, highlighting a more relaxed and positive attitude toward the learning that takes places in museums (Bailey, 2006).

Tran (2007) upheld Bailey's (2006) earlier study by demonstrating that museum educators in science museums employ creativity, complexity, and skill in designing and implementing lessons for student groups. Tran (2007) found that museum educators developed lessons based on specific topics that all educators followed to create consistency across school groups. For example, at one museum lessons were correlated with the curriculum and designed to meet state standards, while a second museum was in the process of revising lessons to accomplish this goal. The researcher also confirmed that museum educators do have some flexibility to alter lessons based on their school group, and many do take advantage of the opportunity. When discussing the decision to alter lessons, the museum educators that Tran (2007) interviewed mentioned factors such as time constraints and unexpected interruptions or delays, both of which are similar to constraints teachers face in the classroom. However, an additional constraint for museum educators is being unaware of students' prior knowledge, which makes it difficult to tailor lessons based on what they already know. Museum educators

instead must base their lesson-planning decisions on their experience with previous classes (Tran, 2007).

Soon after the passage of NCLB, Davis (2005) listed "competition in educational and entertainment marketplaces" (Davis, 2005, p. 431) as one of the challenges faced by museums. Thus, these professionals do recognize how their work environment has changed in relation to NCLB. Museum educators now also focus on state standards, often designing programs that align with those standards. Pressures from NCLB have reduced the amount of field trips teachers conduct, as well as made it difficult to gain administrative approval for the field trips they do wish to schedule since they must align with state standards in order to be approved. Museum educators have recognized this restriction and have begun to take standards into account when designing both in-house and outreach programs and resources (Tran, 2007). In fact, many realize that it is necessary to align with state standards in order to ensure the continued success of their museums (Davis, 2005; Tran, 2007).

Nonetheless, many museum educators enjoy creating resources to support teachers within their community and understand the challenges and time constraints teachers face. The relationship between museums and schools is far from perfect, however, and while both institutions may strive toward the same goal of educating students, a lack of communication prevents the relationship from being as effective as it has the potential to be.

The Call for Professional Development

Although a disconnect still exists between museums and schools, some progress has been made and many museum educators are working hard to ensure that their programs and resources align with state standards so they are useful to classroom teachers. Consider that museum educators have been around a relatively short period of time in comparison to public school

systems in this country or even public museums as we know them today. Moreover, school-aged

populations have become increasingly diverse and technologically savvy, which means that

museums have had to change as well to remain relevant. If both parties consider each other's

perspectives and communicate their perceptions on content, pedagogy, teacher and museum

educator roles, and resources, the potential to collaborate to create those meaningful learning

experiences for students could be increased.

The key to teachers and museum educators working together effectively appears to be

professional development. Guskey (2000) defined professional development as "those processes

and activities designed to enhance the professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes of educators

so that they might, in turn, improve the learning of students" (p. 16). Melber and Cox-Petersen

(2005) described the term more broadly as "any educational activity that attempts to help

teachers improve instruction" (p. 104), while Grenier (2010) explained the term in relation to the

possibilities for both formal and informal learning opportunities, stating that professional

development is "a variety of experiences including formal opportunities such as workshops and

mentoring and informal experiences including self-directed reading and media consumption" (p.

501). Other scholars such as Kelchtermans and Vandenberghe (1994) broke down professional

development into its "prescriptive sense" (i.e., "the way a teacher's evolution occurs during the

career"), and its "descriptive sense" (i.e., "interventions and training to direct the evolution in

professional behavior in a more desirable way") (p. 45). My investigation relied on the

definitions proved by Melber and Cox-Petersen (2005) and Grenier (2010), with a focus on a

variety of activities, both formal and informal, that constitute professional development. It

should be noted that although the professional development opportunities discussed herein would

all be considered formal opportunities—in that they are designed for and provided to teachers—

they may occur in informal learning environments such as museums. Additionally, some models create informal opportunities such as networks that are formed during formal professional development, which extend beyond the conclusion of the event, resulting in continued conversation and collaboration between participants.

Early or traditional models of professional development, however, more closely followed Kelchtermans and Vandenberghe's (1994) descriptive sense of the term, and were predominately staff development or training models meant to introduce classroom practices (Grenier, 2010; Guskey, 1995), or introduced teachers to pre-packaged curricula over which they had no control (e.g., in the sciences) (Howe & Stubbs, 1996). A common traditional model, the expert-presenter model, for example, involves bringing in an expert on a particular topic to lecture to teachers, and omits any hands-on learning (Gall & Vojtek, 1994). Many districts have employed the expert-presenter or direct teaching model when offering professional development for teachers (Sparks & Hirsh, 1997). The clinical-supervision model involves coaching or mentoring for the teacher, but does not allow for collaboration among teacher colleagues. In contrast, the skills-training model does allow for trainers to model skills and teachers to practice those skills and receive feedback (Gall & Vojtek, 1994), but tends to be limited to specific instructional skills and ignores content knowledge development that is often helpful.

These traditional models of professional development have long been under attack by scholars (Borko & Putnam, 1995; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin 1995; Little, 1993; Sachs & Logan, 1990; Sparks & Hirsh, 1997), some of who have described such professional development opportunities as "anti-professional" (Howe & Stubbs, 1996) since they often focus on implementing programs created outside the classroom, thus removing any learning opportunity or creativity for teachers (Reilly, 2009). In their study of professional development

in Australia, Sachs and Logan (1990) described the effects of such professional development as "controlling and deskilling teachers" (p. 474), since pre-packaged materials not only infringe upon teacher autonomy by introducing a one-size-fits-all program, but also reduces teachers pedagogical skills by removing the need for reflexivity and development.

Though many traditional models of professional development may have instructed teachers on how to incorporate creative and hands-on strategies into their classrooms, the glaring dilemma is that teachers attending these workshops were typically denied the same chances for creative learning opportunities (Borko & Putnam, 1995; Sparks & Hirsh, 1997). The 1990s saw a push to change the traditional models of professional development into models that were more beneficial in an era of educational reform. Scholars recognized the problems inherent in the traditional models of professional development, and began to call for reform within the field to make professional development opportunities relevant for teachers. Little (1993) recognized that the dominant models of professional development were inadequate to properly prepare teachers to handle modifications in education that arose in the early 90s—including calls for interdisciplinary teaching, a focus on a diverse student population, and a push for the use of authentic assessments.

Characteristics of Effective Professional Development

Given the obvious concerns associated with traditional models of professional development—and coupled with educational reform such as NCLB—a focus on effective professional development practices began and new models and guidelines were created to provide teachers with worthwhile and applicable training. Penuel et al. (2007) conducted a study involving 454 teachers and their ability to implement learned skills and content from a professional development opportunity. Unlike traditional models of professional development,

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which were frequently a one-time occurrence and often involved little interaction on the part of the teachers, Penuel et al. (2007) and several others (e.g., Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; De La Paz et al., 2011; Dixon et al., 2014; Garet et al., 2001; Goldenberg & Gallimore, 1991; Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Porter et al., 2003) found that direct and prolonged engagement, as well as curriculum-linked professional development, resulted in more effective training for teachers—and thus was more likely to be incorporated into their classrooms. Furthermore, Penuel et al. (2007) and others (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1998; Thompson & Zeuli, 1999) have asserted that professional development should fit the local context, which makes it more likely for teachers to incorporate the information and strategies learned because teachers are invested in the training, which represents another factor necessary for professional development (Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Yerrick & Beatty-Adler, 2011).

Guskey (2000) outlined three specific guidelines that are essential for effective professional development: (a) it must be intentional, in that it has a clearly-defined purpose and goals; (b) it must be ongoing, frequently-occurring and continually-reflective, rather than occurring during a single workshop on a few days per school year; and (c), it must be systematic, in that the changes being introduced should occur over a prearranged period of time and take into consideration the culture and context of the school or division. Other researchers have added to the list of desirable characteristics for professional development, such as the need for ongoing or prolonged opportunities rather than one-time workshops (De La Paz et al., 2011; Dixon et al., 2014; Garet et al., 2001; Porter et al., 2003), and the need for the material to fit the local context (Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Penuel et al., 2007; Yerrick & Beatty-Adler, 2011).

The need for active participation. Little (1993) proposed modifications to professional development that would move teachers from being passive participants to active learners. In

other words, professional development should provide opportunities for practice and allow teachers to experiment with new strategies and discover the ways in which they are compatible with their own classroom experiences. Little (1993), like many others (Howe & Stubbs, 1996; Reilly, 2009; Sachs & Logan, 1990), also denounced the use of pre-packaged curricula, particularly since such curricula often consumes the majority of budgets allocated for professional development—thereby reducing funds for exploring other, perhaps more effective forms of professional development. According to Little (1993), teachers must be involved "in the *construction*, and not mere *consumptio*n of subject matter teaching knowledge" (p. 135, emphasis in original), again highlighting the importance of active teacher participation in professional development, a trait others recognized as imperative (Garet et al., 2001; Howe & Stubbs, 1996; Neathery, 1998; Porter et al., 2003).

Howe and Stubbs (1996) reported that teachers who were more involved in professional development activities felt as though their opinions were valued, they learned from each other, and were treated as professionals—all of which led to positive learning experiences that were more likely to be incorporated into their lessons. The researchers also discussed the importance of allowing teachers to use their own experiences to adapt new knowledge and strategies learned in a professional development opportunity to their own classrooms. Further, Howe and Stubbs (1996) advocated for hands-on activities during professional development, as well as the formation of networks to allow teachers to share their activities and receive feedback. Similarly, Kubota (1997) reported that hands-on activities and the opportunity to collaborate with colleagues led to more effective teacher learning. Kubota (1997) further argued that teachers tend to teach as they were taught, therefore highlighting the importance of teachers learning

through first-hand activities and collaboration, which will more easily translate to the classroom when teachers have those experiences.

Collaboration and communities of practice. A great many scholars have addressed collaboration and the creation of networks or communities of practice as an important component to effective teacher professional development (Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Borko, 2004; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Garet et al., 2001; Guskey, 1995; Howe & Stubbs, 1996; Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Kubota, 1997; Little, 1993; Park et al., 2007; Porter et al., 2003; Putnam & Borko, 2000; Tippins, et al., 1993; van Hover, 2008). Wenger (1998) described learning as social participation, and defined a "community of practice" as learners who are "active participants in the *practices* of social communities and constructing *identities* in relation to these communities" (p. 4, emphasis in original). Not only do communities of practice provide support for teachers and an opportunity to exchange ideas, they can also heighten attention levels, provide a venue for participants to share their common learning experiences, and increase understanding of the activity (Greeno, Moore, & Smith, 1993). Wineburg and Grossman (1998) also discussed the benefits of conversation and interaction in a study comprised of high school English and history teachers who learned together for three years via a professional development opportunity that took the form of a book club. Teachers in the project met monthly to discuss historical and literary works, which eventually led to an interdisciplinary humanities curriculum. This model forced teachers from different departments to engage in a sharing of ideas and experiences, perspectives, and disagreements as they discussed the various texts and methods for incorporating them into the classroom (Wineburg & Grossman, 1998). While teachers involved in the project acknowledged the difficulties in engaging in disagreements with colleagues, they recognized the value in learning other perspectives and in exchanging experiences and ideas to

incorporate the project texts into the classroom, as well as aiming to create similar discussions in their classrooms (Wineburg & Grossman, 1998). Rather than maintaining the isolation that is common amongst discrete departments in schools, teachers began to think of themselves as co-learners, which created an environment of support and trust (Tippins, Nichols, & Tobin, 1993; Wineburg & Grossman, 1998). Collaboration across departments also can also participants become more reflective about their own teaching and realize other perspectives may offer valuable insight (Thomas, Wineburg, Grosman, Myhre, & Woolworth, 1998). In summary, collaboration and communities of practice in professional development are helpful on a number of levels.

New Models of Professional Development

New and emerging models of professional development tend to incorporate the characteristics for effective professional development discussed above. Kubota (1997) and Howe and Stubbs (1996) both incorporated constructivism into their models of professional development, calling for a focus on inquiry, social interaction, and time to work with colleagues. By allowing teachers to reflect on the information presented in a professional development opportunity, apply that information to their own classrooms, and work with colleagues to adapt and revise information, teachers will be empowered to use what is learned during professional development to construct knowledge that is appropriate for their students and applicable to their classrooms, thus making it more likely that training goals will actually be incorporated into the classroom rather than forgotten.

The idea of using professional development to help teachers build constructivist classroom environments was discussed by Loucks-Horsley et al. (1990) more than 25 years ago. However, their earlier model followed a more staged or step-by-step process to be applied to the

classroom, which contrasts with the later models that incorporate more creativity and collaboration on the part of the teachers. For example, beginning with the work of Kubota (1997) and Howe and Stubbs (1996), the push for new models of professional development was gaining prominence. One idea for improving professional development was the incorporation of constructivist ideals (Sparks & Hirsh, 1997), which may account for the differences between the Loucks-Horsley et al. (1990) model and the later forms.

Recent scholars have also added to the reform of professional development models. For example, Kortecamp and Steeves (2006) argued that not only should professional development be continuous, it should also include the input of external consultants such as museum curators, professors, and historians to enhance content and strategic approaches to teaching and learning. Dixon et al. (2014) also found that a higher number of professional development hours led to teachers having a greater sense of self efficacy and confidence, which in turn led to greater classroom implementation of new strategies. However, prolonged professional development opportunities may not be as effective if teachers are *forced* to attend rather than *choose* to attend, as asserted by Kortecamp and Steeves (2006).

Pedagogical content knowledge. Despite their varied models, contemporary models of professional development seem to agree on the importance of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Shulman (1986, 1987) defined PCK as going "beyond knowledge of subject matter per se to the dimension of subject matter knowledge for teaching" (p. 9). In order to be proficient in PCK, teachers must not only know their content area, they must understand how their students learn and have a wide variety of strategies and tools from which to draw to transfer the content to their students. Teachers must also be aware of how to adapt the material based on student

ability, prior knowledge, and multiple other factors that may effect how students learn (Shulman, 1987).

Numerous scholars have described the positive impact of incorporating PCK into professional development (Cochran, DeRuiter, & King, 1993; Garet et al., 2001; Goldschmidt & Phelps, 2010; Kallemeyn et al., 2013; Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Kubota, 1997; Shulman & Shulman, 2004; Van Driel & Berry, 2012). In a grant designed to support the teaching of American history (TAH) more effectively, Kallemeyn et al. (2013) examined secondary US History teachers involved in a prolonged TAH professional development opportunity that stressed the importance of PCK. As background, the purpose behind establishing TAH grants was to improve content knowledge for American history teachers, many of who were poorly trained in history. TAH grants, which were awarded for three years, encouraged school divisions to partner with institutions such as museums and universities to help teachers improve their PCK and teaching skills (Ragland & Woestman, 2009). Results from Kallemeyn et al.'s (2013) TAH grant indicated that their highly motivated study participants were encouraged to incorporate student centered instruction, focus on historical thinking skills, and weave in-depth historical content into their classroom as a results of exposure to the principles of PCK. It is not certain, however, how effective with program would have been with less motivated participants.

The Chicago History Project (CHP) is another example of a TAH grant that incorporated PCK. The program, which was revised after the first year to focus even more strongly on PCK, worked with Chicago-area middle and high school teachers through an introductory symposium, a three week summer institute, four follow up colloquia, and school-based workshops (Ryan & Valadez 2009). While the first cohort of teachers to participate in the CHP reported difficulty in seeing the connection between the workshop requirements and the classroom, the second-year

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participants reported a much stronger link between what was learned during the CHP sessions and their classroom experiences (Ryan & Valadez, 2009). Teachers also reported feeling more confident in their teaching ability due to their increase in content knowledge. It must be noted, however, that follow-up observations of participants found while participants felt more confident and had a greater understanding of history, lecture-based teaching declined only slightly, and the use of primary source material rose only slightly (Ryan & Valadez, 2009). Ryan and Valadez (2009) speculated that the lack of instructional coaching and the fact that only 40% of CHP participants were endorsed to teach history might have contributed to the small change in teaching styles; nonetheless, even with those small changes, student interest and engagement rose.

The CHP is also significant in that it reinforced how teacher feedback and involvement can be helpful in designing an effective professional development opportunity. The change in the CHP during the second year was solely due to participant feedback, which resulted in a stronger emphasis on PCK as recommended by program participants. This feedback shows that PCK is an effective form of conducting professional development, but also supports Howe and Stubbs (1996) who asserted that teacher involvement or empowerment in professional development is crucial.

Cochran et al. (1993), prefacing the research of Kubota (2007) and Kortecamp and Steeves (2006), applied a constructivist approach to Shulman's (1986) original notion of PCK. A constructivist view suggests that learners rely on their prior experiences to construct their own understanding of the world, and revise or refine that understanding through reflection (Brooks & Brooks, 2001). Furthermore, teachers should provide opportunities for students to reflect on their knowledge by questioning, presenting new information, or encouraging research (Brooks &

Brooks, 2001). Cochran et al. (1993) argued that Shulman's (1986) concept of PCK did not have this constructivist perspective to act as a framework and therefore created pedagogical content knowing (PCKg), which is defined as "a teacher's integrated understanding of four components of pedagogy, subject matter content, student characteristics, and the environmental context of learning" (Cochran et al., 1993, p. 266). In the Cochran et al. (1993) model, the researchers emphasized an understanding of students and their ability to learn, as suggested by constructivism, as well as an understanding of "social, political, cultural, and physical environmental contexts that shape the teaching and learning process" (p. 267). By more strongly focusing on these components, teachers were able to "construct a version of reality that fits the experiences of the context" (Cochran et al., 1993, p. 267). The remainder of their model appeared to be closely aligned with Shulman (1986), who advocated strong content knowledge for teachers.

It seems to be widely accepted among contemporary scholars that PCK is an integral part of effective professional development. Contemporary models of professional development that have incorporated PCK have led to higher teacher retention of content and strategies, as well as a higher rate of transference of new knowledge to the classroom.

Museum-initiated professional development. Another model that also combines multiple characteristics of effective professional development with a stronger emphasis on the museum teacher connection is "Museum-Initiated Professional Development" (MIPD). As defined by Grenier (2010), MIPD is "programming designed and provided by museums to support the professional development and workplace learning needs of individuals" (p. 502). MIPD can be held in a variety of locations (i.e., not limited to the museum), take multiple forms, and be tailored to a museum's mission and specific learning objectives (Grenier, 2010). MIPD

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opportunities also often involve scholars, museum educators, and other professionals to help deliver content and strategies to teachers.

One example of MIPD is the implementation of a summer institute, which may involve experiential learning and active involvement on the part of the participants (Grenier, 2010). Summer institutes often run for an extended period of time, from several days to several weeks. A benefit of summer institutes is not only the prolonged hours of professional development, but the creation of a community of practice that allows teachers to collaborate and learn with, and from, each other (Grenier, 2010). Grenier (2010) found that teachers participating in summer institutes sought to address gaps in both their professional knowledge and pedagogical practices, suggesting that MIPD is well suited to help teachers achieve PCK. Teachers involved in MIPD also reported that the workshops were directly applicable to their classroom practice, and the networks created during MIPD resulted in long-term friendships that led to collaboration on classroom projects and strategies, writing curricula, sharing resources, and conference presentations (Grenier, 2010). Participants were not only willing to attend the summer MIPD opportunities, but excited about their learning experiences and motivated to incorporate them into the classroom.

Similarly, Marcus et al. (2012) also described the benefits of attending professional development opportunities presented by museums. Of 94 Connecticut history teachers who responded to questionnaires and were subsequently interviewed, 48% had actually attended a workshop within the prior five-year period, and the great majority of participants were willing to attend such workshops, particularly if they were offered over the summer (Marcus et al., 2012). Teachers were also interested in professional development opportunities that would apply directly to their classrooms or help them improve student visits. These responses mirror those

reported earlier by Marcus (2008), who stated that the most beneficial professional development workshops for teachers focused not just on content, but on content and pedagogy—namely, PCK.

Several other scholars have also described how MIPD is both popular among teachers and supports their pedagogical practices (Aivazian, 1998; Hodgson, 1986; Kuster, 2008; Melber & Cox-Petersen, 2005; Melber, 2007; Pickering et al., 2012; Waite & Leavell, 2006; Yu & Yang, 2010). Hodgson (1986) described a particularly successful MIPD partnership that took place in the 1980s in Philadelphia. In the Philadelphia Alliance for Teaching Humanities in the Schools (PATHS) program, local museums, archives, and universities partnered with the Philadelphia school system to train teachers in research techniques, introduce them to museum collections, and help them understand how to use such resources in the classroom. Several critical elements contributed to the PATHS program's success, which can be correlated with the characteristics of effective professional development. For example, teachers worked interactively with the materials, were allowed behind the scenes, developed relationships with museum and university personnel, and were treated as professionals and colleagues (Hodgson, 1986). Teachers who participated in this program developed a greater understanding of their content, and felt prepared to use the newly learned materials and strategies in their classrooms. Furthermore, teachers who visited partner museums with their classes not only were more active during the field trip, but had students who were more prepared for their visit (Hodgson, 1986)— both of which counter the norm for field trip visits, where teachers are generally passive and students are unprepared for the experience (Anderson and Zhang, 2003; Kisiel, 2003; Tal & Steiner, 2010). The PATHS program, then, represents a persuasive example that MIPD could help alleviate some of the problems in the museum-school relationship.

Melber and Cox-Petersen (2005) also found that teachers involved in MIPD reported positive experiences that rated higher than non-museum related professional development workshops they attended in terms of enjoyment and usefulness. Melber and Cox-Petersen (2005) examined three types of MIPD, including a museum-based professional development, a museum and field-based professional development, and a field-based professional development—each of which was led by one or more museum educators. Participants stated the workshops were valuable for their hands-on training, access to museum artifacts and resources, and opportunity to collaborate with fellow teachers. Like the participants in the Marcus et al. study (2012), many stated they would be willing to attend additional MIPD opportunities, indicating that the workshops were not only interesting, but applicable to the classroom. While all three models received positive feedback, the models that included a field-based component were rated more highly than the museum-based model. In their follow up with participants, Melber and Cox-Petersen (2005) found that teachers did change their instruction based on information learned during the MIPD, and two years after the workshops were still incorporating that information in their classes. The authors concluded that the MIPD workshops were successful because they increased teachers content knowledge, helped teachers expand their pedagogical knowledge, and allowed teachers to become more familiar with museum staff and resources (Melber & Cox-Petersen, 2005).

Despite a compelling body of scholarship indicating that extended professional development is highly beneficial for teachers (Borko, 2004; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; De La Paz et al., 2011; Dixon et al., 2014; Goldenberg & Gallimore, 1991; Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006), there is also evidence that shorter interventions are useful. Melber (2007) described a successful half-day MIPD, particularly in regards to connecting teachers with

museum resources and preparing teachers for successful field trips. Melber (2007) examined

two MIPD models, one of which focused solely on science content and one that combined

science and literacy content. Both models included hands-on instruction and access to museum

artifacts, as well as a focus on how to connect museum resources to the classroom. While

participants did not see the inclusion of language arts content as any more helpful than the

strictly science content workshops, they did rate the MIPD workshops as more useful than other

non-museum related workshops; moreover, they indicated that their knowledge of museum

resources, accessibility, and applicability to the classroom had increased (Melber, 2007).

Despite these positive findings, Melber does cite the half-day time limit as a limitation to the

study, as well as the lack of follow up in the classroom. Nonetheless, initial results based on

teacher questionnaires indicated comparable positive attitudes and desire to implement the

information learned during MIPD in the classroom as found in other studies.

These studies and their analogous results regarding teacher attitudes, usefulness, and

classroom applicability suggest that MIPD could help alleviate some of the concerns found in the

museum-school relationship. They also suggest that MIPD could help teachers develop their

PCK for their particular content area, and increase their confidence in using that expanded

knowledge in the classroom. Marcus et al. (2012), however, did point out that "more research is

needed to expand what is known about teacher beliefs and practices as well as museum staff

perspectives" (p. 90). Additional studies with an extended follow-through (e.g., the 2005 study

by Melber and Cox-Petersen) would also be useful in examining how teachers incorporate

content and resources learned during professional development in their classrooms when faced

with multiple obstacles and constraints (see also Borko, 2004; Ryan & Valadez, 2009; van Hover

2008). Ryan and Valadez (2009) called for studies focusing on the "long-term impact of

content-focused professional development projects" in order to "determine the success of such programs" (p. 230). Though the research foundations are solid regarding the effectiveness of MIPD and PCK, further studies could help uncover how museum staff members plan MIPD activities and how they make them germane for teachers in an era of high-stakes testing.

Core Practices and AIW as a Potential Model for Professional Development Design

  Core practices. Recent scholarship has addressed the idea of shifting teacher education to focus on core practices (McDonald, Kazemi, & Kavanagh, 2013). The idea behind core practices is to enhance teachers' ability to engage in "constant in-the-moment decision-making that the profession requires" (Mcdonald, et al., p. 378) by identifying common pedagogies and "teaching practices that entail knowledge and doing" (p. 378). Although McDonald et al. (2013) discussed changes to teacher education (particularly with respect to novice teachers), the ideas behind core practices could be applied to professional development and are useful for veteran teachers as well. Core practices (a) focus on events that occur frequently in teaching, (b) are research based and may potentially improve student achievement, (c) preserve the integrity and complexity of teaching, and (d) contain opportunities for practice and reflection to allow educators to become comfortable with instructional strategies, receive feedback, and reflect on implementation of strategies before moving forward (McDonald, et al., 2013). It is important, for example, that novice teachers have hands-on experience with instructional strategies and be afforded opportunities to practice and reflect on that practice. As noted above, the characteristics surrounding core practices are also similar to those associated with effective professional development, which also includes active participation, collaboration, and reflection. Therefore, incorporating core practices in the design of professional development opportunities should be promoted.

Authentic intellectual work. The ideas behind authentic intellectual work (AIW), which is frequently centered on student performance, may also be useful if applied to professional development planning. The implementation of AIW shifts the focus away from teaching techniques or processes as the main focus of instruction (Newman, Marks, & Gamoran, 1996). Instead, the criteria within AIW are the construction of knowledge, disciplined inquiry, and value beyond school. Construction of knowledge is defined as "organizing, interpreting, evaluating, or synthesizing prior knowledge to solve new problems" (Newman, King, & Carmichael, 2007, p. 3). When teachers construct knowledge, they apply what they know to new problems or situations. The second criteria of AIW, disciplined inquiry, combines a prior knowledge base, in-depth rather than superficial understanding, and an expression of ideas through elaborate communication (Newman et al., 2007). Therefore, in constructing solutions to problems, a teacher will drawn on components of disciplined inquiry in order to apply the appropriate prior knowledge and skills to the situation, which will lead to a more in-depth understanding of the topic as teachers test their ideas and results with a wider audience. Finally, the third criteria of AIW, value beyond school, calls for "utilitarian, aesthetic, or personal value" (Newman et al., 2007, p. 5) beyond the purpose of simply completing the task at hand. The purpose of these criteria is the application of knowledge and skills to meaningful problems to aid in constructing knowledge, as well as to practice skills that are useful beyond school in an everyday context (Newman et al., 1996).

Given the usefulness of authentic intellectual work as applied to professional development (PD) for teachers, AIW should be viewed as a potentially powerful framework for planning workshops. The idea of teachers constructing knowledge lends to the idea of active learning, whose importance has been stressed in the literature as a critical component of

successful PD (Garet et al., 2001; Howe & Stubbs, 1996; Neathery, 1998; Porter et al., 2003).

AIW calls for the *production*, rather than the *reproduction*, of meaning or knowledge.

Workshops organized under the framework of AIW would involve teachers applying their prior

knowledge and skills to various problems (Newman et al., 2007), thereby allowing participants

to actively engage with workshop information and consider its usefulness and applicability to

their own classroom contexts. By providing teachers the opportunity to construct knowledge via

professional development, they could draw on their past experiences in the classroom and apply

that knowledge to the new content or instructional strategies being presented. Such an approach

would allow teachers to determine the usefulness of the workshop information in their everyday

classroom contexts, as well as what components may be useful (or not) based on those contexts

and prior experiences. Moreover, by actively engaging in the construction of knowledge with

other participants, teachers could not only draw on their own experiences, but also those of

others as they share their professional knowledge as it relates to workshop content. Little (1993)

stated that teachers should have the opportunity to experiment with new content or strategies in

order to determine ways in which new information is applicable to the classroom—an assertion

that correlates with AIW in that teachers are applying their skills and knowledge to new

problems presented in the form of unfamiliar content or strategies during a workshop. In

experimenting and determining how information is applicable to their classrooms, teachers are

participating in a component of AIW. Additionally, Howe and Stubbs (1996) found that when

teachers were more involved in professional development and were given the opportunity to

share their opinions and learn from each other, workshop content was more likely to be

incorporated into the classroom. In these collaborations and interactions, teachers also work

toward creating communities of practice, which may influence understanding of new information

as well as awareness of other perspectives (Greeno et al., 1993; Thomas et al., 1998). The first component of AIW, then, aligns with ideas behind active learning, constructivism, and communities of practice—all of which have been found to contribute to meaningful professional development.

The second criteria of AIW, disciplined inquiry, may also be applicable to planning professional development. Disciplined inquiry draws on prior knowledge, works to achieve in-depth understanding, and involves elaborated communication (Newman et al., 1996). In a professional development setting, teachers are likely to draw on their prior knowledge related to content and/or strategies when considering the applicability of workshop information. By providing time for participants to work with new knowledge and create links to the classroom, in-depth understanding may be acquired. Finally, by engaging in expanded conversations with colleagues to brainstorm, share ideas, or offer suggestions, teachers are empowered to help each other realize the relevance and applicability of the workshop content. Disciplined inquiry is closely linked to the construction of knowledge, since an essential component is a strong prior knowledge base. Professional development opportunities may draw on a teacher's prior knowledge and seek to expand it, so that teachers can develop a more in-depth understanding of specific topics or strategies. These components align with the ideas behind pedagogical content knowing (PCKg), in which workshops seek to provide teachers with a more in-depth understanding of their particular content area, as well as the tools for transferring that content to students. PCKg also draws on teacher's prior knowledge bases, since teachers must have some understanding of their students and how they learn. In applying disciplined inquiry to PD opportunities, teachers then may draw on their prior knowledge and experiences, but also work toward a deeper understanding of that knowledge, with the ultimate goal of transferring that

knowledge to students. In short, disciplined inquiry, in conjunction with construction of knowledge, allows teachers to not only apply their knowledge and skills to new problems, but also to determine if solutions are valid and appropriate for their students.

The final component of AIW, value beyond school, states that assigned tasks should have usefulness outside of the school setting to make information and skills valuable to students beyond simply completing an assignment for a grade. When applied to teachers in a professional development setting, AIW suggests that workshop content should be applicable to everyday classroom contexts in order for maximum relevance and usefulness. This factor relates directly to research recommending that PD content should have local curricular connections in order to achieve classroom applicability (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1998; Penuel et al., 2007; Thompson & Zeuli, 1999), thus making it more likely that teachers will actually utilize workshop content. By allowing teachers to participate in the construction of knowledge and disciplined inquiry, they are more likely to reflect on how workshop content is useful and relevant to their own particular classroom contexts. Thus, by engaging in AIW, teachers will have the opportunity to experiment and make those determinations or adaptations of workshop information for themselves. Teachers then will see how professional development is relevant outside of the workshop, and return to their classrooms with more in-depth knowledge and practice techniques to apply.

As professional development continues to evolve to meet the needs of teachers, the ideas behind core practices and AIW might prove useful in the design of workshops—especially if there's a purposeful attempt to combine many of published elements of effective professional development with common classroom practices. AIW combines many of the characteristics already found to contribute to useful and relevant professional development, but offers a more streamlined process for these components that could act as a framework for developing

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continuing education opportunities for teachers. This may result in teachers having the

opportunity to work more closely with content during professional development sessions to

better understand how it may be applied to the classroom.

Professional Development as Preparation for Difficult Content

Professional development opportunities have also been shown to help teachers prepare to

cover content that is sometimes difficult to present to students, such as genocide. The Holocaust,

for example, is a topic that is frequently taught in secondary schools in the U.S. (typically in

history or English classes), and one with which students are already likely to be familiar. In fact,

it is the most commonly-taught genocide in American public schools, since many states have

recommended or mandated the teaching of the subject.

Betten et al. (2000) described the planning and implementation of a Holocaust teacher

training program held at Florida State University (FSU), beginning in 1994 and continuing to the

present day. The FSU Holocaust Institute for Educators (HIE) was designed in response to a

request from the Tallahassee Federation of Jewish Charities, who were dismayed after results of

a national poll conducted by Roper indicated that many secondary school students had little

understanding of the events surrounding the Holocaust (Betten et al., 2000). Though the Roper

poll was later criticized for poorly constructed and questionable queries, FSU agreed to design an

institute. The Florida State Legislature also mandated the teaching of the Holocaust in public

schools around the same time, but provided no funds for teacher preparation.

The directors responsible for designing the HIE focused on two goals: (1) to help teachers

learn how to appropriately present the Holocaust to students by increasing their knowledge of

this complex topic, and (2) to help teachers integrate Holocaust material into multiple content

areas (e.g., English, history, and art), thereby combining the content and pedagogy angles later

advocated by Marcus (2008). Throughout the weeklong workshop, teachers are introduced to multiple perspectives of different countries and groups of people involved in the Holocaust. In addition to lecture-based presentations, participants also discuss documentary films and literature, interact with Holocaust survivors, and have the opportunity to participate in activities in local synagogues (Betten et al., 2000).

Like the TAH grant in Chicago that used participant feedback to revise its format to one with a stronger focus on PCK, the HIE also employed feedback to alter its format, providing teachers the opportunity to contribute to their own professional development rather than remain passive learners. In response to feedback, the HIE became more inclusive in its focus. For example, although it still emphasized the destruction of the Jews, sessions were added that focused on other victim groups such as homosexuals, the Roma-Sinti, and Russian POWs (Betten et al., 2000). Another change based on feedback was to include a session on the concept of "Jewishness," which participants felt was important in understanding the history of the Holocaust. Additional feedback spoke positively about the content, speakers, resources and activities; later Betten et al. (2000) reported that many participants chose to remain in contact with each other and with institute directors, thereby creating and maintaining useful communities of practice (Borko, 2004; Garet et al., 2001; Howe & Stubbs, 1996; Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Park et al., 2007; Porter et al., 2003; Putnam & Borko, 2000; van Hover, 2008).

In Washington State, teachers in a rural school district who were concerned by instances of intolerance in their community took the initiative and approached a local university, requesting an opportunity to study the history and instructional materials of the Holocaust (Wolpow et al., 2002). With funding from the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH), the teachers worked with university faculty to design a workshop series that would allow them to

integrate the Holocaust into their current curriculum, and provide them the opportunity to work together via a supportive partnership with the goal of increasing knowledge of Holocaust and hopefully reducing incidences of intolerance in the community (Wolpow et al., 2002). These two factors correspond with several characteristics of professional development the research shows to be important, such as including participants as the design of a workshop (Garet et al., 2001; Howe & Stubbs, 1996; Little, 1993; Porter et al., 2003); allowing for a community of practice/collaboration (Borko, 2004; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Garet et al., 2001; Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Kubota, 1997; Porter et al., 2003); and making content specific to the local context (Penuel et al., 2007).

The teachers who participated in the design of the HIE focused on several goals, including becoming familiar with key issues in Holocaust studies, creating a resource base of primary and secondary materials, creating interdisciplinary techniques for teaching the Holocaust, as well as exploring parallels between the Holocaust and other genocides (Wolpow et al., 2002). In the end, participants engaged in up to 72-hours of workshop-related activities that focused on these areas; they also had the opportunity to learn from almost a dozen Holocaust scholars who presented various perspectives, background information, and resources. Participants were later surveyed on (a) their self-efficacy regarding their content knowledge, (b) their skills for integrating the Holocaust into their curriculum, (c) the correlation between reported self-efficacy and content mastery, and (d) the key components and methods participants regarded as most important for Holocaust instruction in grades 6-12 (Wolpow et al., 2002). The authors found that teachers who attended more than 36 hours of workshop sessions reported higher levels of self-efficacy than those who attended fewer than 36 hours, lending support to the idea that prolonged professional development is more effective than shorter workshops.

The correlation between self-efficacy and content mastery also indicated that participants who attended more workshop hours were more confident in their ability to adequately teach the material to students (Wolpow et al., 2002). Exposure to various media and strategies to incorporate media, such as art, music, literature, and film also helped prepare teachers to confidently cover the material with their students, supporting PCK as a component of effective professional development.

Overall, participants felt that they had accomplished the goals they had helped to outline in the design of the workshop. They avoided pre-packaged curricula that may not apply to their local needs, they improved their content knowledge, and learned appropriate strategies to incorporate material and resources into their classrooms. Participants also created a community of practice that provided support both during and after the workshop (Wolpow et al., 2002).

The two studies here show that if professional development opportunities are goal-oriented, incorporate feedback from participants (or better yet involve participants in the construction of the program), provide a focus on content and pedagogy, and afford opportunities for collaboration, they can have positive impacts on teachers and increase their confidence in dealing with difficult topics in the classroom.

Defining the Holocaust and Genocide

Sadly, the Holocaust is just one of many incidences of genocide that occurred in the 20th century. Consider, too, the killing of Armenians in Turkey during WWI, Stalin's forced famine in the early 1930s, the Pol Pot-led massacres in Cambodia in the late 1970s, and the Rwandan genocide over a three-month period in 1994. Within schools, however, the Holocaust is typically the only genocide that is purposefully taught, since many states recommend or mandate that students be educated about it (Beyond our Walls: State Profiles on Holocaust Education, United

States Holocaust Memorial Museum, n.d.). Thus, although the other historical events may or may not be covered in high school history classes (but should), the fact that American pre-college students are most likely to be educated about the Holocaust points to the importance of investigating the ways that teachers become skilled in delivering this sensitive and difficult content.

The Official Definition of Genocide

The term "genocide" was originally coined by Raphael Lemkin (1900-1959), who combined the root words *genos* (Greek for race or family) and *–cide* (the Latin term for killing), in response to the slaughter of Jews and others during WWII. Due to his own experience with targeted violence due to his Jewish background and his study of atrocities committed against the Armenians, Lemkin began to argue for the need for legal protection of ethnic, social, religious, and political groups and devoted his life to the cause. He worked to persuade the United Nations (U.N.) to conduct a convention on genocide and for ratification of a document prohibiting it (Jones, 2011; Straus, 2001). Genocide was declared a "crime" in 1946 by the United Nations General Assembly. The UN officially announced its definition of genocide at the 1948 Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide, as follows:

> any of the following acts committed with intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnical, racial or religious groups such as:
>
> a) Killing members of the group;
>
> b) Causing serious bodily or mental harm to members of the group;
>
> c) Deliberately inflicting on the group conditions of life calculated to bring about its physical destruction in whole or in part;
>
> d) Imposing measures intended to prevent births within the group;

e) Forcibly transferring children of the group to another group. (p. 2)

Although Lemkin emphasized the nationality and ethnicity of targeted groups in his definition, he also stressed the importance of including political groups. Note that the United Nations did not include political groups, but instead focused on the terms "national, ethnical, racial, or religious" (United Nations, 1948), which, however, they neglected to define. For this investigation, I choose to follow the UN definition because it holds the international community accountable for intervention in instances of mass atrocity.

The Definition of the Holocaust

The Holocaust (with a capital H) refers to the murder of millions of people, the majority of whom were Jewish, which occurred while the Nazis were in power in the years prior to and during World War II (Fallace, 2008). The word is also written as holocaust (with a lower-case h) to denote "great human destruction, particularly by fire" (Jones, 2011, p. 22). American and Israeli Jews adopted the term Holocaust to describe the events of WWII in the 1960s. Holocaust is derived from Latin and means "total destruction by fire" or "burnt offering" (Fallace, 2008). Jones (2011) defined Holocaust as the "attempted destruction of the Jews" (p. 22), but notes that Nazi H/holocaust is often used to encompass all victims of the Nazis. Jones (2011) recently utilized the term holocaust to denote "particularly severe or destructive genocides" (p. 22). For those who reject the sacrificial undertones to the term Holocaust, the word Shoah (Hebrew for catastrophe) is preferred (Jones, 2011).

I prefer Fallace's (2008) definition of Holocaust because he emphasizes the Jewish population that was principally targeted, but alludes to the inclusion of others who were also victims of Nazi policy such as the Roma-Sinti, homosexuals, Jehovah's witnesses, Communists, those with mental or physical disabilities, and others. I do, however, agree with Jones' separation

of Holocaust/holocaust as a way to denote either the genocide associated with Nazi policy in the 1930s and 1940s or particularly destructive genocides linked to other events and populations. I believe this distinction is appropriate given the Holocaust's position as an important moment in the 20th century, which witnessed the largest number of victims of any genocide in history.

Although it is well known that Nazi policy discriminated against multiple other groups in addition to the Jews (as noted above), a lingering debate concerns who precisely should be considered as a victim of the Holocaust. Some survivors and scholars who were at the forefront of the push to incorporate the Holocaust into the public school curriculum viewed the event as specifically related to the Jewish experience. Fallace (2008) referred to this concept as the Holocaust uniqueness factor—a notion that is also central to the curricular debate over how to teach the Holocaust.

Holocaust Education in the United States

Up until the late 1970s, Holocaust education was virtually unknown in most of the U.S. It wasn't until the 1978 NBC miniseries, *Holocaust,* that the genocide made its way into the American consciousness. The miniseries prompted a growing interest among the American public in the event and created a push for inclusion of the Holocaust in schools (Fallace, 2008). Prior to the miniseries, however, the Holocaust was largely taught by Jewish educators in Jewish communities or studied by scholars and students at the college level—certainly not taught in any detail in American public schools. The first Holocaust curriculum designed for use in public schools was created in New York in 1973, which cited an article by Eli Wiesel calling for students to learn about "yesterday's grief and memories" (cited in Fallace, 2008, p. 26). Teachers in Massachusetts and New Jersey developed their own curriculum around the same time, and the push to include the Holocaust in public schools began (Fallace, 2008).

It should also be noted that in the late 1960s and 1970s, as mass atrocities such as those committed in Honduras, Northern Ireland, and Bangladesh, began to be widely broadcast through the media, the term genocide entered the public's consciousness. These atrocities coincided with the introduction of the Holocaust in public schools, and teachers began to realize the potential impact of units organized around genocide, of which the Holocaust would serve as the cornerstone. It was clear that after the Holocaust the world had not learned its lesson, and teachers began to compare contemporary atrocities to the Holocaust in order to create connections and engage students. In fact, the 1973 New York curriculum used this comparative approach, which was criticized by some (e.g., Roskies, 1975) for failing to cover anti-Semitism and using clichés (Fallace, 2008). This pedagogical decision to use the Holocaust in a comparative manner sparked a new debate over the uniqueness of the Holocaust, which I will discuss in the next section (Fallace, 2008).

As Holocaust education became more widespread, critics began to attack certain instructional practices, particularly the curricula that included simulations or Holocaust re-enactments. While today many scholars agree that simulations should never be used in conjunction with teaching the Holocaust (Totten, 2002), in the early days of Holocaust education many felt that simulations could demonstrate the randomness of Nazi atrocities and suffering of the victims (Fallace, 2008). It wasn't only simulations that were criticized, however; many groups attacked the information included in early Holocaust curricula. Turkish groups, for example, objected to the use of the term "genocide" when discussing mass atrocities involving Armenians, while others such as homosexuals asked for more information to be included about the other minority groups who fell victim to Nazi persecution. The constant criticisms of

Holocaust curricula represented a combination of the back-to-basics movement, the new social studies, and a long-standing debate over the best way to teach history to students.

These debates continued throughout the 1980s and 1990s as states began to develop their own Holocaust resources—with some mandating that the Holocaust be taught as a required subject. By 1988, eight states had their own Holocaust (or genocide/human rights) curriculum, and by 2007 three states specifically mandated the teaching of the Holocaust in their schools— starting with New Jersey in 1994. Chuck Haytaian, the then Speaker of the Assembly who was the driving force behind New Jersey bill, hoped the required teaching of the content would help curb hate speech and crimes, a particular concern in New Jersey which he stated had the highest number of skinheads in the U.S. at the time (Prince, 1994). Perhaps because of his own background as a child of Armenian genocide survivors, Haytaian pushed for his bill to include other genocides, rather than focusing solely on the Holocaust. This push was unusual for the time as Holocaust education was gaining prominence, but not genocide education. Many other states recommended the inclusion of the Holocaust in schools but did not force the subject on their teachers. Ironically, this push by states to include the Holocaust in schools saw criticism from early Holocaust education proponents who worried that the rush to incorporate it into schools would be detrimental—principally because teachers unfamiliar with pedagogy would be forced to cover the topic in possibly detrimental or even fallacious ways (Fallace, 2008; Friedlander, 1979). The need for professional development for teachers of the Holocaust is one of the few ideas concerning the Holocaust that is agreed upon almost universally.

The early 1990s saw two events that further sparked public interest in the Holocaust. In 1993 both *Schindler's List* and the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum (USHMM) opened. Since Holocaust education had spread throughout the country by the early 1990s, the

USHMM did not distribute an official curriculum but rather relied on scholars William Parsons and Samuel Totten to create guidelines to help teachers choose materials or critically examine existing materials (Fallace, 2008). Steven Spielberg, on the other hand, used his film as a push for Holocaust education by screening the film for high school students for free and asked *Facing History and Ourselves,* a non-profit educational organization, to create a study guide to accompany the film. After its run in theaters concluded, Spielberg sent copies of the movie to every high school across the country. In a 1995 interview with Samuel Totten and Stephen Feinberg, Spielberg stated that his "primary purpose in making *Schindler's List* was education" (cited in Fallace, 2008, p. 116). Spielberg hoped that teaching the Holocaust would create further discussions of tolerance, with the goal of stopping future mass atrocities.

As the Holocaust gained popularity in schools, educational researchers began to examine how and why the Holocaust was being taught. Indeed, perhaps because of the unique way in which the Holocaust came to be included in the curriculum, it is often considered and taught as a separate topic from other genocides. Though the Holocaust is by definition a genocide, it has earned a separate status as the embodiment of the term and overshadows other mass atrocities that have occurred, many of them since the 1940s after the promise to "never again" let such events take place.

Overall, findings from research are diverse and indicate that mandated Holocaust education in different areas does not point toward the same goals. Many factors need to be considered when teaching the Holocaust, and what students take away may vary according to location, personal views, and the teacher. The most influential factor on what students learn is what Ellison referred to as the teacher's "Holocaust profile" (cited in Fallace, 2008), which Fallace (2008) defined as a teacher's "specific training, interest, and background" (p. 140).

Many teachers who cover the Holocaust—but lack that Holocaust profile—tend to rely heavily on a few resources such as the USHMM, *Facing History and Ourselves*, and Elie Wiesel's autobiography *Night*, *The Diary of Anne Frank*, and *Schindler's List*. However, teachers with a Holocaust profile who are invested in the topic will seek out additional resources, attend workshops, and prepare more comprehensive, detailed lessons. They may also be likely to include primary source materials and survivor testimonies into their lesson planning. However, as Fallace (2008) discussed, just because a teacher has a "Holocaust profile" does not mean he or she is able to incorporate everything they know or can due to time constraints, other mandated content, and funding constraints (Fallace, 2008). Indeed, teachers everywhere face the same hindrances, which may prevent them from teaching any important content in an ideal way.

With the developmental trajectory that saw the Holocaust as a teachable event move from obscurity to a mandated topic taught in public schools, it is easy to discern why the Holocaust is the most frequently taught genocide. While Fallace (2008) claimed that no atrocity or genocide can simply be substituted for the Holocaust, he also indicated that teaching the Holocaust with "unique reverence" or as requiring its own special understandings is disrespectful to other genocides. Totten (2001) took this argument further and stated that teaching only the Holocaust in schools can actually be harmful to students, who may not realize that other genocides have been committed before and since the Holocaust. Despite Fallace's (2008) "non-substitution" statement, many other mass atrocities could raise similar moral and cognitive issues for students. This is not to discount the Holocaust or its importance in history, but to expand student knowledge of human rights violations and show that even with an awareness of the Holocaust, similar events continue to occur around the world.

The Holocaust Uniqueness Factor: A Curricular Debate

Debate over how to teach the Holocaust appropriately has existed since the topic began to appear on public school syllabi—which is compounded by the growing plethora of resources designed to aid educators in teaching this subject. In addition to the attention given to Holocaust pedagogy, debate has long existed over the "uniqueness" of the Holocaust. There are some, such as Elie Wiesel, who argue that the experience of the Jews during the Holocaust was unique and to include the study of other victims of other genocides within the framework of the Holocaust is "stealing the Holocaust from us" (cited in Fallace, 2008, p. 75). Those with views similar to Wiesel, often referred to as particularists, argue that the Holocaust was an unprecedented event requiring its own special focus and set of rules; as such they recoil against the idea of comparing the Holocaust to other 20th century genocides (Fallace, 2008).

Fallace (2008) described three different aspects of the "uniqueness" factor: the metaphysical, historical, and definitional. The metaphysical argument "often renders the Holocaust as a mystical event that must be approached with reverence" (Fallace, 2008, p. 75). Particularists find fault in any fictionalized portrayal of the Holocaust, whether in print or on film, and consider any portrayal as an insult to victims. Particularists also rail at comparing the Holocaust to other genocides; for them, it is a separate event in the context of the Jewish narrative that does not have an equal in the history of genocide. Moreover, particularists assert that the Holocaust can never be completely understood by those who did not experience it. It is, as Mintz stated, a "radical rupture of human history that goes well beyond notions of uniqueness…[into] a dimension of tragedy beyond comparisons and analogies…[and that] any cultural refractions of the Holocaust are often antithetical to its memory" (cited in Fallace, 2008, p. 75). Particularists like Wiesel state that the facts of the Holocaust may be taught, but not the

how or why—at least with any authority; in other words, teachers can teach about the Holocaust but they cannot explain it (Fallace, 2008).

The "historical uniqueness" argument suggests that as an unprecedented historical event, the Holocaust can and should be taught, but cannot be compared to other mass atrocities for several reasons. First, the "Final Solution" was implemented to exterminate every person of Jewish ancestry—man, woman, or child. Second, there was no economic or political justification for the genocide; indeed, one could argue that the loss of the Jewish intelligentsia ultimately undermined the German economy. And third, the Germans who carried out the mass murder were by and large average citizens. In fact, Fackenheim stated that the uniqueness argument often centers on the perpetrators because of the "scholastically precise definition of the victims [the Jews], the judicial procedures procuring their [German] rightness, the technical apparatus for human annihilation, and 'most importantly, a veritable army of murderers'" (cited by Fallace, 2008, p. 77).

Finally, the definitional aspect of uniqueness focuses on the meaning of the term Holocaust and whether it refers to only the Jewish experience, or the experience of Jewish and non-Jewish victims. For strong particularists like Wiesel, the term refers to only Jewish victims. Similarly, historians such as Lucy Dawidowicz also distinguish the Jewish experience from that of other victims, citing the high proportion of the Jewish population lost and the destruction of the Jews as a specific goal to which the Nazis dedicated themselves (Fallace, 2008). Those who prefer a more inclusive definition of the term seeks to include the Roma-Sinti, Jehovah's Witnesses, Communists, homosexuals, and others who were persecuted by the Nazis—all equally at risk at the time and all marginalized by the particularists.

The debate over these uniqueness factors emerged as various factions argued over the appropriate way to present the Holocaust to students. According to Fallace (2008), almost all Holocaust curricula in the U.S. tend to violate one or both of the two common "uniqueness factors": including other victim groups under the term, or using fictionalized accounts to help students to grasp the material. Pedagogically speaking, there may be sound reasons for incorporating this information or employing these teaching strategies to obtain the educational goal of teaching students about the Holocaust. However, the role of educator and the desire to teach students meaningfully about this event does not necessarily protect school curricula from criticisms by factions who feel that one or more aspects of Holocaust uniqueness has been breached. While it is probably not necessary to address Holocaust uniqueness in the classroom, educators should be aware of the arguments and cognizant of how their curriculum fits into the debate. For those who teach this difficult topic, it is best to consider all aspects of the curriculum and activities, as well as how the chosen classroom approach follows or deviates from the major arguments in the field.

Holocaust Pedagogy: Arguments and Debates

With a conscious push to incorporate the Holocaust into schools and the curricular debate over Holocaust uniqueness, multiple arguments have risen around the Holocaust and appropriate pedagogical methods for teaching the topic. The foundation for Holocaust methodology is tied to Friedlander (1979), who sought to explain why, how, and to whom the Holocaust should be taught. However, Friedlander (1979) does not focus on pedagogical methods, but instead offers general suggestions on how to teach the material, such as avoiding crass films or limiting discussion by treating the Holocaust as unassailable sacred history. Friedlander does praise the movements in the 1970s that first raised the teaching of the Holocaust as important (even

essential) and worked for its inclusion in schools. He argues that the Holocaust should be taught in secondary schools and universities in order to force us "to reexamine our traditional interpretation of modern history and present-day society" (Friedlander, 1979, p. 520). However, within his discussion of why, how, and to whom the Holocaust should be taught, Friedlander brings up many of the questions that contemporary scholars still discuss. For example, Friedlander (1979) emphasized the danger of unprepared teachers taking on such a difficult topic: "It is not enough for well-meaning teachers to feel a commitment to teach about genocide, they must also know the subject" (p. 520-521). This call for professional development opportunities to prepare teachers to cover the Holocaust remains relevant today (Betten et al., 2000; Wolpow et al., 2002).

In contrast to the particularists, Friendlander (1979) challenged the Holocaust uniqueness factor or the notion that the Holocaust is sacred history. In fact, he felt that restricting its analysis or limiting comparing it to genocides before or since prevent the lessons of the Holocaust from being conveyed to subsequent generations. Friedlander (1979) argued that such comparisons are necessary if we are to truly understand the lessons of the Holocaust and be able to apply them more broadly:

> In intent and performance Nazi genocide was not unique…For the first time a modern industrial state implemented a calculated policy of extermination. Of course, no single historical event duplicates the Nazi deed, but many share different aspects of the process that led to the death camps. (p. 531)

In this argument for a comparative study of genocide, Friedlander (1979) linked the Holocaust to Turkish actions against the Armenians, the treatment of the Native Americans at the hands of the U.S. government, as well as the treatment of Japanese and Japanese-Americans in the U.S.

during WWII. To play devil's advocate, however, the examples he chose highlight issues involving denial and labeling. To this day, Turkey denies it committed genocide against the Armenians and aggressively pushes to avoid having those atrocities labeled as such. The actions against the Native Americans by the U.S. are rarely labeled genocide (at least for most), and Japanese or Japanese-Americans did not face extermination in the United States during World War II. However, according to the UN definition of genocide provided earlier in this chapter, the actions against the Native Americans do constitute genocide, and internment camps were similar to concentration camps. Though the U.S. is not an aggressive denier of the actions it has taken against minority groups, by linking those examples to the Turkish example, Friedlander (1979) pointed out how governments tend to avoid the language of genocide.

In his description of how the Holocaust should be taught, Friedlander (1979) focused on five topics that should create the foundation for study: "the German historical setting that produced Hitler and the Nazi movement" (p. 534), totalitarianism, Jewish history, bystanders, and the concentration camps. In teaching these topics, he suggests that literature, film, and art could be used to cover the material—another position with which particularists would vehemently disagree.

It must be stressed that when Friedlander was writing in 1979, the push for Holocaust education was just beginning. Friedlander (1979) challenged the Holocaust uniqueness perspective and laid out basic suggestions for teaching the material and what it could accomplish. As the movement grew, multiple perspectives emerged and turned into debates over appropriate pedagogy, which were largely spurred on by the uniqueness perspective. Most of the points raised by Friedlander (1979) are still relevant today, such as the importance of comparative studies or professional development for teachers, while one or two topics were not

yet conceived. For example, Friedlander did not address the concept of age-appropriate

curricula, but as the teaching of the Holocaust grew, some began to advocate teaching the

Holocaust to elementary-aged children as a way to inculcate the value of tolerance (Sepinwall,

1999). Shawn (2001) pointed out a 1999 resource that offered suggestions for Holocaust

literature appropriate for children as young as kindergarten age. Unlike Sepinwall, Shawn

(2001) did question the wisdom of teaching the Holocaust to children of five-to-ten years, which

has since been echoed by other researchers. Totten (2002) explicitly stated that the Holocaust

should not be taught to children in grades K-4 as it is complex, horrific, overwhelming, and

potentially damaging to young children. Lindquist (2006, 2010) made a similar case, pointing

out that the USHMM suggests that only students in grades 7 and above had the ability to handle

the complexities of the material.

While Friedlander (1979) clearly stated that his focus was not on recommending specific

pedagogical techniques, he did discuss the potential for the trivialization, sensationalism, and

exploitation of the material due to the rapid popularization of the Holocaust and subsequent push

to include the content in schools, a sentiment echoed by Shawn (1995). As noted earlier,

particularists believe any portrayal of the Holocaust through literature or on film trivializes the

event, and Friedlander (1979) did provide examples of crass and insensitive films, which to some

extent supports that viewpoint. Recall also that simulation is frowned upon by particularists.

One of the earlier classroom activities centered on the Holocaust was a simulation game entitled

"Gestapo: A learning experience about the Holocaust" (Fallace, 2008), which was created by

Rabbi Raymond Zwerin and Audrey Freidman Marcus, a teacher in a religious school, in the

early 1970s when the Jewish community was pushing for more significant educational materials

for Jewish schools. The simulation covered the years 1933-1945 chronologically, and students

received value markers (with categories such as house, life, family, and religion) that they risked at each turn. In the decades since, multiple other simulations have been created to teach the Holocaust, many detailed by Totten (2002). Totten (2002) and Shawn (1995) criticized the use of simulations in classrooms, stating that they simplify the history, convey skewed information, and cannot "begin to approximate or simulate the horror that the victims suffered at the hands of the Nazis" (Totten, 2002, p. 119). Most damaging, however, is that students often believe that to some extent they have experienced what victims of the Holocaust experienced (Totten, 2002). In this light, simulations fall under the category of trivialization that Friedlander mentioned. There are, however, contemporary scholars who support the use of simulations in the classroom. Schweber (2003), while critiquing some aspects of a yearlong Holocaust simulation conducted in an elective World War II class, generally indicated that when conducted appropriately, simulations can be used to provide students with a powerful understanding of the events of the Holocaust. Totten (2002) and Shawn (1995) would certainly disagree, as did Ben-Peretz (2003) who wrote an immediate rebuttal to Schweber's (2003) article in which she highlighted the flaws in the simulation and raised questions about its appropriateness, many of which are in line with the concerns raised by Totten (2002). While it is understandable that teachers may want to help students make connections to the material and provide interesting and thought-provoking learning experiences, in this instance the complexities and horror of the topic usually means that students will gain only a superficial understanding of what occurred.

Outside pressures that influence Holocaust curricula. The push from particularists to focus solely on the Jewish perspective and to avoid comparative studies is both an example of outside influences and pressures on Holocaust curricula, as well as a reminder of the political climate surrounding the teaching of the topic. The result of such pressure is unwanted tension

between the educational community and larger society. For example, some teachers who are concerned about backlash from the community will alter their lessons to avoid potentially controversial topics such as anti-Semitism, as described by Schweber (2006a). The most obvious outside pressure educators may have to deal with is from Holocaust deniers. Totten (2002) bluntly stated that the issue of denial has no place in the classroom during a Holocaust lesson and suggests avoiding it because it is "ludicrous" to focus on "foolish and totally fallacious assertions" and it is "quite literally, a waste of time" (p. 20). Besides, from a practical standpoint, devoting any time to the deniers takes away from already limited time spent on other, more important and relevant, topics. Totten (2002) concluded that "in short, we should guard against…providing the very publicity they [the deniers] seek" (p. 21). In contrast, Lindquist (2010) argued that denial does need to be addressed in the classroom because failing to do so could leave students open to denier arguments. However, like Totten (2002), Lindquist recognized the problems that can arise when discussing denial in the classroom, because those arguments could be given credibility since they are discussed in a formal academic setting. Denial remains a difficult topic to address, and Lindquist (2010) advised teachers to be prepared to address the issue and realize it could enter the classroom, and determine a plan for responding to the situation.

Pressures can also come from groups seeking inclusion or exclusion, as evidenced in New Jersey in 1994 when the state mandated the teaching of the Holocaust and genocide in its public schools, and in Toronto in 2008 when the school system introduced a unit on genocide. New Jersey chose to label Armenia as genocide, drawing protests from the Turkish community (Prince, 1994). Toronto was the target of similar protests when they also chose to include Armenia as genocide in a new 11th grade curriculum; added criticism came from the League of

Ukrainian Canadians who complained that no mention was made of the government-structured mass starvation of peasants in the Ukraine in 1932 (Kuburas, 2008). Turkish denial is seen in many forms, whether it is against a school curriculum as in Toronto, or directed against an entire country for recognition of actions against Armenians as genocide. In 2012, France passed a law making the denial of the Armenian genocide a punishable crime (Sayare & Arsu, 2012); in response, Turkey threatened permanent sanctions and suspended military cooperation with France. While both the Holocaust and Armenian genocides must contend with denial (and in that regard find common ground), the Holocaust deniers are typically ordinary people, while Armenians face denial from a legitimate government. As far as inclusion is concerned, the Holocaust is universally acknowledge to be a genocide, while other examples of mass atrocities may or may not have earned "genocide status" in the eyes of historians and others.

The local community can also represent a source of pressure. Lindquist (2010) provided multiple examples of community pressure on schools and teachers who cover the Holocaust, including protests from the Arab-American Relations Committee in New York City who argued against including the Holocaust in the public school curriculum, claiming it was "part of a Zionist plot to control the school system" (p. 80). A German-American group argued that Holocaust education was designed to create anti-German bias amongst students, while others stated that the material was not relevant to the student body since there were no Jewish students enrolled in the school (Lindquist, 2010). Similar to his advice on Holocaust denial, Lindquist recommended that teachers familiarize themselves with the political atmosphere of the community in which their school is located when planning and teaching the Holocaust. Although teachers may wish to convey the history or experiences of victims of the Holocaust (or other genocides, as seen in New Jersey and Toronto), the fact that the Holocaust remains

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contentious may complicate that goal when various political factions begin to exert their influence over schools and the curriculum. As Lindquist (2010) suggested, it is up to the teacher to gauge the political climate of the community and to prepare responses to uncomfortable situations that may arise.

Perspectives and the End Goal of Teaching the Holocaust

Aside from being aware of the political climate of the local community, teachers often must decide from which perspective to teach the Holocaust, as well as determine the end goal. These decisions, too, can link to the Holocaust uniqueness factor as well as to societal pressures. Lindquist (2010) advised teaching from both the Jewish and non-Jewish perspective in the classroom—especially when there are Jewish students present who may bring a particular perspective about the Holocaust to class. Moreover, teachers must consider how to relate material to all students, and avoid painting Jews as perpetual victims. In cases where there are few or no Jewish students, teachers must also contemplate the likely lack of knowledge their students have about Jewish history, culture, and religion and choose if and how to address that situation (Lindquist, 2010).

Lindquist (2010) cautioned against portraying Jews as perpetual victims, while Blutinger (2009) also suggested teaching the content from a victim-centered perspective, as well as including the other victim groups who were targeted during the Holocaust. Further, Blutinger (2009) discussed how the historical narrative of genocide often revolves around the perpetrators, their biases, policies, and actions. In the case of the Holocaust, teaching from this perspective to some extent reinforces the idea of Jews "going passively to their deaths like sheep to the slaughter" (Blutinger, 2009, p. 269)—a perspective that Lindquist cautioned against. To counter this possibility, Blutinger (2009) suggested adding a victim-centered perspective to help students

better understand all the events surrounding the Holocaust. As noted above, Blutinger also

discussed the importance of including the other victim groups targeted by the Nazis and offers

practical suggestions for memoirs to help show those perspectives—although there are far fewer

memoirs from Roma-Sinti, homosexuals, the disabled, Jehovah's Witnesses, asocials, or political

prisoners than there are from Jewish survivors. Indeed, the abundance of materials produced by

Jewish survivors could help to reinforce the idea that the Holocaust was a strictly Jewish event if

other perspectives are not introduced, as Blutinger (2009) noted. While particularists would

oppose the inclusion of other victim groups, the local community could voice its opinion for

inclusion or exclusion of other victim groups, depending on its political characteristics.

The decision about which perspective to teach could be influenced by the teacher's end

goal for teaching about the Holocaust. The end goal is not necessarily a conflict within

Holocaust pedagogy, but there are multiple reasons for choosing how and why to teach the

Holocaust. Blutinger's (2009) advocacy for using a victim-centered approach, for example,

stems from allowing the dead to have their voices heard. Friedlander (1979) argued it could be

used to teach civic virtue. Totten, Feinberg, and Fernenekes (2002) listed multiple end goals,

such as "to study human behavior," "to explore concepts such as prejudice, discrimination,

stereotyping, racism, anti-Semitism, obedience to authority, the bystander syndrome, loyalty,

conflict, conflict resolution, decision making, and justice," "to examine the nature, structure, and

purpose of governments," and "to develop in students an awareness of the value of pluralism and

diversity in a pluralistic society" (p. 5). Alsip (2002) stated that teaching the Holocaust provides

a tribute, attempts to make what seems unreal real, and reminds us of "what darkness we are

capable of" (p. 100). Donnelly (2006) discussed a study commissioned by the USHMM from

2003-2004 that indicated that 88% of respondents taught the Holocaust from a human rights

perspective. Schweber (2006a) compared two teachers who covered the Holocaust—one in a public high school and one in a Christian private school—and reported two very different treatments. The teacher in the public high school worked to help his students understand a multicultural universalism perspective, while the teacher in the private school sought to help students develop strong Christian identities.

Whatever the end goal may be, Totten, Feinberg, and Fernekes (2002) argued that it is essential for an educator to develop a solid rationale statement(s) prior to teaching about the Holocaust. Rationale statements help develop the purpose of the unit or lesson, guide the goals and objectives, and aid in selecting content, pedagogical strategies, and resources (Totten et al., 2002). Sound rationale statements can help educators avoid the common pitfalls and misconceptions that are often found in Holocaust lessons. In addition, if educators have developed solid rationale statements around which to base the development of their lesson, it could help curtail pushback from the community. Though the rationale statements may not change the opinions of the community, the educator would be able to present the reasoning behind the objectives, content, and materials incorporated into the classroom, creating a solid foundation for their choices in planning for and teaching the Holocaust.

Common Pedagogical Errors

With all of the considerations that must be taken into account when teaching the Holocaust, and with its rapid rise in popularity and quick incorporation into classrooms that Friedlander (1979) warned against, there are multiple common errors that are often found within teaching materials—even those created and distributed by state departments of education. Riley and Totten (2002) examined state-sponsored Holocaust curricula from Connecticut, California, Virginia, and Florida. The authors reported that textbooks and curriculum often cater to

particular groups, are written from particular perspectives, or work to accomplish certain goals.

Unfortunately, while teachers may view curricula developed by the state boards as reliable, this

may not always be the case. In their 2002 study, Riley and Totten examined the curricula from

the viewpoint of historical empathy, historical thinking, and whether or not content aligned with

recommendations made by the USHMM. They found multiple errors related to historical

inaccuracy, lack of context, oversimplification, lack of depth/historical thinking skills, confusing

chronologies and contradictory statements regarding the definition of the Holocaust and

genocide (Riley & Totten, 2002).

In a follow-up study, Totten and Riley (2005) broadened their examination of state-

sponsored curricula to include nine states and two teachers' guides, focusing on New York, New

Jersey, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Ohio, Pennsylvania,

California, and Connecticut. In this case, the authors examined the curricula from a framework

of authentic pedagogy, or "the tasks that require use of the tools of the discipline (history) for

teaching, learning, and assessment" (Totten & Riley, 2005, p. 124). As in the 2002 study,

multiple errors were found in the materials including "questionable, if not pointless, learning

activities," such as simulations, word finds, and construction of model concentration camps,

oversimplification, and low level questioning strategies which did not encourage the use of

historical thinking skills (Totten & Riley, 2005, p. 127).

Lindquist (2006) addressed the issue of pedagogical errors more broadly, along with

practical advice for how to avoid them. Lindquist (2006) focused strictly on pedagogical errors

and did not explore historical inaccuracies or issues related to historical thinking, as did Totten

and Riley (2005). For example, he recommended connecting personal stories to the material—

rather than teaching the Holocaust through an often incomprehensible figure of six million

victims—and to rely on sources beyond *The Diary of Anne Frank* to help students see the larger picture (Lindquist, 2006). Many of these suggestions are supported by or similar to those presented by Totten (2001, 2002).

The wealth of materials produced about the Holocaust can pose a formidable problem for educators. With so many resources from which to choose, many of which contain one or more of the common errors described by Totten and Riley (2005) and Lindquist (2006), the need for professional development opportunities for educators to learn not only historical content, but also how to critically examine classroom materials, is clear. Without adequate training and education, it seems a nearly-impossible task for teachers to be aware of the debates and problems discussed by scholars so that they are better prepared to cover the content accurately, sensitively, and appropriately—not to mention addressing any potential backlash or influence from outside factors. As Shawn (1995) pointed out, state mandates require students to learn about the Holocaust, but not teachers, leading to teachers being unprepared to "implement state mandates with professional integrity" (p. 16).

Conclusion

This literature review traces the evolution of several areas of scholarship related to the educational function of museums, meaningful professional development opportunities for teachers, and the history of Holocaust education within U.S. public schools. As museums have expanded their educational aspirations, they have developed entirely new positions devoted to education, such as that of the museum educator. Much like public schools, museums have also had to adjust their offerings to not only serve more diverse audiences, but also to remain relevant in a time of standards-driven testing. Changes are also visible in the styles of professional development opportunities designed for educators. While traditional models of professional

development rendered teachers as passive audiences and frequently introduced pre-packaged

curricula that removed autonomy from educators, newer models seek to include teachers as

active participants, make relevant connections to the curriculum, and prepare teachers with

content and pedagogical knowledge so they are aware of best practices for transferring

information to their students. Finally, the discussion of the rise of Holocaust education in the

United States provides an account of the changes in pedagogical practices related to the topic, as

well as the curricular debates that still exist about best practices for teaching the Holocaust. This

section also detailed the benefits found from two professional development workshops devoted

to Holocaust education as a means of combatting those debates and teaching the topic in an

appropriate manner.

   While the literature concerning museums provides a thorough history of the development

of museums as educational institutions—as well as the creation of the position and the challenges

of museum educators—few studies have examined the perspective of the museum educator,

particularly concerning their responsibilities as they relate to working with teachers.   Similarly,

the literature related to MIPD is limited and frequently examines the workshops from the

perspectives of teacher participants, rather than the museum staff who planned and presented the

professional development opportunity. While such studies offer insights into how the MIPD

may be useful for teachers, they does not address whether the workshop achieved the goals

determined by the museum, workshop implementation, or the roles fulfilled by museum staff

during a PD opportunity. Within the realm of Holocaust education literature, the curricular

debates, potential problems, and suggested methods for teaching the topic are clearly presented.

The lack of teacher preparation to cover the content is also evident, and while a limited number

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of studies do tout the benefits of workshops devoted to teaching the Holocaust, no consensus exists for the most effective method to alleviate this issue.

With over thirty states mandating the coverage of the Holocaust within the state curricula, many educators are required to teach the content. However, since training for covering difficult content is often not provided (Shawn, 1995), and even state-sponsored curricular materials may contain inaccurate information or inappropriate strategies (Totten & Riley, 2005), it is essential to consider how educators should be prepared to teach mandated material. Professional development workshops are the most likely option. However, to influence classroom practice, such workshops should be designed with the audience in mind, allow for active learning, and relate to the real world classroom context. A potential solution may be to partner with museums in the creation of such professional development opportunities, which would not only allow museum professionals to share their expertise with teachers, but could introduce teachers to the museum as an educational resource that may be helpful long after the workshop has concluded.

While the Holocaust education workshops discussed by Betten et al. (2000) and Wolpow et al. (2002) were considered to be successful by participants and workshop directors, a partnership with museums may also be useful in conducting similar workshops on the Holocaust or genocide, particularly since many MIPD opportunities were favorably received by participants (Aivazian, 1998; Grenier, 2010; Hodgson, 1986; Kuster, 2008; Marcus et al., 2012; Melber & Cox-Petersen, 2005; Melber, 2007; Pickering et al., 2012; Waite & Leavell, 2006; Yu & Yang, 2010). Professional development opportunities that incorporate museum resources have the added benefit of not only preparing teachers for more effective field trips, but also introducing teachers to learning strategies that can be implemented in the classroom to aid in transferring content to students.

MIPD frequently make use of multiple characteristics that are needed for a professional development opportunity to be deemed useful and applicable for teachers, such as a focus on pedagogy and content and time for collaboration between participants. Since these characteristics often translate into increased confidence on the part of participants when teaching the material covered during the professional development, and with the concerns over ill-prepared teachers covering the Holocaust due to state mandates, MIPD could be a solution to preparing educators to teach the Holocaust. The potential for MIPD to alleviate that disconnect between museums and schools, in addition to preparing teachers to cover difficult content that is mandated by the state, often without support, merits further exploration.

The following chapter provides the framework for conducting this study, including the conceptual frameworks guiding the study, the research process used to gather data, and a discussion of participant selection, data collection, and data analysis. I also address concerns about research ethics and validity.

CHAPTER 3.

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this qualitative study was to examine a Holocaust education professional development opportunity (the Holocaust Education Workshop or HEW) from the perspective of museum staff who planned and presented the workshop. Specifically, I wanted to know how staff members understood the Holocaust and Holocaust education, and the roles they played in implementing the workshop. Though Grenier (2010) found MIPD to be well received by participants, given the lack of communication frequently mentioned between museums and teachers (Anderson & Zhang, 2003; Cox-Petersen & Pfaffinger, 1998; Marcus et al., 2012; Nespor, 2000; Noel & Colopy, 2012; Tal & Steiner, 2010; Wright-Maley, Grenier, & Marcus, 2013), I was curious how museum staff created and implemented the workshop. This study was motivated by limited research on the role of museum educators in planning and presenting professional development opportunities. The following question guided my research study:

1. How does museum staff members' understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust education shape their role in implementing a MIPD workshop for teachers?

Conceptual Framework

Miles and Huberman (1994) described the phrase "conceptual framework" as a tool to explain the "key factors, constructs, or variables-and the presumed relationship between them" to be studied (p. 18). In order to focus my study to answer the research question, I chose two overarching conceptual frameworks to guide the research, and two supplemental frameworks to examine the specific environment of HEW.

Social Constructivism

      Social constructivism and adult learning theory were used in conjunction to guide the overall study. Social constructivism describes learning as a social activity, in which cultural activities and tools are crucial for learner concept development (Palincsar, 1998). Within this theory, social and individual processes are interdependent and responsible for the co-construction of knowledge. Thought, learning, and knowledge are influenced by social and cultural factors, and cognition is a collaborative process (Palincsar, 1998). Voss and Wiley (1995) described this process as a sociocultural revolution, and asserted that much learning takes place outside the classroom. Such learning often occurs because individuals need to gain particular skills due to sociocultural influences. Since learning in these situations is characterized by social and cultural contexts, which are constantly in flux, there can be "no universal scheme that adequately represents the dynamic interaction between the internal and external aspects of development" (Palincsar, 1998, p. 354). Therefore, it was necessary to examine both individuals and their environment in order to understand the learning and development taking place within a specific context in order to understand how individuals are constructing their knowledge. Reliance on one of the four models of developmental analysis from a Vygotskian perspective, microgenetic analysis, focused the study on this interaction between individuals and the environment, taking "into account the interplay of individual, interpersonal, and social/cultural factors simultaneously" (Palincsar, 1998, p. 354). Therefore, social constructivism was appropriate for this study, as museum educators interviewed herein planned a workshop focusing on particular skills that are influenced by social and cultural contexts—in this instance state board of education mandates, as well as accurate historical content and pedagogically-sound strategies for teaching a difficult topic. The learning that took place also occurred in a museum devoted to the

Holocaust, and was potentially influenced by the mission and goals of the museum, therefore making the environment in this instance a relevant factor for examination.

Adult Learning Theory

While social constructivism describes learning as a social activity, adult learning theory finds that adult learners engage with information best when they have social opportunities to interact with other learners (Greenhalgh, 2000). Additionally, adult learners are often motivated by their needs and interests, and learning is often life-centered, meaning that learning is relevant and applicable to life situations (Knowles, 1990). This idea aligns with Voss and Wiley's (1995) assertion that individuals learn in order to gain specific skills due to socio-cultural influences, and O'Toole and Essex's (2012) claim that adults seek out learning that is relevant for them at a particular time.

Combining adult learning theory with social constructivism allowed a specific focus on how social interaction is used when teaching adult learners. It is known that adults learn differently than children (O'Toole & Essex, 2012), and appropriate methods for teaching adults should be taken into consideration when planning and conducting instruction. Knowles (1990) developed the andragogy model, which focuses on learner-centered instruction for adults and seeks to help those planning instruction for adults. Six assumptions about adult learners are included in the andragogy model. First, adults "need to know why they need to learn something before undertaking to learn it" (Knowles, 1990, p. 57). In this instance, participants should understand why it is necessary to learn adequate content and strategies for teaching the Holocaust, both of which are related to social and cultural influences of the state mandate and sensitive nature of the topic.

Second, adults are also capable of self-direction, and this ability should be used in learning situations, rather than having adults act as passive recipients of information. This directly connects to social constructivism and the need for adults to interact with each other in learning situations for maximum effectiveness. Third, just as adults are able to self-direct, they also bring their experiences to learning situations, which has positive and negative effects. Adults draw on specific experiences that may help them to process and understand new information, which is a benefit; in contrast, such experiences may also lead adult learners to have developed biases, habits, or presuppositions that make it difficult to accept new perspectives, ideas, or ways of thinking (Kowles, 1990). This phenomenon had the potential to factor into this study, as participants may have possessed pre-developed ideas about how to teach the Holocaust, what information or perspective is important to share, and what strategies should be used to teach the Holocaust. Resistance was possible as museum staff introduced new methods or content that may have conflicted with participant experiences and prior knowledge.

Fourth, adults frequently are ready to learn information that they deem necessary and applicable to their life situations. What adults consider necessary information, then, is determined by their social and cultural contexts. Closely related to readiness to learn is the fifth assumption, which is orientation to learning—meaning that adults are life-centered learners rather than subject-centered learners, and want their learning to be beneficial to specific tasks or problems they frequently face. HEW (the Holocaust Education Workshop) may relate directly to participants daily life in the classroom, and the material and resources introduced were potentially beneficial and applicable to their real-life situations. Applicability to real-life situations has the added advantage of helping adults learn more effectively since they can see how the learning is beneficial (Knowles, 1990).

The sixth and final assumption under the andragogy model is motivation. Adult learners

do succumb to external motivators for learning, which could include factors such as job

requirements. This external factor in particular was applicable to HEW teacher participants, as

educators must renew their teaching license every five years, and participation in the HEW offers

a means of accumulating points toward recertification. External factors could also be related to

social and cultural contexts of teaching in general, or a school environment in particular.

Internal factors such as seeking to improve their job performance also motivate adult learners.

Internal factors may also have influenced teacher participants, as some may desire to better their

knowledge of the Holocaust, or learn the most appropriate methods and resources for sharing

information with their students.

Several of these assumptions about adult learners align with social constructivism and

should be taken into consideration when examining how a professional development opportunity

is planned for teacher participants. HEW did allow for limited collaboration and interaction

between participants, providing some social aspects to the learning opportunities. In addition,

the participants chose to take part in the institute, and therefore Knowles' assumptions of the

andragogy model must be considered as well, as participants may have had various reasons for

enrolling in the workshop, which may have influenced their interactions with other participants

and the ways in which the group constructed its experience.

Museum-Initiated Professional Development

Under the umbrella of social constructivism and adult learning theory, I added museum-

initiated professional development and pedagogical content knowing as specific lenses to

examine the institute. As noted earlier, MIPD is a specific form of professional development

designed by museums to enhance professional development and fulfill the specific learning goals

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for participants (Grenier, 2010). The literature indicates that professional development opportunities organized by museums are generally well received by teacher participants (Grenier, 2010; Hodgson, 1986; Melber, 2007; Pickering et al., 2012). Grenier (2010) specifically examines a summer institute, which allowed participants to be "actively involved in constructing the museum experience in cooperation with colleagues and peers, often over several days" (p. 502). The HEW offered participants a similar experience over the course of five days.

While there is a general consensus as to the characteristics that make professional development effective and useful for teachers (Crocco & Livingston, in press), MIPD offers the added benefit of museum resources; unique, often hands-on, experiences; and the opportunity to create stronger relationships between museums and teachers (Grenier, 2010). MIPD as a lens then allowed me to focus on the design of the workshop from the museum educator perspective, which is often overlooked in the literature.

Pedagogical Content Knowing

One of the factors mentioned by participants in Grenier's (2010) study as helpful and transferrable to the classroom was the workshop focus on both background content knowledge and pedagogical strategies. The combination of content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge into pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) was introduced by Shulman (1986), who defined PCK as that which "goes beyond knowledge of subject matter per se to the dimension of subject matter knowledge *for teaching*" (p. 9, emphasis in original).

PCK specifically relates to particular topics within disciplines (Van Driel & Berry, 2012)—in this instance represented by the Holocaust within history or English classes. Van Driel and Berry (2012) described the complex nature of PCK "as a form of teachers' professional development that is highly topic, person, and situation specific" (p. 26). Therefore they

recommended that professional development opportunities seeking to improve teacher's PCK should contain certain factors, such as allowing teachers to practice strategies, and to reflect both individually and collectively on their experiences (Van Driel & Berry, 2012). The individual and collaborative reflections relate back to the overall framework of social constructivism and learning through social interactions, as well as adult learning theory that suggests that adults need these interactions to learn most effectively.

PCK in particular was also appropriate as a lens through which to examine this study, as a goal of the HEW was to help teachers improve their Holocaust content knowledge, as well as introduce appropriate strategies to teach the material to their students. During the workshop, participants learned (a) why there are appropriate methods to teach the Holocaust, (b) what damage may occur when inappropriate methods are used, and (c) relevant resources and two strategies to convey the content to their students.

According to Van Driel and Berry (2012), PCK is not a linear process, and it extends beyond simply learning content and instructional strategies. Teachers must also gain an understanding of "how students develop insights into specific subject matter" (p. 27). Cochran et al. (1993) also asserted that PCK should be revised to include an emphasis on teachers' understanding of how their students learn, and the influence of the environment and experience on teaching and learning. Cochran et al. (1993) related Shulman's (1987) concept of PCK with a constructivist view of teaching and learning, referring to the concept with an added emphasis on how students learn as pedagogical content knowing (PCKg). Cochran et al. (1993) defined PCKg as "a teacher's integrated understanding of four components of pedagogy, subject matter content, student characteristics, and the environmental context of learning" (p. 266).

Therefore, according to both Cochran et al. (1993) and Van Driel and Berry (2012), teachers not only have to possess an understanding of their subject matter and instructional strategies to teach it, but also an understanding of what makes that subject matter difficult or easy to understand, a knowledge of how their students learn, and methods and strategies to transfer that knowledge appropriately to their students. Within the context of HEW, this was a potential limitation as the workshop focused more on content and limited instructional strategies, without making explicit connections to how students learn or how they may understand the material. Teachers may have gained a greater understanding of the history of the Holocaust and were able to provide more background and context for their students, or they may have learned new strategies for teaching that material—but an understanding of why that new content or which strategies may be appropriate for their students could still be lacking.

The lens of PCKg, when used to examine a MIPD opportunity designed by museum staff, offered insights into how museum educators planned the professional development opportunity, and what they considered to be the most crucial components when educating adult learners on how to teach the Holocaust. PCKg highlighted the pedagogy and subject-matter content aspects of the workshop design, which are important concepts of HEW. It also highlighted the extent to which the workshop was able to relate pedagogy and subject matter to student characteristics and the environment, which are the two additional components of PCKg.

Using social constructivism and adult learning theory—and coupled with MIPD and PCKg—as the frameworks for this study ensured that I remain focused on the environment of the workshop as participants learned together about teaching the Holocaust. These frameworks also helped me to focus on aspects of professional development that are unique to MIPD, how museum educators present this particular form of professional development, and what role each

museum staff member fulfilled in its implementation. These frameworks were expected to help guide this investigation to answer the following research question:

1. How does museum staff members' understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust education shape their role in implementing a MIPD workshop for teachers?

Qualitative Methodology

The "how" focus of the research question called for a qualitative research design, which would facilitate interaction and observation of the HEW as it occurred. Since this study focused on one unit of analysis for in-depth examination—in this instance the HEW as it occurs at a regional Holocaust Museum—the case study method was the most appropriate research design. The HEW as a case was chosen deliberately, as suggested by Saldaña (2011), since it provides a "rich opportunity and exemplar for focused study" (p. 9). Yin (2014) also described case studies as appropriate when there is a focus on contemporary events in a real world context in which the researcher has no control over behavior. Case studies may examine a wide variety of people or activities, including programs, as in this particular design. Yin (2014) cautioned that when cases revolve around programs, it may be difficult to determine the beginning and end of the case. A case study of a program may also unveil "variations in program definition, depending upon the perspective of different actors," as well as "program components that preexisted the formal designation of the program" (Yin, 2014, p. 31).

It was necessary to consider all of these difficulties during the study. In this instance, the HEW had a definite beginning and end time constraint, as the workshop is only offered for five consecutive days during two separate weeks over the summer. Since the workshop-planning phase must be completed prior to these dates, the part of the study focusing on the design process also had a set time constraint. As for program components that preexisted the formal designation

of the program, the museum staff did utilize resources and pedagogical strategies that were created separately from the program within the context of the workshop. Participants may have accessed such resources or strategies prior to attending the program. However, teachers would not have attended the program before or been introduced to these components within the context of the workshop prior to their chosen session. Therefore, while participants may have been familiar with some program components, they would have accessed those under a different context and the use of those components during the workshop may introduce a different framework for participants to consider those factors.

The design of the single research question, the deliberate choosing of the HEW, and the time constraints therefore provided boundaries for this case study and helped to determine the scope of the data collection (Yin, 2014). This particular case study was a single-case embedded design (Yin, 2014). The HEW created the overall single-case context, while the two summer sessions and perspectives of the museum staff created the embedded units of analysis within the overall case.

There are several concerns regarding a case study design. Merriam (2009) cited the enormous amount of data generated as a challenge for analysis; as such, the researcher recommended careful attention to data management and organization as important methods to manage the data. In order to help with this organization, Yin (2014) suggested maintaining a case-study database, which affords two main benefits. It allows for examination of the raw data, free of researcher interpretations to increase reliability of the study, but it also organizes data in a retrievable form to aid in analysis.

Other concerns as outlined by Flyvbjerg (2006) center on the theory, reliability, and validity of case studies. Case studies are often criticized, for example, for producing practical

rather than theoretical knowledge. The practical knowledge is also frequently considered a method for generating hypotheses rather than testing hypotheses, since generalizations cannot be made from a single case. It has also been argued that case studies are subjective, potentially allowing for verification bias of the researcher. Finally, Fljybjerg (2006) noted that case studies are considered difficult to summarize in a research report.

Fljybjerg (2006) addressed each of these concerns in turn, but argued overall that these concerns are misplaced and case studies are a "necessary and sufficient method for certain important research tasks in the social sciences, and it is a method that holds up well when compared to other methods in the gamut of social science methodology" (p. 241). To counter these criticisms, Fljybjerg stated that concrete, context-dependent knowledge is necessary for producing eventual theoretical knowledge. The knowledge produced may be applicable to others in similar situations, which requires detailed protocols allowing readers to understand if a study is relevant for their setting. Other research methods also hold possibilities for researcher bias. Finally, given the format of case studies, narratives rather than summaries are often desirable for sharing results (Fljybjerg, 2006).

With these concerns in mind, I address these issues for my own study—particularly reliability, validity, and subjectivity—in the remainder of the chapter, as well as demonstrate how the case study method was appropriate for the research question. Specifically, I review the context and participants for the case study, and then describe the data-collection methods used during the study to gather the information necessary to answer the research question. I then discuss how the data collected was analyzed. Finally, I discuss my own subjectivities and the educational importance of this case study.

Context and Participants

The context of the study is the Holocaust Educators Workshop (HEW) at a regional Holocaust museum—the only one in the state to focus on the Holocaust. The HEW occurs over five days each summer, with two sessions conducted in July. The workshop has been offered each year since 2006, with approximately 30-35 participants attending each summer session. Therefore, the program has reached between 500 and 540 participants since its inception. The workshop is offered in conjunction with a neighboring university, and participants receive three graduate credit hours in either education or history through the university. Participants do pay a tuition fee, which includes the cost of textbooks and other educational materials. The cost to participants is heavily subsidized by the corporate philanthropy of a local property management group, and the tuition fee is therefore only $150.

The teacher participants for this workshop were self-selected. The museum advertised the professional development opportunity, and teachers choose to apply. There was an admission process, and teachers had to complete an application, pay the tuition fee, submit a personal statement of interest and a letter of recommendation from a supervisor, member of the clergy, or civic leader. In addition, preference was given to educators who planned to teach for at least three years following the workshop. The course was designed to address multiple state education standards, including history, civics, economics, English, art, and music. Therefore, teachers from different disciplines were eligible to apply.

The first session was comprised of 30 teachers, with the majority from the districts located closest to the museum, although there were participants representing the northern and western areas of the state as well. The second session included 32 participants—again with a high concentration from the districts geographically closest to the museum, but with

representatives from the northern, eastern, and western areas of the state. The majority of

teachers taught middle and high school English or history. However, as the workshop is open to

all K-12 teachers, participants did include a secondary math teacher, a secondary science teacher,

a homebound teacher, two special education teachers, one elementary art teacher, one library

media specialist, one technology resource teacher, and two elementary teachers in grades K and

2.

I conducted two interviews with museum education staff to gain a more in-depth

understanding of the process behind designing the workshop. The museum education staff

sample was pre-determined through the positions at the museum and was composed of three

members including Elizabeth, the Director of Education, BB, the Director of Collections, and

Franklin, the Executive Director of the museum.

Data Collection

Yin (2014) pointed out the ability to use multiple sources of evidence as a strength of

case study research. Using multiple sources of evidence not only allows the case study researcher

to address a broader range of issues, but it also offers the opportunity for "converging lines of

inquiry" leading to data triangulation to corroborate and support findings through various means

of evidence (Yin, 2014, p. 120-121). In order to strive for data triangulation and corroboration as

discussed by Yin, I collected data through two main methods: observations and interviews. I also

maintained a researcher journal that contained field notes, observer comments, and analytic

memos, as well as personal reflections on the research process, initial interpretations,

speculations, and overall thoughts on the setting, people, and activities taking place (Merriam,

2009). I selected observations and interviews to due to the nature of the research question, which

was designed to offer insights only into museum staff members' thoughts, as well as to allow for a comparison with what they stated and what took place during the workshop.

Observations

Observing the HEW allowed me to gain a firsthand account of the workshop, rather than relying solely on secondhand accounts of the experience produced through interviews or surveys (Merriam, 2009). Observations also presented the opportunity for informal interviews and conversation (Merriam, 2009) that yielded additional insight into museum staff experiences during the workshop. Observation was a helpful strategy when paired with interviews, as it provided context and reference points (Merriam, 2009) for the interviews I conducted with museum staff at the conclusion of the workshop.

According to Merriam (2009), it is difficult to precisely describe the role of the observer, as that role often shifts during fieldwork. Museum staff members were aware of my presence and purpose during the workshop. Additionally, teacher participants were also aware of my role as an observer, lending to the "observer as participant" role (Merriam, 2009, p. 124), whereby I observed but also interacted with teachers and museum staff. Adler and Adler (1987) referred to this role as the "peripheral member researcher" role, which facilitates a variety of interactions at different levels, while at the same time avoiding interacting as a central member, taking part in core activities, or assuming a functional role. Similarly, Merriam (2009) described participant observation as a "schizophrenic activity in that the researcher usually participates but not to the extent of becoming totally absorbed in the activity" (p. 126). While I did not fully participate in workshop activities, I did interact with teachers as they worked in groups. I also interacted with museum staff throughout each workshop day, which created opportunities for informal interviews and conversations on the progression of the workshop that yielded further data for

analysis. I observed each day of the institute during both sessions, resulting in ten days of observation total for the workshop. I had intended to observe HEW planning sessions that occurred with museum staff prior to the summer sessions, but there was only one planning session and that took place before I received IRB approval. Therefore, I was unable to observe the interactions between museum staff prior to the workshop sessions.

During each day of the institute, I recorded field notes in my researcher journal. I used concrete language (rather than generalizations) when taking field notes in order to record as much detail as possible (Spradley, 1980). Spradley (1980) suggested two kinds of field notes: condensed and expanded. Condensed notes are frequently brief sentences, phrases, or words recorded during an event to quickly document major events and situations while they occur. For the majority of the workshop, which consisted of lectures, I was able to take expanded field notes as the day progressed. On several occasions I recorded condensed field notes, which I used to create expanded accounts of my observations as soon as possible after the observation ended. It was necessary to take condensed notes during group work activities, the museum tour, informal interactions with museum staff and teachers, breaks, as well as during the "survivor dinner."

In order to focus my observations, I used a participant-observation checklist as suggested by Merriam (2009), which targets six areas: the physical setting, the participants, activities and interactions, conversations, subtle behaviors, and researcher behavior. Detailed questions are offered for each of the six areas to aid the researcher in recording useful field notes about an event. Along with observation notes, I recorded my own experiences in my research journal in order to maintain documentation of a multitude of my own reactions, as suggested by Spradley (1980), including ideas, mistakes, confusions, and breakthroughs.

Observation of the workshop as it progressed over the week was helpful in answering the research question. Observation of both summer sessions allowed me to see how the museum education staff implemented their workshop plans, and whether any changes were made between the two summer sessions. Observation also allowed me to compare how teacher participants in each session reacted to workshop content and materials presented by museum staff, and whether teachers were engaged in learning during the workshop.

Interviews

Interviews with three museum staff members took place at two points throughout the case study. The museum staff members who participated in the study were Elizabeth, the Director of Education; Franklin, the Executive Director of the Museum; and BB, the Director of Collections. Interviews were semi-structured in nature, allowing for the researcher to further explore relevant experiences shared during the interview via additional probes that might enhance data collection. According to Seidman (2013), "The root of in-depth interviewing is an interest in understanding the lived experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience" (p. 9). Interviews can help a researcher delve into the meanings people make of their experiences in ways that are more powerful than other methods of data collection. For the purposes of this study, interviews allowed me to explore in-depth the process of designing the HEW from the perspective of the museum education staff, and how their knowledge of the Holocaust and Holocaust education guided that process.

Initial interviews with museum staff occurred prior to the start of the first workshop and focused on the planning process for the institute (see Appendix A). A second interview took place with museum staff at the conclusion of the first workshop to examine their workshop experience and if that experience unfolded as intended during the planning sessions (see

Appendix B). The pre-workshop interviews with museum staff focused on how the workshop was designed, which materials were chosen for the workshop, how the workshop plan was implemented, and finally, how museum staff evaluated the workshop upon conclusion. These questions sought to gain an overall understanding of the planning process for the HEW, how those plans were carried out, and how museum staff determined whether a HEW session was successful or not. The post-workshop interviews with museum staff focused on an overall evaluation based on how the workshop unfolded, as well as any changes they planned to make to the workshop next year.

Both pre- and post-workshop interviews, which were scheduled via email, occurred at the museum at a convenient time for each museum staff member. Interviews ranged from 15 minutes to an hour and 45 minutes in length. Prior to all interviews, the consent form was reviewed with each interviewee, as well as the purpose of the study and the potential uses of the data. Participants were informed they could remove themselves from participation in the study at any time, though no one chose to pursue this option.

All interviews with museum staff were individual semi-structured interviews, with some questions prepared in advance, but allowing the flexibility to pursue topics of interest as they arose during the interview (Wengraf, 2001). Each interview was audio-recorded. I transcribed all interviews verbatim as a means of learning the interview material more thoroughly (Seidman, 2013). Transcriptions were completed with Express Scribe software. During the transcription process, markers of meaning including laughter, pauses, and sighs were noted. Emotions were not noted, as most interviews were conversational in nature, and while participants may have verbally described their excitement or frustration with particular components of the workshop, there were few instances when participants expressed strong emotions. While markers of

meaning were noted, the transcript was "cleaned up of disfluencies" (Kohler Riessman, 1993, p. 31) by removing filler words such as "uh" and "um" in order to make the transcripts more easily readable. All six interviews were transcribed in their entirety. In order to maintain the conversational nature of the interviews, notes were not taken during the interview, but were recorded after the interview concluded and described the setting, participant, and the interview itself. Brief statements concerning items of interest brought up by participants during the interview were also noted after the conclusion. The following text is representative of the post-interview notes I took:

> We sat in the classroom, so it was very open and a large space with high ceilings and wooden beams throughout. I worried about noise and distractions. A couple of times people walked through, and there was some noise off and on… Elizabeth did apologize several times for canceling the first two appointments due to feeling unwell. She has also only been with the museum for two years, this is only her second HEW so some of her answers were limited in what she could share or in what she knew since her experience is limited at the museum. I think she spoke quite well with her experience so far but I may have to address this as a limitation since she hasn't been doing this job very long. (Researcher journal and audit trail, June)

Analytic memos were also written after the interviews and during the transcription process that focused on points of interest discussed by participants. An example follows:

> Elizabeth mentioned a few times during her interview about requirements the museum has to meet for the class to qualify for teachers to receive graduate credit. This was not something I had considered, that the university/museum partnership might create limitations or affect how the workshop is planned and carried out. I'll have to address this and pay more attention to how this relationship might impact things. For example, they have to have so many hours of lecture, and complete a final project. So there is some outside influence on the museum side that I had not previously considered. (Researcher journal and audit trail, June)

Researcher Journal

Finally, my researcher journal acted as a data-collection method, particularly since it included field notes taken during each day of observation. In addition, my experiences and reflections, observer comments, and analytic memos were also included, all of which were used in writing the final research report. As the researcher, I attended each day of both HEW workshops in July. This schedule allowed me to observe the workshop from beginning to end of the workshop, and offered insights into the progression of the workshop during the week, as well as any changes that occurred between the two sessions. It also allowed me to observe the full range of information, resources, and activities presented by the museum educators to the participants, offering evidence of the museum educators perspective in designing and conducting the institute.

The two principal methods of data collection, augmented by journaling, allowed me to collect rich descriptions of participant experiences in the workshop, and helped triangulate my data by providing a means of comparison between interview information and museum staff behavior during the workshop. This comparison acts as an aid in corroborating evidence to strengthen study findings.

<center>**Data Analysis**</center>

Data for this study was analyzed using the First and Second Cycle coding method, as suggested by Saldaña (2013). Data was personally coded, rather than relying on electronic methods of coding data to ensure that the "nuanced and complex work of data analysis" was maintained (Gallagher, 2007). Additionally, since data was collected through multiple methods and the number of participants was limited, manual coding was appropriate for the varied sources of data in this small-scale study. Episode profiles (Maietta & Mihas, 2014) were also

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created for each participant as a means of examining salient quotes, which aided in the analysis of the roles played by each museum staff member during the HEW. As interviews were transcribed, field notes were written, and those documents were examined, pre-coding and preliminary jottings, and analytic memos occurred as a means to record ideas for potential codes and analytic consideration at a later time (Saldaña, 2013).

First Cycle Coding

Saldaña (2013) described First Cycle coding methods as "coding processes for the beginning stages of data analysis that fracture or split the data into individually coded segments;" while Second Cycle coding methods are "coding processes for the latter stages of data analysis that both literally and metaphorically constantly compare, reorganize, or 'focus' the codes into categories" (p. 51-52). Effective coding methods are compatible with the specific data forms used and support the research question guiding the study. Multiple coding methods may also be necessary to fully explore the experiences examined in the study (Saldaña, 2013).

Following these guidelines, I employed Eclectic Coding as a First Cycle coding method, which allowed me to combine multiple strategically chosen coding methods that best served the purpose of my study. Eclectic Coding is appropriate as an initial exploratory technique when a variety of data forms are used (Saldaña, 2013). For this First Cycle process, I combined descriptive, *in vivo*, values, and evaluation coding methods to focus on general topics, participant voice, participant values, and program significance.

Descriptive coding. Descriptive coding identified the basic topics of the data and led to an inventory of topics found in the data. These codes were in the form of words or short phrases that helped to determine what segments of data were describing in general (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2013). Descriptive coding is appropriate for studies with multiple forms of data,

and was my initial approach to determining an inventory of topics found within the data. This inventory acted as an organizational tool and laid the groundwork for further analysis. For example, descriptive codes such as complex history, human behavior, and difficult knowledge, were applied to participant transcripts when they discussed their thoughts on why it is important to offer a MIPD on the Holocaust. These descriptive codes were applied to Elizabeth's transcript for example, when she stated:

> I always told my students and I tell the teachers, history isn't black and white. It's not, you know, this was right, this was wrong, people, human behavior is very complex, it's gray, it's messy, and I think it's important to recognize it, that these were human beings. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10)

Descriptive coding was used for all data collection methods.

In vivo coding. Since the study focused on the experiences of museum staff as they planned and implemented a Holocaust education workshop, *in vivo* coding allowed me to capture participant voices to provide the descriptions of their experiences and processes. *In vivo* coding examines words or phrases in the language of the participants themselves. This particular coding method is meant to "prioritize and honor the participant's voices" (Saldaña, 2013, p. 91). BB for example, succinctly described what he viewed as an issue in the HEW, stating, "I think there needs to be a better integration between the historical background pieces and the pedagogical pieces and that's just not there" (Interview with BB, July 23). BB's quote, then, was highlighted for later use to ensure that what he viewed as a problem of HEW was described in his own words. *In vivo* coding was used when analyzing pre- and post-workshop interviews with museum staff.

Values coding. Values coding allowed me to examine the values, attitudes, and beliefs of the museum staff regarding their views on the Holocaust, Holocaust education, and the

workshop in general. "Values" in this instance refers to "the importance we attribute to oneself, another person, thing or idea;" while attitude refers to "the way we think and feel about ourselves, another person, thing, or idea;" beliefs refers to "part of a system that includes our value and attitudes, plus our personal knowledge, experiences, opinions, prejudices, morals, and other interpretive perceptions of the social world" (Saldaña, 2013, p. 111). Franklin, for example, when describing his understanding of the Holocaust, stated that he had a "direct and intense and at the same time broad involvement with the history of the Holocaust. Because all of the men I testified against had been SS guards at concentration camps or extermination centers like Auschwitz" (Interview with Franklin, July 10). Values codes such as personal involvement, professional relevance, expert witness, and post-war justice were applied to this particular statement, since in addition to describing Franklin's personal understanding of Holocaust history, it also indicated that he attributed importance to his personal experience as it related to the workshop.

Values coding helped to focus on participant perspectives. Values coding was appropriate for exploring "intrapersonal participant experiences and interpersonal experiences and actions in case studies" (Saldaña, 2013, p. 111), which was applicable for this particular study. Values coding helped to describe participant actions and roles during the workshop, which was a focus of the study. This coding method was applied to participant interviews as well as field notes that discussed participant actions. By employing values coding to analyze both interviews and field notes, the trustworthiness of the findings was increased, since participant statements and actions may not always align.

Evaluation coding. Finally, evaluation coding concerns the worth or significance of a particular program. Evaluation codes can focus on participant responses to the quality of a

program or compare how a program measures up to a specific standard. The purpose of this study was not to recommend changes to the program, but instead to focus on what museum staff members thought went well and areas for concern during the workshop, as well as the importance they attributed to HEW. Consider Franklin's statement:

> So a class like this, HEW, gives a teacher who may not have had anything like this, at least an introduction to it in a reasonably brief period of time with instruction by people who are experts in the subject with access to materials that are as professionally reliable and historically accurate as any that anybody's going to have anywhere. (Interview with Franklin, July 10)

In this instance (and others), evaluation codes such as "expert instructors, historically accurate, and reliable resources" were applied, since he described what he felt were important and reliable aspects of HEW. Evaluation coding was most helpful in understanding how successful each museum staff member considered the workshop to be in relation to their goals for the workshop and the roles they fulfilled during the week.

Second Cycle Coding

In order to aid in organizing codes from the First Cycle, and then transition to the Second Cycle, code mapping was utilized, which reorganizes initial codes into categories. Multiple iterations of code mapping may be carried out as necessary to determine the most salient categories and preparation for discovering higher-level concepts. Code mapping may be completed in conjunction with Second Cycle coding. Second Cycle coding methods are a means to organize data through categories, themes, concepts, or theories and to potentially reduce First Cycle codes that are negligible or redundant (Saldaña, 2013). The principal goal with Second Cycle coding is to organize data into the major components/findings of the research study. Like First Cycle coding methods, Second Cycle methods may be combined as appropriate for the

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study. In this case, I used pattern and focused coding as I code mapped and move into Second Cycle coding. Pattern coding is appropriate for identifying major themes in the data, as well as for examining social networks and patterns of human relationships (Miles & Huberman, 1994). A possible downfall to pattern coding, according to Miles and Huberman (1994), is that "pattern codes are hunches; some pan out, but many do not" (p. 72). In order to offset this potential risk, I concurrently employed focused coding to determine the most frequent or important codes, which helped to identify the most significant categories. Focused coding offered an added benefit of allowing for comparison across participant responses to examine comparability and transferability (Saldaña, 2013). Both of the Second Cycle coding methods were used to code all forms of data.

Throughout the coding process, I wrote analytic memos to document my processes, choices, and emerging findings in my researcher journal. Analytic memos also helped me to reflect on my actions, thought processes, and decisions regarding data analysis. These memos comprise a piece of an overall audit trail I maintained in order to ensure reliability and dependability throughout the study.

Episode profiles. In order to further examine the role each museum staff member fulfilled during the HEW, I created episode profiles from the pre- and post-workshop interview transcripts (Maietta & Mihas, 2014). From each transcript I selected 10-15 quotes that stood out. Those quotes were then examined against each other to determine whether they supported or contradicted each other, and to what extent they diversified, aligned, or expanded on each other. During this examination, quotes were rearranged and organized into groups based on their relationships, to create a document flow. The document flow was then used to create profile memos about each participant. The profile memo focused on what I learned from the document,

as well as why information in the document flow was important to my study. The profile memo

further allowed me to consider the quotes and how they related to the research question. The

episode profiles were useful in ensuring I included participant voice in the narrative, and offered

support for the roles assigned to each museum staff member during the HEW.

Academic Rigor and Ethical Considerations

I took several steps to ensure the academic rigor of my study in that it was conducted

following ethical guidelines and employed several strategies to produce credible results. Most

notably, I collected multiple sources of data using various collection methods for triangulation.

This strategy allowed me to crosscheck data by comparing interviews and observations and to

corroborate study findings (Merriam, 2009).

First, interview transcripts were shared with participants for member checking, which

enables participants to read the transcript and provide feedback. This process reduces the

possibility of misinterpreting what was stated during an interview (Merriam, 2009). Although

Merriam (2009) suggested that member checking includes soliciting participant feedback on

emergent findings, in contrast Carlson (2010) noted that frequently participants are provided

"transcripts or particles from the narratives they contributed during interview sessions and are

asked to verify their accuracy. Participants may be asked to edit, clarify, elaborate, and at times,

delete their own words from the narratives" (p. 1105). Furthermore, Carlson (2010) stated that

"Member checking is often a single event that takes place only with the verification of transcripts

or early interpretations" (p. 1105). Given Franklin's retirement after HEW session two

concluded, Elizabeth's impending maternity leave, and the fact that the museum was soon to

begin renovations, exhibit revisions, and a reorganization of the archives (i.e., a busy autumn at

the museum), I opted to follow Carlson's definition of member checking, and sent the completed

transcript via email to each participant, and asked them to review it for accuracy. For the pre-workshop interview, all three museum staff members responded to the request for review of the transcript for accuracy, and no changes were indicated by any of the participants. For the post-workshop interview transcripts, only Elizabeth and BB responded, again without suggesting any changes. Franklin did not respond to the request for a review of the post-workshop interview, although his new status as officially retired may have influenced his decision not to respond.

A second strategy for enhancing credibility involves fully engaging in data collection by according a sufficient period of time to reach data saturation (Merriam, 2009). Given that this particular study was strictly bounded by pre-determined time constraints, I observed each day of the workshop in each session to spend as much time in the data collection process as possible within the given timeframe. A final method for achieving credibility is to engage in reflexivity and describe my own potential subjectivities regarding the research, which are addressed in the next section.

Reliability is often considered an issue within social science research due to the constantly changing nature of human behavior (Merriam, 2009). Therefore, to achieve reliability in a qualitative study, the findings of the study should be consistent with the data presented (Merriam, 2009). The multiple methods of data collection and sources in the study contributed to reliability, and allowed for triangulation and corroboration of the data. I also kept an audit trail within my researcher journal to detail the research process and decisions made regarding that process. My case study database, as described by Yin (2014), also contributed to increased reliability, as it allowed for the examination of the raw data as separate from the case study report.

It is difficult to address transferability since human behavior fluctuates in any given context and cannot necessarily be generalized to other populations. However, the information learned in a particular setting may be transferred to similar settings (Merriam, 2009). In order to increase the potential for transferability, the most frequently-used strategy is rich, thick descriptions that provide highly-detailed accounts of the study setting and findings. Such descriptions allow for the audience to recognize any similarities between the study and their own situations, and determine whether the study findings may be applicable in their particular setting.

Per ethical guidelines, IRB approval was obtained prior to conducting any component of the research. All participants signed informed consent forms indicating their willingness to participate in the study. All participants were assigned a pseudonym to help ensure confidentiality.

Researcher Reflexivity and Subjectivities

According to Peshkin (1988), researchers should actively seek out their own subjectivities to become aware of how those subjectivities influence research. Subjectivities are ways of viewing situations created by "one's class, statuses, and values interacting the particulars of one's object of investigation" (Peshkin, 1988, p. 17). Subjectivities have the power to skew or shape data, and reflection and awareness of them may help to reduce their impact. For this particular study, I was aware of my "Pedagogical-Melorist I" (Peshkin, 1988). Specifically, Peshkin (1988) described his dismay at the "ordinary-to-poor instruction" he witnessed during his study. My former role as a curriculum specialist focused on instructional methods and I was responsible for creating resources, providing professional development, and working with teachers to improve their teaching strategies. The most frustrating teachers I worked with were those who were resistant to change, refused to try new methods, and were content to lecture and

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use "drill and kill" techniques the entire year. It was often these same teachers who were unprepared for the day, and either had students work out of the textbook or allowed them to sit and talk while they finished preparing their materials so they could conduct the lesson. Like Peshkin, I worried about the impact of the poor instruction on these students. Fortunately, in my position as a specialist, I was able to work on improving methods and ameliorate the situation. My belief in planning and preparation and my work as a specialist has made the pedagogical-meliorist I a prominent subjectivity.

I also believe that teachers need professional development in order to teach the Holocaust appropriately. With the delicate issues involved in covering the topic, poorly planned lessons and unprepared teachers could do more harm than good. I realize, however, that not all teachers will feel the need to receive additional training to teach course content for which they are already certified by the state. I could not assume that all participants who chose to attend the workshop were motivated by the desire to learn more about the Holocaust and appropriate pedagogical methods for teaching the content.

Having participated in this workshop previously, I learned a great deal and found it to be useful in my position as a curriculum specialist. I have drawn on the material presented in the workshop multiple times since I attended. Though I personally found the workshop I attended to be well designed and applicable to my personal context, I had to maintain an awareness that not all participants might have enjoyed the workshop or find it to be as useful as I did. I also had to avoid comparing the version of HEW I attended to the current version. In the five years since I attended HEW, the Director of Education and the Executive Director have changed, as well as the length of the workshop and the topics of several sessions. Thus, I could not expect an exact replica of the HEW session I attended.

Examining my own reflexivity and subjectivities in regards to the research was necessary, not only to identify potential biases, but also to allow the audience to better understand my interpretation of the data (Merriam, 2009). Addressing these concerns lends to a more credible study. This reflexive practice took place throughout the study as a component of my research journal, which allowed me to record my own thoughts, interpretations, and understandings as the study progressed.

Educational Importance of the Study

As noted in Chapter 2, the push for the inclusion of the Holocaust in public schools began after NBC aired a TV mini-series on the topic in 1978 (Fallace, 2008). Prior to that, the Holocaust was mainly taught by select Jewish educators in Jewish communities or studied at the college level—in short, it was not an academic subject for the general population. Since 1978, the inclusion of the Holocaust in the curriculum has grown rapidly, and today over 30 states mandate the teaching of the Holocaust (or of the Holocaust and other genocides) within the curriculum (Cohan & Sleeper, 2010; Keller & Manzo, 2007).

Almost immediately following the addition of the Holocaust to the curriculum, Friedlander (1979) laid the foundations for a methodology of Holocaust education. Debates arose instantaneously concerning the "proper" perspective from which to teach the material, what resources to use, whether comparative methods were appropriate, and the uniqueness of the Holocaust among multiple other factors. These debates continue today, fueled by the fact that scholars have discovered that historically inaccurate materials and questionable teaching strategies (some of which are approved by state departments of education) are employed by teachers to cover the material (Totten & Riley, 2005). With increasing exposure to the topic of the Holocaust through a variety of media over the past four decades, scholars such as Schweber

(2006b) have described increasing "Holocaust fatigue." In other words, the seeming "trivialization" of the topic has led students to discount the importance of the Holocaust. These concerns support the necessity of professional development opportunities to help teachers learn how to critically examine resources and understand appropriate teaching strategies, as well as how to engage students and avoid trivializing the subject.

In a survey of teaching practices, Donnelly (2006) discovered that the majority of teachers (85%) acquired knowledge of the Holocaust through informal means, while only 23% learned content knowledge through professional development opportunities. However, those who had received professional development on the Holocaust were more likely to teach the information and spend a greater length of time on the topic than those who had not attended a professional development (Donnelly, 2006). This survey suggests that such opportunities may be a particularly useful way to prepare educators to teach the Holocaust.

Marcus (2008) and Grenier (2010) have reported that teachers are particularly receptive to MIPD and to professional development that focuses on PCKg. Betten et al. (2000) and Wolpow et al. (2002) examined successful Holocaust education professional development workshops designed for educators. These workshops, however, were not MIPD—although they did employ some of the same characteristics. MIPD offers the potential added benefit of creating stronger relationships between teachers and museums (Grenier, 2010). Donnelly (2006) found that museums ranked last (19%) in terms of resources teachers used to teach the Holocaust. By attending Holocaust education MIDP, teachers may not only receive the benefits described by researchers, but also discover additional resources and programs offered by museums which may be used with students.

Summary

This study combined the ideas behind PCKg and MIPD to determine if such workshops represent an appropriate and beneficial means of preparing educators to teach the Holocaust. Findings from this investigation are expected to offer insights into the methods and perspectives of museum educators as they plan professional development opportunities for teachers. Considering the lack of communication between teachers and museums as described by multiple scholars (Anderson & Zhang, 2003; Noel & Colopy, 2012; Tal & Steiner, 2010)—coupled with positive assessments of MIPD as described by Marcus et al. (2012) and Grenier (2010)—the process used to design effective, well-received, collaborative MIPD is an interesting and relevant line of inquiry. Understanding this process through the examination of the HEW may offer insights into the usefulness of MIPD and PCKg as a means of preparing educators to cover state-mandated material for which support is often lacking.

CHAPTER 4.

FINDINGS

This study examined how museum educators understood the Holocaust and Holocaust education through an assessment of museum educators' perspective as they planned and implemented the HEW. The emphasis was on what the museum educators believed to be crucial in preparing educators to teach the Holocaust, and how those beliefs influenced the role they fulfilled during the workshop. A single research question guided this investigation:

1. How does museum staff members' understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust education shape their role in implementing a MIPD workshop for teachers?

This chapter describes the Holocaust Museum where the study took place, as well as the workshop itself and the three museum staff members responsible for planning and presenting the workshop. Data from this investigation were obtained from pre- and post-workshop interviews with museum staff and field notes resulting from observations of the HEW. After providing the context of the Holocaust Museum, I will describe the workshop by discussing the museum staff members who act as instructors during the week, the evolution of the workshop since its inception, the HEW schedule, and the resources utilized. The remainder of the chapter will examine each museum staff member individually and discuss their understanding of the workshop, factors that influenced their planning, and the roles they fulfilled when implementing HEW.

The Holocaust Museum

The museum is a regional Holocaust Museum located in the southeastern United States. The museum was founded in 1997 "in an effort preserve and educate people on the atrocities of

the Holocaust."[1] By 2003 the museum had expanded and moved to a larger location to

accommodate the increasing number of visitors each year. The museum works to "draw together

two narratives: the broader historic realities of the Holocaust, and the specific account of a local

family's ordeal and survival." The museum's primary mission is to educate the public about the

history of the Holocaust. By focusing on education, the museum hopes to combat anti-Semitism,

racism, intolerance, and prejudice. Though the principal emphasis is on the Holocaust, the

museum also aims to "impress the fact that genocide tragically persists in our contemporary

world."

Since education is the main focus of the museum, they worked with the state legislature

to mandate Holocaust education in public schools throughout the state. In 2009, legislation was

passed that required the

> Superintendent of Public Instruction to select and distribute a teacher's manual that
> emphasizes the causes and ramification of the Holocaust and genocide. Also, each local
> school division is required to provide the grade-appropriate portions of the manual to
> history and literature teachers of these classes. (USHMM State Profiles on Holocaust
> Education)

The manual was intended to complement the information on the Holocaust and genocide

included within the state written standards (Totten & Pedersen, 2011). Due to their role in

successfully mandating Holocaust education in schools, "The Museum recognizes its

responsibility to train teachers on how to approach the Holocaust and modern genocides through

the Holocaust Educator's Workshop and other workshops."[2] In order to fulfill this

responsibility, the museum offers several one-day professional development opportunities

throughout the year on multiple Holocaust- and genocide-related topics that vary from year to

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[1] Citations have been omitted to maintain research site confidentiality.

[2] As a reminder to the reader, citations from the Holocaust Museum have been omitted to maintain confidentiality.

year, as well as the weeklong Holocaust Educators Workshop twice each summer, which is the cornerstone of their professional development offerings. Museum staff also offers the option to arrange distance-learning opportunities for teachers on topics such as using literature to teach the Holocaust. These classes are not offered on a regular basis, but interested teachers are advised to contact the Director of Education to arrange the session. The museum employs a video and audio conferencing system to allow museum staff to interact with teachers and students about the chosen topic. In addition to professional development opportunities, the museum loans out materials related to the Holocaust with accompanying lesson plans to teachers who request them. The museum also offers docent-led tours for school groups that visit the museum on field trips. As with the distance-learning opportunities, teachers must contact the museum to organize a field trip and work with the Director of Guest Services to make arrangements. Museum staff also provides assistance in arranging for genocide survivors to speak with school groups. Again, interested teachers are advised to contact the museum for assistance in arranging guest speakers. Teachers may opt to have survivors speak at their school, or to bring their students to the museum. Finally, primary sources from the museum's collection are made available on their website for free.

A small staff manages the museum as a whole with one person running each department, such as marketing, guest services, or security. The exception is the Director of Collections, who supervises an assistant curator. The staff works well together and frequently steps in to help each other. HEW was an example of the support and collegiality displayed by staff members toward each other. In addition to the Director of Education, the Executive Director and the Director of Collections were both involved in the HEW and acted as instructors for the

workshop. While other members of the staff frequently observed or lent support in setting up or breaking down materials, these three comprised the HEW education team.

Throughout its existence, the museum has remained committed to its goal of educating the public about the Holocaust and genocide. While they hold multiple workshops throughout the year to better prepare teachers to cover the topic, HEW is the cornerstone of the museum's professional development offerings. Like the museum, HEW has grown since its inception, though it has always worked to prepare teachers to approach the Holocaust with sensitivity and in an appropriate manner.

Holocaust Educators Workshop

The HEW occurs over five days each summer, with two sessions conducted in July. The workshop has been offered in varied forms each year since 2006, with approximately 30-35 participants attending each summer session. The workshop is offered in conjunction with a local university, and participants receive three graduate credit hours in either education or history through the university. Participants pay a tuition fee of $150, which includes the cost of textbooks and other educational materials.

With respect to the HEW featured in this investigation, the accrediting university handled the registration process and determined which teachers were enrolled in the class, which did create some difficulties as elementary teachers who chose to apply were accepted into the program, though the application specifically stated middle and high school educators were eligible. Thus, museum staff had no control over who was in the class; nonetheless, although they designed a workshop for secondary teachers, they also had non-content area and elementary teachers in the audience. Many of these teachers found they could not relate the information or

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post-workshop project to their everyday classroom contexts and as a result museum staff fielded complaints from these participants.

Museum Staff

Three museum staff members who acted as instructors during the HEW were the Executive Director (Franklin), the Director of Education (Elizabeth), and the Director of Collections (BB). They were responsible for conducting the sessions held each day during the workshop. (Note that the names of the three people who took part in this study were changed to protect their anonymity.)

Franklin. Franklin, the Executive Director, had a PhD in history, and specialized in Modern European and Modern German History. He joined the staff at the Holocaust museum and observed his first HEW in 2013, and took over teaching responsibilities from the previous Executive Director in 2014. Prior to working at the Holocaust museum, Franklin worked in public broadcasting and lectured at a nearby college. Perhaps most related to his work at HEW, Franklin served as an expert witness in cases that were brought against Nazi war criminals living in the United States. Franklin served in this capacity for 25 years. The 2015 HEW was Franklin's last, as he retired as of July 31st, and a new Executive Director assumed control on August 1st. Franklin planned to continue to work with the museum in a more limited capacity as a researcher historian, but would no longer be involved with HEW.

Elizabeth. Elizabeth, the Director of Education, also joined the Holocaust Museum in 2013. Like Franklin, she observed the 2013 sessions before assuming planning and teaching responsibilities from her predecessor for the 2014 sessions. Elizabeth held a BA in history, with a minor in education. She finished graduate coursework in history with a concentration in museum studies, but had not completed the degree. Her focus in museum studies provided

Elizabeth internship experiences at several museums, including the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum (USHMM) in Washington, D.C., where she conducted research at the National Institute for Holocaust Education. This internship allowed her to gain experience in Holocaust education from the "mother ship of Holocaust museums" (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10). Prior to joining the museum staff, Elizabeth taught sixth grade for two years in the local public school system. She attended HEW at the museum, and upon learning the current Director of Education was retiring, applied for the position and was hired in 2013.

BB. BB, the Director of Collections, was the most senior member of the HEW staff. BB held undergraduate degrees in Creative Writing and Physics, and a Master's in Information Science. BB worked previously as an academic librarian and also taught courses at the college level before joining the Holocaust museum. He first presented a session at HEW in 2006, when volunteers coordinated the workshop. By 2009, BB was teaching multiple sessions during the HEW, frequently focusing on the concepts of genocide, African genocides, non-Jewish victims of the Holocaust, and intervention, and he continues in this role today.

The Evolution of the HEW

The precursor to HEW as it is offered today began as a weekend workshop planned by volunteers and first occurred in 2003, with local professors acting as instructors. However, according to Franklin,

> It was kind of a consensus in the museum that if it was going to have any value it had to be longer than a weekend, it had to have tangible credit associated with it, and it had to be with a university. And those three things came together. (Interview with Franklin, June 10)

BB recalled that a Director of Education was hired in 2007 or 2008, and the first weeklong iteration of the HEW occurred in 2009, offering teachers three graduate credit hours from a local

university. The workshop was initially six days long, running from Sunday to Friday. The 2015 sessions were the first time HEW ran for five days, from Monday to Friday.[3]

In order to receive graduate credit, participants had to complete a post-workshop project. Specifically, participants were required to create three lesson plans on Holocaust related topics, which they were supposed to discuss with Elizabeth for approval. No set template for the lesson plans was assigned and participants submitted plans in the formats required by their districts. Therefore, Elizabeth received projects in a variety of formats. Teachers had one week after the HEW concluded to submit their projects.

Though it is uncertain what changes are in store for the HEW as it continues, Elizabeth spoke of changes she would like to make, such as revamping the curriculum to include more pedagogy, allowing for more group work, and relying more heavily on the museum's collections (Interview with Elizabeth, July 23rd). Both BB and Elizabeth mentioned the possibility of extending HEW to include a second week to help ease the time restriction. BB stated:

> In the past we've talked about can we move it to a two week class? I honestly think if we keep doing it, if we keep adding stuff, or trying to add stuff, I think we're going to have to move to a model like that down the road. (Interview with BB, May 20)

Elizabeth made similar comments, stating:

> The situation that we're in is time. Teachers don't want to spend two or three weeks in a course but I mean really I think to be, and I told the teachers this, to be an effective teacher of this it's not just important for me to sit here and show you different lesson plans but you really need to know this history to be able to teach this well and effectively. (Interview with Elizabeth, July 23)

However, there were no definite plans to pursue this, and it is unclear if and how an extension might influence the willingness of participants to attend—although in her comments Elizabeth

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[3] Inquiries into why the sixth day of the workshop was removed from the schedule did not receive a response.

suggested that she thought teachers may not be as willing to spend a longer period of time in the HEW.

Many of the content sessions in the HEW had changed very little since it began the weeklong iteration. For example, BB's session on concepts of genocide has been a constant, as well as his session on non-Jewish victims of the Holocaust. Sessions providing background on anti-Semitism and the broader history of the Holocaust have also always been provided to participants. Changes that have been made in content sessions occurred when the previous Executive Director retired in 2013, and Franklin took over in 2014. Franklin stated:

> There has been a shift in the two years that we've [Franklin and Elizabeth] done this together away from a very heavy concentration on the history of Judaism, which is what the former Executive Director's area of expertise was. And he taught the Holocaust from the perspective of how this fit in the history of Judaism. We have not abandoned that, but we have balanced it by paying much more attention to the perpetrators. (Interview with Franklin, June 10)

The shifts in content, then, to a stronger focus on the perpetrators, particularly during the post-war trials, was made because those topics more closely aligned with Franklin's areas of expertise.

Another example of changes in the HEW schedule is BB's Oral History session. BB explained:

> We added an oral history component. That was something the former Director of Education added a couple of years ago. It's a two-hour section, it's pretty big. We added that because I had been doing so much work with the oral history collection, she wanted to add it as both an introduction to using oral histories in the classroom for Holocaust education but also because she thought it might, and I think she's correct, it might inspire teachers to do oral history programs of their own. Even if it's not Holocaust based. But she was hoping that it might inspire some community-based project. Because the process

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is the same, it doesn't matter who your interview subjects are. (Interview with BB, May 29)

BB also described the addition of a graphic novels section to HEW. He stated:

> We had another HEW graduate who really took to the course and he was doing a lot with his students with graphic novels. And he's a big graphic novel/comics enthusiast. And so he actually started a conversation with the former Director of Education at one point and she said you know you really should come back and present on graphic novels in the classroom. How to use graphic novels, how to teach with them, and how to incorporate the Holocaust within that. And so he did. He's been doing that for two or three years now I think. (Interview with BB, May 29)

In order to accommodate new additions to the schedule, such as the Oral History component and the graphic novels section, previous sessions devoted to art and music were removed from the schedule. Both of those sessions were pedagogy-based and focused on interdisciplinary connections. Participants then received fewer pedagogy specific sessions in the 2015 workshop than they did in previous workshops. The content sessions shifted slightly due to Franklin's area of expertise. The Nuremburg section, for example, was included in the schedule from the beginning, but was expanded to focus more deeply on other post-war trials in which Franklin was involved. An in depth breakdown of the schedule and activities for each day of the 2015 sessions will be discussed in a later section.

Planning the HEW

As the Director of Education, Elizabeth had the primary role in planning the HEW. She coordinated with the accrediting university and other HEW instructors. She also created the schedule, chose resources, planned pedagogy sessions, and marketed the workshop. Although she was responsible for planning the overall workshop and its sessions, there was very little collaboration between Elizabeth, Franklin, and BB. Elizabeth recognized Franklin and BB as the

experts for their sessions and said "BB's been here for several years and I trust what he does and he does a really wonderful job. Franklin has background in this, so I trust whatever he does" (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10). While she may have provided recommendations or attempted to tailor her sessions to match what her co-instructors were planning to discuss, for the most part planning for presentations was done separately. When planning for the HEW, it was clear that Franklin, Elizabeth, and BB all drew on their personal experiences to help them prepare for their presentations during the workshop. Elizabeth, for example, drew on her classroom experience in her pedagogy sessions by planning hands-on activities, while Franklin conducted lectures similar to university-level history classes, which was a position he filled previously. BB, who conducted research as part of his responsibilities as the Director of Collections, relied on information he discovered within the past year when planning his session on Rwanda. Their planning methods, the influence of their personal experiences on that process, and their understandings of the Holocaust and Holocaust education as it related to their implementation of their sessions will be discussed individually in later sections.

HEW schedule. Twenty sessions were held over the five days, in addition to a tour of the museum, an afternoon devoted to the final project, and an evening session with Holocaust survivors (see Appendix C). The majority of the sessions, 15 total, were devoted to content and covered topics such as anti-Semitism, resistance, Nuremberg, and modern genocides. One session was devoted to an overview of the final project. Two sessions focused on classroom pedagogy and examined strategies for teaching the Holocaust. One session focused on the use of graphic novels in the classroom, and the final session centered on either art restitution or the text *Three Minutes in Poland*, depending on which session participants attended.

Workshop days ran from 8:30am to 5:00pm and were held at the museum. A half an hour was set aside each day for lunch, with shorter breaks occurring between sessions. One day of the workshop extended past 5:00pm and included a dinner catered by the accrediting university. That particular evening was devoted to a survivor session, and participants had the opportunity to hear a Holocaust survivor share her or his story and take part in a question-and-answer session after the presentation.

Day One. Each day of the workshop saw a strong focus on content. The first day of each weeklong session was organized to lay the foundation for the rest of the week and consisted of three content sessions and one session devoted to the final project. Participants began the workshop with a two-hour guided tour of the museum, led by Franklin. The tour provided participants a chronological background of events during the Holocaust, as exhibits began with a focus on discrimination and legalized persecution, and moved through liberation. Several of these exhibits and topics related to the state standards, which did mention the discrimination and the camp system, for example. However,

> The tour is not exactly a tour-participants don't have time to look around or read the information in the exhibits. It's mostly a lecture of history background in different spots of the museum. So they're getting a chronological briefing of background. Moving from stop 4 to 5 and some people lag behind to check out exhibits where the group didn't stop due to time. Franklin keeps going in the next room. People hang back and take notes, and then discuss exhibits. I overheard two women talking about the large amount of info, and difficulties in being able to process. We skip another room to move on, a few people move slowly to have time to look around. (Field notes, July 27)

The tour set the tone for the remainder of Franklin's sessions, as participants quickly learned that he preferred a lecture style of presentation. Time was also a noticeable factor early on, as the

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tour ran over by twenty minutes. After a short break, the second session, a discussion on the

concepts of genocide led by BB, was thirty minutes late getting started.

Similar to Franklin, BB's first session made participants aware of what to expect during

his remaining sessions. Each of BB's sessions consisted of a PowerPoint presentation to

accompany his lecture, breaks for participants to ask questions of BB, and questions being posed

by BB for group discussion. For example, BB began his first session by sharing five quotes with

participants and asking them to identify which genocide the quote was describing. Participants

shared their thoughts during a group discussion before BB identified each quote as representing

different genocides including the Holocaust, Armenia, Rwanda, and Cambodia, as well as the

perspectives of different groups including perpetrators, witnesses, victims, rescuers, and

bystanders. Finally he made a link to the "universal experience to survivors-if the name of the

genocide or place names were dropped you wouldn't know which genocide was being talked

about" (Field notes, July 13). BB moved into background history about genocide, discussing the

introduction of the word by Raphael Lemkin in 1944, the different roles fulfilled by participants

in a genocide such as perpetrator, victim, or rescuer, as well as the importance of teaching about

genocides besides the Holocaust since it is still an ongoing issue, and one that has occurred

repeatedly since 1945. BB intended to discuss the Rwandan genocide as well as the Herero

genocide during this session, but was only able to briefly introduce Rwanda due to the museum

tour running over and was forced to skip the Herero genocide altogether. While BB's entire

session did not relate directly to state standards, several components of his session did. State

standards did include the word genocide, and BB discussed the definition and invention of the

word. The standards also listed examples of genocides other than the Holocaust, including

Armenia, Rwanda, and Cambodia, which BB briefly introduced. He was able to go into Rwanda

in a bit more depth as a comparison to the Holocaust. The Herero genocide (had BB had time to discuss it) did not relate to state standards. However, he preferred to introduce it since it was a genocide committed by Germany prior to the Holocaust.

After four hours of sessions, participants received a thirty-minute lunch break before moving onto the two afternoon sessions. Immediately after lunch Elizabeth devoted an hour to the post-workshop project. After introducing herself and providing her credentials, Elizabeth described the project, which was indicated was worth 80% of the grade. From my field notes:

> Teachers choose 3 different topics and create a lesson plan for each topic. Requirements, due date, etc., all discussed. She discusses components that need to be included but does not dictate the lesson plan format, recognizing that districts do things differently and not trying to force teachers to do something that will not be useful or relevant to them. She goes into rationale statements, which must be included on lesson plans. This will help teachers focus on why students need to learn about a topic, what they should learn, how they should learn, and what approach should be taken. She provides examples/models what will need to be done with the rationale statement. Teachers practice writing a rationale statement, but they don't actually go over it together. How will teachers know if they've done it correctly? Elizabeth answers questions about the project, grading, transcripts, logistics about the class (Survivor Night). (Field notes, July 13)

In the hour that she had, the focus was on sharing information related to completing the project successfully, and while participants were shown an example of an acceptable rationale statement and afforded time to practice writing their own, they did not share their statements with Elizabeth or each other, and received no feedback on whether their statements were appropriate or not. While the example and practice may have been useful, without feedback it was likely difficult for participants to determine whether they were successful in writing their own statements.

The final session on the first day of the HEW was a two hour and 15 minute session led predominantly by Franklin on the topic of Jewish background and anti-Semitism. Elizabeth did

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begin the session by showing a 13 minute video entitled "European anti-Semitism from its origins to the Holocaust," which is available online from the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum. After the video concluded, Elizabeth suggested it as a resource for the classroom to introduce anti-Semitism in a concise manner. She also shared two handouts with participants— one from the USHMM, which compared religious, racial, and political anti-Semitism; and the other from Echoes and Reflections, which was a map showing Jewish populations in Europe prior to World War II. These resources and the video did have potential classroom applicability, as anti-Semitism was identified in the state standards as a contributing factor of the Holocaust. After Elizabeth's brief resource share, Franklin took over and lectured for the remainder of the time. From my field notes:

> No PowerPoint, strictly lecture at the front of the room, alternates sitting on a stool, standing in the front, and working his way slowly back and forth across the front of the room. Covering content again, background, sticking to foundations set today for the rest of the week to build on. I think you can definitely tell he is an academic, versus having K-12 classroom experience. This is like a college lecture. Everyone is still quiet, but I don't know if they're as attentive. Nothing rude or outright noticeable, but a few people are looking over papers or the other resources that were handed out, a couple are looking at things on their computers and there don't seem to be as many people taking notes as there were earlier. A couple of participants were even passing notes. It is after a big lunch (3pm), it's been a busy day with lots of information thrown at them, and it's a strict history lecture. (Field notes, July 13)

All of Franklin's sessions for the remainder of the week were conducted in a similar manner, although participants began to lose interest more quickly and began working on other things earlier in the lecture than they did the first day. Franklin did open up the floor for questions after each of his sessions, although questions were very rarely asked during his lectures. Though in

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this particular session Elizabeth introduced several resources related to the topic, the remainder of Franklin's sessions lacked that component and consisted solely of content.

Day Two. Similar to Day One, the second day consisted of four sessions and a thirty-minute lunch break, with shorter breaks occurring between sessions. The morning began with a two-hour session led by Franklin on the rise of Hitler. Hitler is, of course, mentioned in the state standards as a leading figure of World War II and the Holocaust, so some of the information covered related to the standards, though it went into much greater depth than teachers would be able to in the classroom. This was the only session in which Franklin did not lecture the entire time, as he showed a 90-minute documentary on Hitler in its entirety. Franklin previously worked for a public broadcasting station in the city in which the museum is located and was responsible for creating educational programming. He conducted the research and wrote the script for the documentary. The video was never paused to address key concepts or take questions. Franklin did ask for questions after the film concluded, and many were asked. For example:

> Franklin takes questions related to the documentary or Hitler. Someone asks where Hitler's paintings are, and Franklin talks about how he accessed the paintings when researching the documentary, which were in the US Army's possession at the time. Discussion of how Germany has dealt with the Holocaust, it's a felony to deny the Holocaust in Germany and they deal harshly with those who do. Answers to these questions are providing more content and background for teachers. That's been the main focus so far during the workshop. They haven't really touched pedagogy yet, other than to suggest a few things that might be classroom appropriate. (Field notes, July 14)

As noted, all questions directed toward Franklin were related to content rather than classroom connections, and this tendency was noticeable throughout the entire workshop.

The 90-minute documentary, a brief break afterwards, and the question and answer session stretched 45 minutes beyond Franklin's allotted timeframe to discuss the rise of Hitler. Elizabeth, who was scheduled to lead a session on Holocaust education in the classroom, therefore lost half of her allotted time slot. This session was the first of two devoted to pedagogy, and though Elizabeth worked in two activities and a brief discussion into her remaining 45 minutes, there was not much time to share ideas, debrief the two activities, or really delve into the multiple ways the activities could be incorporated into the classroom.

Move right into Elizabeth's session, which begins by participants working in groups to discuss an article they had to read last night by Lindquist called "Avoiding inappropriate pedagogy in middle school teaching of the Holocaust." The participants are asked to discuss the articles in small groups and come up with main points from the articles. Elizabeth mentions that many groups often find it easy to make a chart with do's and don'ts of teaching the Holocaust and most groups (there are 5, most with 6 members) opt to do this. Elizabeth says she will work with groups to help facilitate discussion, as will I and one other former participant who is here to help out this week on a volunteer basis. I work with the same group the entire time. There are 6 of them, 4 men and two women. The 4 men and one woman are vocal and involved in the discussion; one woman doesn't say anything at all. I listen to them list things they pulled from the article and begin to make their list. One gentleman almost right away says that simulations go on the don't side of the chart, and confesses that he has done this in his classroom, another gentleman says he has done similar things. Both of them recognize what they did, and, based on the article, that it was inappropriate for the classroom. They don't sound like they'll do it again. I'm surprised at how easily they accept this as inappropriate and recognize that they shouldn't have been doing it in their rooms and are ok with this, particularly since Elizabeth mentioned during her interview that some people don't come around to this point of view. After the groups wrap up, each group shares one thing from their list. All of them are do's for teaching the Holocaust, there are no don'ts shared. Is this due to the time limit? This activity everyone seemed really engaged, working together well, good discussion using the article and sharing their experiences and thoughts. Allows for

interaction, working with colleagues, helping them to process what's going on and what they've learned. They sit back in the middle of the room to debrief for a minute, and for Elizabeth to discuss the educational purpose of the museum and her role. The second activity is a photo activity. Each group has a packet of about 50 photos from USHMM. They have to choose 6 to display, glue to their poster sheet, and come up with a caption for each photo explaining why they chose it, and then an overall title/theme for the poster. I hang around with another group, most of them the ladies that sit right in front of me. Three of them are co-workers. They divide the pile of photos and make suggestions, and pretty quickly it is apparent they are putting photos in chronological order, and then after that they decide to show the progress of life during the war. During this, one of the teachers remarks that this would be an easy activity to do with students. This leads to discussion on the skills necessary for it, understanding chronology, categorization, etc., and the fact that it would probably be a good culminating activity. They are connecting what they're doing to how it is useful for their classroom and what they would need to carry it out successfully. (Field notes, July 14)

Participants were clearly engaged and interested in the pedagogy session, and appreciated the opportunity to collaborate with each other during the activities. The first activity was designed to introduce teachers to appropriate pedagogical activities and the rationale behind them. But Elizabeth's session also allowed them to try out classroom ready activities, and to share ideas and suggestions with each other on implementing those strategies in the classroom. Although the content during the session was not related specifically to state standards, the photo activity could be useful for transferring information within the standards to students, and could cover a variety of topics within the standards depending on what photos the teacher chose to include in the activity.

BB presented both sessions after lunch. The first focused on oral histories, and BB shared multiple video clips of survivors from the museum's collection as well as USHMM. He also discussed the method behind oral histories, and shared his experiences conducting oral

histories with local survivors of the Holocaust as well as the Rwandan genocide. BB did make classroom connections, and suggested the short clips as a method of introducing students to survivor stories. From my field notes:

> In general he is good about including a slide to pause for questions every so often. He's also more easy going and conversational, humorous, rather than straight lecturer like Franklin is. People do ask questions when he pauses for them, about resources for oral histories so they can do them in their classrooms, are the oral histories the museum has available to them online. Most people are attentive, this is not hardcore history being thrown at them, it's something that could be useful in their classrooms or a potential activity they could do with their students. He shows several examples. I don't see anyone doing anything else. He checks for questions after the clip and provides a bit of background history on the survivor and the context (when Hungarian Jews were shipped to Auschwitz, etc.) but it's not too in depth and provides good context. Everyone is engrossed in the videos. (Field notes, July 14)

BB's second session, and the final one for Day Two, focused on non-Jewish victims of the Holocaust. This topic did relate to state standards, as the curricular framework lists other victims of the Holocaust including "Poles, Slaves, gypsies, and "undesirables" (homosexuals, mentally ill, political dissidents)." As with the oral history component, participants were interested and engaged during the session, as indicated in my field notes:

> BB again has a PowerPoint with visuals for what he's talking about. Not a lot of words, short phrases and words and photos, pictures, posters, etc. People are ok to interrupt BB to ask questions. They didn't do this with Franklin. Most people are quiet, and don't ask questions. More seem to be taking notes while BB is talking. BB goes through the different categories of non-Jewish victims. He asks after each group if there are questions. He provides good background, nothing too complex but enough to give teachers the reasons why these groups were targeted and an idea of what their experiences were like. I think BB also throws in interesting tidbits of information, like some teachers do, pointing out things they think are interesting and will get students

attention and to help students realize the everyday workings of things. Like mentioning that Hitler pitted people against each other, they were essentially competing for the same job, and so there was a lot of calling and accusing people of being homosexual so that they would be removed from the running for a job at least, if not hauled off to a camp. Just a small connection so the teachers can see how it connects to larger history, how it made a difference in everyday life, and because it's an interesting tidbit. (Field notes, July 14)

Day Three. The third day of the workshop was the longest, as it consisted of five sessions, a dinner catered by the accrediting university (which was held on campus), as well as an evening session after dinner during which participants heard a Holocaust survivor speak and then were given the opportunity to ask questions. As with the first two days, Franklin began the sessions by lecturing on the legalized persecution of Germany's Jews and maintained the common pattern.

> Before Franklin gets started he makes an announcement that the local businessman who acts as a benefactor of the HEW will be in this afternoon. His lecture this morning is on legalized persecution of Germany's Jews. He says he'll go until about 10:15 so we can move on to Elizabeth's session. He's lecturing, this is another college level history lecture. Right away some people are on their phones, flipping through their books, etc. It's important info I think, but without visuals and with Franklin just talking straight for an extended period of time they have trouble paying attention. Franklin opens the floor to questions (there were two during his lecture, although he doesn't stop to invite them during lecture like BB). One participant asks about Jews hiding in plain sight, how police were able to check everyone, etc. Another lengthy history heavy answer that meanders a bit. (Field notes, July 15)

The second pedagogy session of the workshop, led by Elizabeth, was again scheduled to begin after Franklin's session. Elizabeth had an hour scheduled for this second pedagogy session, which was reduced by approximately 15 minutes when Franklin again ran over his time.

She picked up from where she left off the previous day, and in her allotted time worked to share

a classroom timeline activity, resources, and the USHMM guidelines for teaching the Holocaust

(see Appendix D). These items were again reviewed quickly and lacked a period to debrief or

share ideas, perhaps due the loss of time. However, as with the first pedagogy session,

participants did seem interested and engaged throughout the session. From my field notes:

> Elizabeth hands out a list of legislation from the USHMM website. She continues with
> what she was doing the day before, since she was shorted 45 minutes yesterday. She's
> showing/sharing resources they might be able to use in the classroom. A list of internet
> resources for teaching the Holocaust; three discs (anti-Semitism video, teaching about the
> Holocaust from USHMM, and disc of various resources); also the guidelines for teaching
> the Holocaust from USHMM. Elizabeth goes through the guidelines for teaching the
> Holocaust. This is from USHMM, no adaptation or anything by the museum. There is a
> little explanation for each guideline, and sometimes an example. "All Germans were
> collaborators" is her example for something that shouldn't be used. Elizabeth talks about
> not generalizing history and making blanket statements. "All concentration camps were
> killing centers" is offered by Elizabeth as another example. Generalizing history is
> incorrect, and simplifies an incredibly complex history. There is explanation and an
> example, but not real concrete suggestions for how to use this in the classroom, or
> examples of resources that would go along with each guideline, might that be helpful?
> Or allowing teachers to share ideas for the guidelines, how they might impact the
> classroom or how they might incorporate the guideline into their classroom? Several
> slides are skipped over in the interest of time. They move onto an activity Elizabeth says
> can be used in the classroom, a timeline activity. Wooden beams around the room have
> years on them. First each participant picks up one of the victim cards from the back
> table. They return to their seats and underline the country, gender, age, identifiable
> victim group, and the year the individual first experienced persecution on their victim
> cards. After a few minutes they turn to someone next to them to share the info about their
> person. More engagement and interaction. The room is immediately buzzing with pairs
> taking about their people. After highlighting the info they have to tape the card (on gray

paper) with their person under the appropriate year for when they first faced Nazi persecution, and then walk around and read about other people, or the events (on green paper) that were listed under the years already. A few people read almost everything, moving around to all the wooden beams. Purple sheets are handed out with info on the various laws that were enacted. Not everyone gets one, some have to share, but they add this to the timeline under the appropriate year. Info for each year is getting filled in, and organized on different colored sheets of paper to help with organization and easy identification. Elizabeth brings this back pretty quickly because she's running low on time. BB is supposed to start at 11:30, it's already 11:17. She mentions there is another layer of US and world response but they don't have time to get to it. She lets them know you can print it off the USHMM site, and explains why she uses different colored sheets of paper and makes suggestions for how to use it. It could be done in a single lesson, or left up and added to it as you move through the history and then it will be posted for the duration of the unit. She stops pretty abruptly, it's already 11:30 and BB is scheduled to go on. (Field notes, July 15)

Again, the content included within the timeline made some connections to state standards since it covered legislation persecuting the Jewish population and major events of the war. Teachers could alter the activity to more closely align with the standards, or use it in its entirety to expand beyond that information. This activity also linked with Franklin's lecture on legalized persecution that was held prior to Elizabeth's session, but this was the most explicit link made between a content lecture and classroom activity during the entire week.

BB also had an hour-long session scheduled before lunch on Day Three. This session focused on intervention, which seemed to engage participants based on their discussion and questions, but did not clearly link to any state standards. Participants, however, through their questions, worked to make connections to the topic and their classroom, and moved into pedagogy-based questions with BB to determine how the topic of intervention could be discussed with students. From my field notes:

Speaking about intervention, talking about how people have to decide how to teach it and what they want kids to learn. BB asks do you intervene to stop fights? Discussion, participants share their experiences, what they can or can't do in these situations, more people contribute to this discussion, a wider variety, maybe because they all have experience in this or know someone who has dealt with it and everyone could potentially share. This is making a connection to their everyday life and engaging them, creating discussion…Connecting to larger idea of intervention, should coalitions intervene when there is genocide happening? BB goes into explanation about how the answer to intervention has always been no. No one has ever intervened. Uses Dallaire as an example and explains his role in Rwanda. BB has gone through all of this, the questions, etc., to tell them they should be prepared to discuss these questions. But they don't have to have an answer, because he doesn't. He also offers to come and speak to classes, says to contact him, and mentions he's frequently asked to come talk about modern genocides because teachers want students to learn something outside of the Holocaust. Participants ask "what would be a productive goal in facilitating this type of discussion into the classroom?" BB suggests talking about immigration and how it's the same today. He says the US has a 10,000 person quota on the entire country of Africa, and people need sponsors to come over. So it offers a good way to look at it, it doesn't matter if you're being persecuted or not there is a quota. Another participant asks about how to handle it in the classroom when students have closed minds, or strong opinions likely from their parents who want to argue about different viewpoints. A lot of teachers agree, shaking their heads yes. BB acknowledges the difficulty but says while you want to stay away you also want to challenge world views, so maybe present information in an interdisciplinary way if possible, and not challenge particular students but present it in a general way. BB says "if you put enough examples in front of them and they'll start to do the work for themselves." So they are moving to classroom based questions, trying to see how it's relevant to them and how it will be useful or how they should handle it in their classroom. This has happened more today, and with BB or Elizabeth, not Franklin. (Field notes, July 15)

Again, the interactions between participants and BB were typical of those that had occurred throughout the week; in fact, BB's lectures did appear to engage participants more thoroughly and offer them some time to participate in discussion versus Franklin's sessions.

Franklin led a session entitled "Holocaust I: 1939-1941" immediately after lunch. By this point in the workshop, the lack of engagement was clearly apparent, as reflected in my field notes:

> Franklin goes into his lecture, which is Holocaust I, so the history of the early years. People are doing various things, one guy has his eyes closed that I can see, some are staring off into space, writing, although I'm not sure if they're taking notes or doodling to stay awake, some are looking down at something on their desk or maybe their phones on their laps? Two participants in the back chat every now and then for a minute. It's just hard to sit and listen for so long, especially when it can be all over the place and a little hard to follow. Franklin wraps up, answers one question. The HEW benefactor asks if he can say a few words and thanks the teachers for taking a week of their summer vacation and says how important their work is and how influential they are as public school teachers, saying "you're the backbone of this country" and he says he is a big supporter of public school teachers and recognizes that that group doesn't always have a lot of support. After this Elizabeth gives them a two minute break before the next session, which is a guest speaker on graphic novels. This cuts off any more questions for Franklin and people get up and stretch or wander around. Another staff member comments to BB that maybe that's the way to get Franklin to be quiet. (Field notes, July 15)

The comment made by museum staff indicates that they were well aware of Franklin's tendency to run over his time, but it also indicates that staff members did not attempt to stop him, which may be a combination of Franklin's position as the Executive Director of the museum, as well as the belief held by all three HEW instructors that it was important to provide participants with accurate historical background.

The final session before participants moved from the museum to the campus of the accrediting university was led by a guest speaker and focused on graphic novels. The guest speaker was a former HEW participant who was already interested in graphic novels and used them in his own classroom. This session was different than the content sessions presented by museum staff. The guest speaker did suggest a variety of graphic novel resources to teachers, and involved them in a panel activity in which teachers drew an event from their week in a six-panel comic strip. He also provided some background information on graphic novels, walking teachers through the different parts of a graphic novel and explaining the set up. This session did not explicitly align with any state standards, and was more of a resource share than a pedagogy or content session, since the speaker did spend a great deal of his session offering suggestions for books that could be used in the classroom and passing around copies of the texts he uses with his own students.

> A guest speaker is up next with graphic novels. He goes over what a graphic novel is, giving just a little bit of background about them and the setup. He offers suggestions for how to incorporate this-letting kids know how graphic novels are set up for example, so they are prepared to read them, gives examples from his own class. Move on to an activity, fold paper into thirds and then half to make 6 panels. They have to tell a story in 6 panels about something in their week so far. Have option to use color if they want. Someone asks clarifying questions about the assignment. He is modeling something they can do in class, and says he uses this as an assignment, having students do a summary with pictures only. After one more question (do they have to use all 6 panels?) everyone is working intently. I think this is a nice break after lecture all day and they are probably enjoying it. They have a few minutes to talk, they're actively involved in doing something, and this could be something they could do with their students. The speaker goes over *Magneto*, and suggests other books such *Red Skull Incarnate* (during Germany's Weimar republic); graphic novels of Shakespeare works; *Fahrenheit 451*; Edgar Allen Poe works; *Beowulf*; *Odyssey*; *March* about John Lewis; *Maus*; *Yossel.* I

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thought maybe this session would focus strictly on genocide, but there are many teachers from different subjects, especially language arts, so it is useful and relevant to them so the sharing of other types of graphic novels makes sense. Good classroom suggestions, sharing what he does. For *Maus*, he displays the family tree on the whiteboard and crosses off the names of all the family members who were killed during the Holocaust to show students how big an impact it could have on one family. He warns them to check for content, just like you have to with videos or any other resource. (Field notes, July 15)

After the graphic novels session, participants left the museum and headed to the campus of the accrediting institution for a catered dinner. The most anticipated session of the week occurred after dinner, when participants heard a Holocaust survivor speak and then were able to ask questions afterward. Elizabeth was aware that teachers looked forward to this session the most, stating: "I mean I've never had negative feedback about that. Everything is so positive, and that's the highlight of the week is being able to hear them speak and to be able to meet them" (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10). She expanded on the importance of this event:

> They're [survivors] able to share their story and I think that's really important because every day we're losing people in that community and you know there's this immediacy to get their story out there to have them heard. Because I think it's such an effective way to learn about this history as well and it really personalizes it too. And I think that's really important. To not just look at it as a whole but look at the individual histories of this. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10)

Observational data supported Elizabeth's comments that participants' appreciation for the survivor session. Her comments also indicated that she viewed the survivor session as another means of transferring content knowledge to teachers, while at the same time offering a humanizing aspect of the Holocaust by focusing on individual stories. From my field notes:

> The first survivor tells his story. He spent time in a concentration camp, several of them actually. He had one brother survive the war, and they were the only two from his

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family. He tells of his entire experience, but it moves pretty quickly and I think are basic facts. The general overview of where he was, what he did. Sometimes he is hard to keep up with, not necessarily because of his accent, but I think he is trying to cover a lot in a short time and everything sort of runs together. As soon as he starts speaking people are totally attentive. The room is absolutely silent, some people lean forward in their chairs, heads are cocked to the side as people listen intently. One participant starts to cough and gets up to leave so she doesn't disrupt. I think she is the only person to move during the entire time. After she stops coughing she doesn't interrupt by going back to her seat, she stands in the doorway. When the survivor finishes the end of his story everyone immediately applauds. Then it's his wife's turn. She speaks with a slight accent, but very clearly. She starts out behind the table, then moves to the front. Most of the time she is twisting a napkin in her hands as she talks. She wasn't in a camp, but her story is still interesting. She and her older sister get false birth certificates and are sent to Warsaw to work. A woman helps her find a job with a well off German engineer and his wife.   She works for them, posing as a Christian. When she gets to the part of her story where a woman reports her to the Gestapo, there are audible gasps. At other times she is humorous, and people laugh.   There are several audible reactions. She says "never judge. Get to know people before you judge them. We're all human beings." Then links this to their responsibilities as teachers. Teachers have great responsibility she says. Teach them not to hate. It is your responsibility, I mean it she says. We don't want the bad past to be our children's future she says. She asks the teachers to teach tolerance, open mindedness, help kids to understand not to judge others too quickly or too harshly. She speaks repeatedly of the great responsibility of the teachers in this regard. Then she wraps up, to let them ask questions. She basically says they have to do it while they have the opportunity, ask questions, because they won't be alive for much longer. I think this is morbid, but realistic. Hands go up right away. Although only a few questions actually get asked, because they have to move outside for the group photo. What happened after liberation? Did your employer ever find out you were Jewish? Do you think your children will carry on your story? Where did your sisters hide? She again asks the teachers to speak up, to be upstanders basically. She says "thank god for the museum. Who's gonna speak for us?" They wrap up the Q and A, everyone applauds right away, one person

stands immediately and everyone else follows, giving them a standing ovation. They all

crowd around the survivors, for hugs, especially from her, and to thank them. The

survivors thank them for listening. They file outside for a group photos. Many people

pass over their phones for pictures. A group continues to stand around, talking and

getting hugs. They love them, especially her. Several remark how incredible they are,

how cute they are. (Field notes, July 15)

This session, while brushing on several topics included within state standards, did contribute to

Elizabeth's suggestion to rely on testimonies and stories to humanize the Holocaust, and

provided participants first-hand experience with what that might look like. Afterwards, several

participants remarked that they would like to try to arrange for a survivor to speak with their own

students over the upcoming year, indicating they thought there was value in humanizing the

Holocaust and they were perhaps strongly influenced by their own experiences.

Day Four. Since the survivor panel extended until 8pm the previous evening, Day Four

began a half hour later, at 9am. The schedule returned to a four-session format, with two

sessions before and two sessions after lunch. Both sessions before lunch were led by Franklin.

His first session, scheduled for 9 to 10:15, focused on "Holocaust II: 1941-1945." Franklin's

second session, on the righteous and resistance, was scheduled to last from 10:30 to 11:30.

Franklin began by offering to answer any questions about the survivors that spoke the previous

evening, and there were several clarifying questions about the events the survivors spoke of, such

as the difference between the Warsaw Uprising and the Warsaw Ghetto Uprising. Franklin then

moved into his lecture, running over his allotted timeframe by 12 minutes. After the break, he

picked up where he left off, which was a discussion of the extermination camps. He continued

with the topic of the camps through the entire timeframe allotted to righteous and resistance.

"It's 11:27 now, he's still talking about Auschwitz and extermination. He hasn't touched on

resistance yet, which is what he's supposed to be talking about" (Field notes, July 16). During

lunch after the second session, several participants relayed their frustration at skipping the topic.

> One of them says she has a blank page with the title resistance at the top and no
> information. And she's disappointed, she wanted to do resistance as one of her lessons
> and now she has no information. He also hasn't touched on the righteous, and one of the
> other participants wanted to hear about that for one of her lessons. They express concern
> about being behind schedule. (Field notes, July 16)

The second week of the HEW faced a similar situation, with Franklin running well over

his time limit in discussion the Holocaust from 1941-1945. However, during the second week he

extended his lecture until 11:50, which was 20 minutes after the lunch break was supposed to

begin. During the last 20 minutes Franklin touched briefly on the topic of resistance, and

participants learned a little information about Warsaw Ghetto Uprising, but not much beyond

that particular act of resistance. While information during Franklin's first lecture on Day Four

touched on standards related topics, such as the extermination camps, the topic of righteous and

resistance, while interesting to participants, did not align with state standards. However, as noted

during the exchange with participants during the first week, several teachers had planned to

focus on those topics for their lesson plans because of their interest, but then received no

background on it.

After the lunch break Franklin and BB co-presented a session on the current Auschwitz

exhibit the museum created for the 70th anniversary of its liberation. From my field notes:

> BB takes them out to the Auschwitz exhibit. They stand around in the center, and BB
> tells them about what went into making the exhibit, what's included, where they got the
> resources, the difficulties in putting it together. There are a couple of questions, not
> many. Franklin provides some information. Some people start to wander around while

Franklin is talking, checking out the exhibit. After Franklin is finished everyone wanders around the exhibit, reading the panels and examining the photos. (Field notes, July 16)

Again, extermination camps are mentioned in state standards, so there was alignment there, and the topic was also timely, given the anniversary of the liberation of Auschwitz. Unlike the first museum tour, participants were given time to explore the exhibit and read panels, and also had the opportunity to speak with BB or Franklin if they had questions. This session, of all the content sessions, was the least structured and allowed participants freedom to move around and examine the content at their own pace.

The final formal session on Day Four varied depending on which week participants attended. Teachers during Week One heard a guest speaker from the local fine arts museum discuss art restitution and describe two cases where the museum discovered it possessed stolen art. Several participants expressed interest in the topic, though it in no way related to state standards. She covered "quite a bit of history about the WWII era, talks about the Monuments Men, the history of them and their unit, and talks about how there were Monuments Women as well" (Field notes, July 16). Thus, although this session provided a break from lectures by museum staff, it still revolved mostly around content delivered through a lecture format.

Participants during Week Two heard Glenn Kurtz, the author of the book, *Three Minutes in Poland,* speak. The book focuses on a Jewish town of Nasielsk in Poland prior to the outbreak of war. The author's grandparents visited Europe on vacation in 1938, and recorded video throughout their trip. Of the footage, three minutes of it was taken during a visit to Kurtz's grandfather's hometown. Kurtz, intrigued by the footage taken one year before Germany invaded Poland, donated the film to USHMM, who aided in the restoration and ultimately added it to their online collection. After hearing from the granddaughter of a survivor who saw the footage on the USHMM website, Kurtz began to research the people in the video, and it was this

process that he discussed during his HEW session. Participants received a copy of Kurtz's book with the resources provided to them by the museum, and were able to have their books signed after the session. The topic again did not relate in any way to state standards, but participants were engaged throughout the session and all opted to have their books signed.

The final hour and a half of Day Four was devoted to guided work on the post-workshop project. Elizabeth told participants they could work anywhere in the museum, and staff would be available for questions.

> People spread out, move around, wander in and out. They ask BB and Elizabeth questions, Elizabeth about the project, BB about oral histories and what constitutes a genocide, particularly do the acts against the Native Americans count as genocide? Everyone is pretty busy, looking through resources, the books at the back of the room, the posters and charts in the hall. One participant is taking pictures of things out of one of the books. They are looking things up on the internet. There is some conversation between a few people. It's not very loud and everyone looks to be working pretty intently. (Field notes, July 16)

This time period was the only one during the week where participants were able to work on their projects at the museum. Many teachers did use the time to speak with Elizabeth about the project, visit the gift shop, or spend more time in the museum. However, while most participants worked intently for a while, many also took advantage of the unstructured time to pack up early and leave well before the day officially ended at 5:00.

Day Five. The final day had three scheduled content sessions. Franklin and BB led the first session on Nuremberg, which was included within state standards and therefore provided some classroom connection. BB began the session by taking participants to the Nuremberg exhibit in the museum, which was designed to replicate the courtroom. Participants sat at tables within the exhibit while BB provided background history. Since the lecture occurred in the

exhibit, this was the only session in which BB did not have a PowerPoint. Even without it participants were engaged in BB's explanation of the history of the trials.

> BB discusses the history of the Nuremberg trials. He talks about the exhibit and explains what everything is, then the history of the trials. At least ten people take notes. Everyone seems pretty attentive and interested. The change of venue might be helping and it's warmer down here. The participant next to me mentions she likes BB's lectures and appreciates his dry sense of humor. BB breaks up his lecture with jokes and questions. They're comfortable joking around with him as well and interrupting to ask questions, such as Why did it take until 1990 to come up with a genocide law? Did gaining this evidence help historians? Did they ever determine how Goering was able to commit suicide? (Field notes, July 17)

After BB finished his discussion in the Nuremberg exhibit, participants returned to the classroom to hear Franklin discuss more recent trials, particularly those in which he participated as an expert witness. The session began, however, by making connections to contemporary events, as indicated in my field notes:

> Franklin mentions recent events, Oskar Groening was just sentenced yesterday for his role at Auschwitz. So using this current event to segue back to the topic of trials. He goes into some detail about Groening, how he was found and came to sit on trial. This leads into discussion of other trials, post Nuremberg and Franklin's experience with these trials. At least this is what I expect him to talk about. He spends a great deal of time talking about the Nazi conscious or state of mind, the plans they made, how they got the war started, and their way of thinking. He talks about the T4 for awhile, I'm not sure why because this isn't the topic at hand. He somehow moves onto the trials and discusses the lesser trials, Eichmann, the discovery of the fact that there female guards. But at some point he just throws out last names of people who were tried, not really focusing on any one, just giving examples. Even for history people this might not make sense or be relevant. He moved onto the creation of a government organization to uncover Nazi criminals living in the US, after the discovery that there were female guards, and one was

living in the US and had gained US citizenship. So there is a connection there, but it took him a long time to get there. He's finally moved onto his role as an expert witness working for the government to testify against Nazi war criminals living in the US. (Field notes, July 17)

Participants did express interest in Franklin's role as a witness during the trials, and asked several questions about how he became involved in the trials, how former Nazis were able to relocate to the United States, and how they were caught. However, the arrival of lunch, which was provided by the accrediting university, ended the question-and-answer session regarding Franklin's experience as an expert witness.

After lunch BB conducted the final session, which was devoted to other genocides. State standards do list examples of other genocides, including Rwanda, Armenia, Cambodia, and the Ukraine. BB's information was then relevant in the classroom context, and he chose to focus on the Rwandan genocide, in particular, though he briefly touched on the Democratic Republic of Congo and Darfur at the end of the session, as indicated in my field notes:

> BB is up next. He's going to talk about modern genocides, particularly Rwanda, but he ties up a few things first, explaining why the US has such as interest in the Holocaust, why there are so many museums…BB moves onto Rwanda, highlights similarities to the Holocaust, so if you want to teach another genocide Rwanda would be an option and a bit more simplistic than the Holocaust, and there are lessons to Rwanda applicable to the Holocaust. BB gives some background on the history of Rwanda. He makes links to Rwanda and Holocaust-Germans took idea of Jew and turned it into race, same thing Belgians did in Rwanda in decades prior. BB recognizes this is new information, different topic from the rest of the week, and likely not something they have much background knowledge in, unlike the Holocaust. So he pauses to check for questions frequently. (Field notes, July 17)

Several participants mentioned they were shocked by this information, and BB was not surprised, as most participants have very little knowledge of genocides other than the Holocaust.

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However, perhaps due to the lack of knowledge, participants were interested and engaged throughout the session.

The final session was a roundtable discussion, and graduation and was scheduled to last from 3:00 to 5:00. However, at 3:00, Elizabeth made a few announcements concerning the due date for the final projects, and a reminder that post-workshop surveys would come to participants from the accrediting university. Then she did the following:

> Hands out certificates and a group photo with the survivors to everyone. Everyone applauds for everyone else. When she tells them they have a group photo for each person there are audible "awwwws" from multiple people. Several of them, when they go back to their seats, walk by Franklin and BB to thank them, a couple give hugs. (Field notes, July 17)

Franklin was given time to give a few closing remarks, and opened up the floor to comments from participants, though they were noticeably ready to leave. No formal roundtable was conducted.

> Franklin gives a few closing remarks. He says "we all hope this is not the end of your relationship with the museum." He also says he hopes it isn't the end of their intellectual relationship with the Holocaust. And he encourages them to read. He asks if anyone has anything to say for the whole group. At first no one says anything. One participant finally speaks up and says HEW "changed the whole scope of how I saw this and how I'll use this and that was a huge gift." She thanks the facilitators. Another participant says "it was wonderful to get to meet all these other teachers and talk with them." But that pretty much ends the group comments because everyone wants to go. They're done early, about 3:30. No end group discussion at a roundtable for everyone to share. So there is no group debrief and no chance to share what was important to each person. Most people stop to sign the card for the survivors on the way out, and most head out quickly. What brief feedback was given was positive. Many participants thanked Franklin and the other

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facilitators. But they were quick to get out of here and obviously ready to go after a long

week. (Field notes, July 17)

Nonetheless, during the final session participants were grateful to museum staff and were

positive in their comments about HEW overall. They appeared ready to finish up the week and

exited quickly, perhaps indicating fatigue after a weeklong intensive workshop that was lecture

oriented.

HEW resources. Participants were asked to read two texts prior to their HEW sessions.

The first text, *War and Genocide: A Concise History of the Holocaust* by Doris Bergen, provided

teachers with a background of the events leading up to and during the Holocaust. The second

text, *Auschwitz: A History* by Sybille Steinbacher, gave participants an overview of the infamous

extermination camp, and aligned with a current exhibit at the museum devoted to the camp for

the 70th anniversary of its liberation. Upon arrival at HEW, participants were also given a copy

of *Three Minutes in Poland* by Glenn Kurtz, who presented a session on his research during the

second week. Teachers also received a reference text by Yahuda Bauer entitled *A History of the*

Holocaust, and several resources from USHMM, which included a Nuremberg Laws poster and

a *European Anti-Semitism from its Origins to the Holocaust* DVD. These resources were

included in a tote bag given to participants on the first day of the workshop. Other than the text

Three Minutes in Poland, which was directly related to a session presented by the author during

week 2, the resources in the tote bag were not explicitly connected to any HEW sessions or

topics, but rather provided as potential references. Throughout the week, multiple other

resources were shared with participants such as oral histories from USHMM and the Holocaust

Museum, suggestions for literature such as *I Never Saw Another Butterfly*, and graphic novels

such as *X-Men: Magneto Testament*. Resources were brought up during specific sessions by

instructors as suggestions for appropriate classroom tools, or displayed in the classroom. The

oral histories for example, were shared during the Oral History session conducted by BB as a classroom ready resource to incorporate that particular tool. *X-Men: Magneto Testament* was a suggestion made by a guest speaker during the graphic novels session. Additionally, Elizabeth placed multiple resources, including *I Never Saw Another Butterfly*, on an empty table in the back of the classroom for participants to browse during breaks. The table of resources was referred to as a whole when Elizabeth informed participants she had placed materials in the back of the classroom, though instructors did not refer to all of these materials individually or explicitly during the HEW. However, all of the suggested resources were vetted by museum staff and were considered appropriate not only in terms of content, but also in terms of student age and grade levels.

Elizabeth explained that state standards do influence which sessions and resources will be included in the HEW, stating:

> So I look at the state standards for that, and unfortunately the Holocaust right now…There's more of a focus on the Holocaust I think and justice with Nuremberg afterwards and other genocides. Unfortunately sometimes the Holocaust, because it's near the end of the year, it's not…when they give you that blueprint for the state tests there aren't very many questions on the Holocaust. So I don't know if the time is spent on it that it should be. So I try and take into account obviously the time the teacher has, but then also I want, I mean, it's a standard, I want it to be taught in the classroom and try and focus and kind of narrow maybe the resources. Because there are so many out there, kind of give them the best resources they can use to teach it the most effectively in the classroom. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10)

Using the standards as a guide is a necessity in today's educational environment, which is so focused on high-stakes testing. Museums must demonstrate their programs and materials are related to standards, or risk losing support from schools (Davis, 2005; Tran, 2007). State standards, for example, list anti-Semitism as a contributing factor of the Holocaust, and Franklin

presented a session on anti-Semitism and Jewish history on Day One (see Appendix C). The

standards also identify the Jewish population as the group that was mainly targeted during the

Holocaust, but does include a list of other "affected groups," which include Poles, Roma-Sinti,

and undesirables such as homosexuals and political dissidents. The HEW, therefore, devoted a

session to non-Jewish victims of the Holocaust. However, Elizabeth worked to expand beyond

that information during the workshop for the following reason:

> When I look at the schedule for the HEW, I don't necessarily focus specifically on the
> standards. I think it's important to, obviously, I'm aware of them and I know what they
> are but I feel like the standards for the Holocaust are so, they're not very specific, they're
> kind of general. We usually hit at some point in the week on information about Hitler, or
> anti-Semitism, I think it's important too to answer those broader questions that people
> have about why would people have participated, why didn't the United States do more,
> was Hitler Jewish? Things like that. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10)

Therefore, many of the topics covered in content sessions during the HEW included topics that

were not explicitly mentioned in the standards. Resistance movements and rescue attempts were

not included, for example, but were topics taught during the HEW, as was legalized persecution

in the years leading up to the Holocaust, and a session devoted to Hitler (see Appendix C). Other

genocides were mentioned only at the high school level and consisted of a list that included

Armenia, Cambodia, and Rwanda (State Department of Education Curricular Framework). A

session on modern genocides taught by BB was included in the HEW schedule on the final day

of the workshop, and focused on Rwanda and Darfur to again make connections to the standards,

but also offered teachers knowledge beyond what is required.

Franklin, Elizabeth, and BB all identified accurate content knowledge as a crucial

component for teaching the Holocaust appropriately. Although they did seek to make

connections to the state standards, a major goal of the workshop was to provide participants with

a strong background in Holocaust history. Through sessions that either expanded on the standards or provided information on topics that were not included in the standards, the schedule had a content heavy focus in order to accomplish this goal.

Finally, in order to offer the most tangible benefit of three graduate credit hours in history or education, the museum had to partner with a local university providing the credit. Therefore, the local university had some influence over HEW. Perhaps the biggest influence, and the one most frequently mentioned by Elizabeth, was control over enrollment. Participants had to apply through the university to attend the HEW, and while the application stated, "preference will be given to Social Studies and English teachers," the university had the ultimate decision in accepting applicants. Perhaps in order to fill the class to capacity each session and have 30-35 attendees, the university frequently registered teachers who did not teach the Holocaust. The 2015 sessions included participants who taught Algebra, Earth Science, Special Education, Instructional Technology, elementary art, and two elementary grade teachers. During the workshop, staff tended to focus on their individual sessions and the goal of sharing content with participants in order to provide a strong historical foundation. It is possible that since the staff planned independently rather than together, they approached the HEW differently in the planning and implementation of their sessions. Their roles, presentation styles, and opinions of the workshop varied drastically.

The next three sections will examine each staff member and their individual role in the HEW. I hope to demonstrate how each museum staff member's personal experiences, goals in preparing educators to teach the Holocaust appropriately, and methods of approaching Holocaust history as difficult knowledge influenced their planning and presentation of the HEW sessions. I will first discuss Elizabeth's role as the emotional center of the HEW. As the only female

member of the HEW staff, she displayed signs of emotional labor in her planning and

implementation of the workshop overall, and seemed to fulfill the gendered role of the "carer"

during the workshop. She also sought to make the difficult knowledge of Holocaust history

more easily accessible by suggesting classroom strategies such as humanizing the Holocaust.

Elizabeth represents an interesting comparison to Franklin, who will be discussed next. Franklin

acted as the intellectual authority during the workshop, and relied heavily on his expertise as a

historian during his sessions. His approach to difficult knowledge focused solely on providing

accurate historical content to the participants. Finally, BB, the third member of the museum

staff, served as a balance between Franklin and Elizabeth and was the most practical member of

the HEW staff. While BB was also concerned with providing teachers a strong foundation in the

history of the Holocaust, he most clearly recognized that participants also needed more pedagogy

and explicit connections made between the content and the classroom. BB alone found the

workshop too content-heavy. He was also the only staff member to share any negative opinions

of the workshop and felt that HEW did not strongly promote the museum as a resource for

teachers. These factors all influenced the different roles fulfilled by Elizabeth, Franklin, and BB

during the HEW, as well as the implementation of their individual sessions.

Elizabeth: The Emotional Center of the HEW

As the Director of Education, the bulk of the responsibility for the HEW fell to Elizabeth.

She drew on her background as a 6th grade classroom teacher and her internship experience at the

USHMM when planning HEW as a whole, as well as her individual pedagogy sessions.

Elizabeth also said she examined trends in Holocaust education stating:

> I look toward what I've heard over the past year, what would be of particular importance
> to teachers, looking at trends in Holocaust education, looking at other institutions at

Holocaust museums, or even just other summer institutes for teachers to see what works

for them which I think is really helpful. The Historical Society has a similar program to

ours and we have been in talks with them, and I talk with their Director of Education to

see how he runs things there, what the structure is like, and that's been really helpful as

well. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10)

Finally, participant evaluations played a role in planning, as Elizabeth examined them for

common suggestions to improve the HEW.[4] For example, participants from previous workshops

enjoyed a guest speaker who shared graphic novel resources; as a result, this session was added

permanently to the HEW schedule, and Elizabeth decided to include an additional guest speaker

during the week. She stated: "I think that it's important to bring experts in, or people that have a

particular niche in the Holocaust scholar community to come in and talk about that" (Interview

with Elizabeth, June 10). Therefore, for the 2015 sessions she opted to invite *Three Minutes in*

Poland author Glenn Kurtz to discuss his research on a small Jewish town in Poland prior to the

outbreak of World War II, and provided the text to participants. Kurtz was unavailable for both

weeks of the HEW, so only Session Two participants heard him speak. The guest speaker from

Session One, a registrar from the local fine arts museum, spoke about art restitution and two

instances where the nearby fine arts museum discovered it possessed Nazi looted art. Neither of

these sessions related to state standards, but were offered because participants enjoyed a guest

speaker who focused on their area of expertise and Elizabeth felt as though it was important to

offer participants that opportunity.

Several factors influenced how Elizabeth planned the HEW, as well as the role she

played in its implementation. Three main themes regarding her planning decisions and

workshop role emerged from her interviews, as well as from observational data. These themes

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[4] Inquiries for participant feedback from the 2015 sessions and the potential influence on the 2016 sessions were
unanswered.

showed Elizabeth shouldering the bulk of the emotional labor (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006) for the workshop; her concern about the Holocaust as difficult knowledge (Pitt & Britzman, 2003) that influenced her content heavy focus even as she recognized the importance of pedagogical caring within the workshop; and finally, her gendered role compared to her two male colleagues contributed to how the workshop unfolded. These themes defined Elizabeth's role as the emotional center of the HEW.

       Emotional labor. Elizabeth exhibited the burden of emotional labor in several ways throughout the HEW. Hochschild (1983) defined emotional labor in a primarily negative fashion, as it may potentially involve faking, changing, or suppressing emotions in order to present an expected emotional response. Isenbarger and Zembylas (2006) connected the idea of emotional labor to the work of teaching through the concept of the caring teacher, which may require the teacher to change their emotions "in order to advance educational goals" (p. 122). In addition, teachers in the role of the carer may have to suppress negative emotions such as anger in order to show socially-acceptable emotions that are appropriate to a caring relationship (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006) and support trust, involvement, and openness (Hargreaves, 1998). Elizabeth's desire was to plan and present a workshop that was useful and relevant to teachers, and would result in changes being made in how the Holocaust is taught in schools. In her understanding of Holocaust education, she was clear in her belief that the best way to prepare participants to teach the Holocaust was to provide a strong foundation in the content. However, she was also concerned with how participants understood that content, and the instructional strategies they used to cover the Holocaust in their classrooms. These factors influenced her decision to plan the workshop with a content heavy focus, with a more limited focus on pedagogy because her overall educational goal was a solid historical foundation for participants.

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In her planning and execution of the HEW, then, she focused predominately on what she thought would be best for participants. In so doing, she set aside any frustrations on her part in order to be supportive of the audience and create a positive atmosphere in which to learn about the Holocaust.

Elizabeth displayed the emotional labor described by both Isenbarger and Zembylas (2006) and Hargreaves (1998). She mentioned multiple times the frustration she felt over the accrediting institution enrolling participants who did not teach the Holocaust, and for whom the class was not relevant. Therefore, while Elizabeth relied on her understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust education to plan HEW for secondary educators who actually taught the topic, she was forced to work with participants for whom the workshop was not applicable, resulting in her need to use emotional labor to hide her frustration—even though she had carefully thought out the content and activities included during the week to benefit secondary content area teachers. In her planning process she chose not to alter the workshop to accommodate elementary or non-content area teachers, and while she had no control over the inclusion of such participants, it resulted in complaints about the workshop itself. Elizabeth stated, "Sometimes people will say oh, this isn't relevant to me. But then if I were able to respond to them I would say well, maybe this isn't the course for you, if it's not relevant for you" (Interview with Elizabeth, July 23). In this situation, Elizabeth indicated she was suppressing her frustration toward participants when she stated "if" she were able to respond, suggesting a show of her frustration would not have been appropriate or socially acceptable, and she therefore concealed it.

Elizabeth described another situation from a 2014 HEW session in which several participants disagreed with her statement that simulations should never be used to teach the Holocaust. This situation resulted in "a really heated discussion" in which the participants tried

to convince her the only way to help students understand the Holocaust was through simulation

activities (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10). In this situation, Elizabeth also had to conceal her

frustration with the participants who preferred not to listen to suggested guidelines for teaching

the Holocaust (see Appendix D). In order to achieve her educational goals, she opted to present

alternate strategies such as teaching with first-person accounts of Holocaust victims. She

explained:

> The way I look at a simulation is that you are not honoring survivors and victims the way
> that they should be. You're kind of diminishing what they went through and their
> experience. And I think in order to get students to feel, that's when you look at
> individuals that were affected by this history. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10)

By suppressing her negative emotions in situations such as this, Elizabeth was involved in a

process Brown, Horner, Kerr, and Scanlon (2014) described as surface acting, which involves

"the deliberate suppression of an emotion to display the preferred emotional response" (p. 208).

By employing surface acting, Elizabeth adhered to positive emotional display rules when

interacting with participants who either complained HEW was not relevant to them, or chose to

argue that simulations were an appropriate method for teaching the Holocaust. Emotional

display rules describe appropriate emotional responses, and in the role of the caring teacher,

positive emotional responses are frequently expected (Brown et al., 2014). By using surface

acting to hide her frustration, Elizabeth helped to maintain a positive atmosphere during the

workshop and ensure that it ran smoothly.

Performing emotional labor and exhibiting emotions other than what is naturally felt can

be a source of stress and anxiety (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006). In Elizabeth's situation, a

source of her emotional labor was thrust on her by the accrediting institution, which enrolled

non-content area teachers in the HEW, resulting in her need to rely on emotional labor and

surface acting to maintain a positive demeanor. Since non-content area teachers often don't see the relevance in workshop material to their everyday classroom contexts, Elizabeth has dealt with complaints from such participants. She stated:

> It's really nice to have people that are interested in the Holocaust and attend for their own personal reasons, but then again this course was designed for teachers to take what they've learned here and not just have it for themselves, but to translate it to the classroom. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10th)

By enrolling teachers who did not cover the Holocaust, the accrediting institution affected how Elizabeth interacted with some participants and created the potential for frustration on her part. It also caused difficulties within her planning process because she was unable to plan sessions to reach all non-content area teachers, especially those who taught math or physical education for example. Although Elizabeth did not mention any complaints from the non-content area participants during the 2015 sessions, she expressed frustration about such situations from the previous year, stating:

> Last year there were a couple people that said because I'm a math or science teacher this isn't relevant to me, and again this probably is not the right fit for you. I understand a lot of people have an interest in this history and it's more personal for them to take this course, but really it's a course for teachers who teach the Holocaust. (Interview with Elizabeth, July 23)

However, Isenbarger and Zembylas (2006) also suggested that teachers may find rewards in teaching, even as they are required to perform emotional labor. Elizabeth also demonstrated this phenomenon, describing successes after the first week of the HEW when she had "several people come up to me and say wow, this changed my teaching. I look at this history in a different way. And I think that's exactly what we want to hear, that's a goal of this program" (Interview with Elizabeth, July 23). It is clear that Elizabeth saw some positive aspects in her

work with HEW and felt as though she was successful, particularly when participants indicated their intent to alter their teaching of the Holocaust.

In relating emotional labor to caring teaching, Isenbarger and Zembylas (2006) indicated that one person frequently had the responsibility as the carer in a classroom. In the case of the HEW, Elizabeth fulfilled this role. For example, she was the museum staff member most responsible for encouraging interaction and collaboration among participants by having them participate in group activities during her pedagogy sessions. She felt that participants needed to have hands-on experiences with instructional strategies, which guided her planning process for her specific pedagogy sessions. An example of such an activity that occurred on Day Two:

> Participants work in groups to discuss the article, and talk about difficulty and sensitivity of topic, dealing with it in an appropriate manner. They seem to be making personal and emotional connections. Sharing experiences from classrooms. Said articles have lots of don'ts not so many dos for teaching the Holocaust. Engaged in conversation, very focused on topic, really read through article and constantly referred to it, trying to take what they read and apply it to the classroom, such as talking about making personal connections through using certain texts for example from survivors. (Field notes, July 28)

Elizabeth also frequently answered questions or gave advice relating to the workshop and the final project (Field notes, July 13-17, 27-31), and tried to remain sensitive to student needs, even if students found the workshop held no relevance for their classroom contexts. Such emotional work is often unacknowledged or undervalued, which may cause additional stress on the person performing such tasks (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006).

Hargreaves (1998) found that emotional labor in teaching is also closely related to purposes of teaching. For Elizabeth, one of the purposes of teaching about the Holocaust was to honor the victims and try to understand human behavior. This sentiment also influenced her

planning process, as she frequently mentioned the importance of first-hand accounts and resources that shared stories of Holocaust victims. She stated:

> That's why we do what we do here. We're the voice for those voiceless people and to remember those people. And that's how I always try to frame it to them. When you're choosing these sources and when you teach those you have to remember this is real life, this isn't just a story, this really happened to people. (Interview with Elizabeth, July 23).

Here, Elizabeth clearly indicates honoring the victims of the Holocaust is one of her influences in planning HEW. One of her purposes in teaching then, is to help educators sensitively portray the Holocaust to their students. By suppressing negative emotions and offering guidance, Elizabeth performed emotional work in pursuing her teaching purpose.

Elizabeth's emotional labor was not limited to her interactions with participants. It was also demonstrated in her work with her colleagues, Franklin and BB. Brown et al. (2014) state that emotional labor may also involve employees hiding or concealing emotions to achieve workplace goals. For example, one of the goals of the HEW was to provide participants a strong background history on the Holocaust. This goal resulted in a content heavy focus during the week, with 15 out of 20 sessions devoted to content lecture. Elizabeth clearly supported this goal, stating:

> I think step one, in order to teach the Holocaust successfully, you have to know the content. If you don't know the content you're just making generalizations…I think it's really important to have that background information so that when students do ask those difficult questions or just questions in general that you're prepared to answer them. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10)

However, Elizabeth also intended to present two pedagogy sessions to participants to share instructional strategies for teaching the Holocaust. In her overall planning of the HEW, Elizabeth then allotted the majority of the sessions for content, but did schedule pedagogy

focused sessions to share classroom ready strategies with the audience. However, both of

Elizabeth's pedagogy sessions were scheduled after a content lecture given by Franklin, which

covered the Rise of Hitler and Legalized Persecution of Germany's Jews. Elizabeth lost 45

minutes, or half of her session time for one pedagogy session, and 15 minutes for her second

pedagogy session, when Franklin ran over his allotted time (Field notes, July 14, 15, 28, 29).

Rather than stopping Franklin to begin her pedagogy sessions though, Elizabeth allowed him to

lecture until he was finished and altered her session plans to accommodate the loss of time. Nor

did Elizabeth continue her session beyond her allotted timeframe. Instead she ended her sessions

on time, ensuring that participants were given their full lunch break in one instance, and that BB

was provided his entire time allotment for his lecture on Intervention. By allowing Franklin to

extend his content lecture, and refusing to encroach on BB's session, Elizabeth supported the

overall organizational goals of the HEW while hiding her frustration at losing a significant

portion of her pedagogy sessions. In describing her sessions, Elizabeth said, "I think it went

pretty well, it went by too fast" (Interview with Elizabeth, July 23), yet she never directed blame

toward Franklin for reducing her allotted timeframe. In fact, she altered her presentations to fit

into her remaining time. For example, during her first pedagogy session for Week One, my field

notes indicated:

> Several PowerPoint slides are skipped over in the interest of time. They move onto a
> timeline activity Elizabeth says can be used in the classroom... Elizabeth brings this back
> pretty quickly because she's running low on time. BB is supposed to start at 11:30, it's
> already 11:17. She mentions there is another layer of US and world response but they
> don't have time to get to it. (Field notes, July 14)

Fulfilling the role of the caring teacher for the HEW resulted in Elizabeth performing a

great deal of emotional labor in her interactions with participants as well as colleagues in order to

portray socially acceptable emotional responses, achieve her purpose in teaching, and accomplish the organizational goals of the HEW. She made conscious decisions in her planning process that focused the workshop on content, even though she also wanted to provide teachers with appropriate instructional activities. When the sessions prior to her pedagogy sections ran over, she again made a conscious decision to allow the continued focus on content. While Elizabeth did not perhaps intend to shoulder so much of the emotional burden, she did allow the overall content goal and desire to maintain a positive atmosphere to influence how the workshop progressed during the week.

Though emotional labor was frequently a source of stress, as Elizabeth indicated by her frustration at the situations which required her to suppress her emotions, she also found positive aspects in her emotional work when she learned of participants who intended to change their teaching of the Holocaust because of the workshop. Elizabeth was clearly concerned over how the Holocaust was taught in the classroom, and focused on the ideas of difficult knowledge and pedagogical caring in order to try to prepare teachers to cover the topic accurately and sensitively.

Difficult Knowledge and Pedagogical Caring. One of the main factors influencing Elizabeth in planning HEW was her desire to present historically-accurate information to participants in order to prepare them to teach the Holocaust appropriately. She stated:

> I think it's important for people to be informed and educated about the topic so that when they do go out and teach it to their students they have accurate information because people are…there's so much misinformation about the Holocaust out there which is dangerous because it can lead to Holocaust denial. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10)

Clearly, then, historical accuracy was important to Elizabeth as she worked "to clear up misconceptions and give them historically relevant information" (Interview with Elizabeth, June

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10). Elizabeth identified the belief that Hitler was Jewish as the main myth teachers often possess, and in doing so alluded to the fact that teachers often get information from popular media, which may contribute to spreading inaccuracies, stating:

> People are getting their information from the History Channel, which is great that you're watching the History Channel, but you know watching a documentary on Hitler's secret bunker doesn't make you an expert and I think that just leads to more inaccuracies. One of the questions that I always get from students as well as adults is, well, Hitler had black hair and brown eyes, he wasn't part of his master race plan. And why is that? And I think it's important to take those generalizations and kind of flush those out with information so it's accurate. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10)

In discussing the need for historical accuracy, however, she repeatedly returned to the idea of the complexity of Holocaust history, in part because it involved complicated and often difficult to understand human behaviors. Pitt and Britzman (2003) described difficult knowledge as the representation of social trauma within pedagogy. Though she did not use the term "difficult knowledge," Elizabeth was concerned with the representation of the Holocaust in the classroom—particularly with ensuring it is taught with accuracy and sensitivity while honoring the victims.

Elizabeth demonstrated her struggles with difficult knowledge in several ways. The push for historical accuracy was evident through the heavy content focus during the HEW. However, precedent exists with respect to a concern over accuracy, as even state-sponsored curricular materials have been found to contain errors and meaningless activity suggestions for teaching the Holocaust (Totten & Riley, 2005). However, teachers often consider such sources to be authoritative, and rely on these materials in the classroom, therefore introducing students to potentially inaccurate information. Teachers may also possess myths and misconceptions about the Holocaust that may be gained through pop culture references to the event, such as the more

than 500 films that exist about the topic (Michalczyk & Helmick, 2013), and rely on that misinformation in the classroom as well. All three museum staff members mentioned common myths and misconceptions that participants and the public frequently believe about the Holocaust, such as Hitler was Jewish or had Jewish family members, Hitler escaped to Argentina at the end of the war, Jews are a race, each camp inmate received a tattoo, or that each concentration camp acted as a killing center with gas chambers and crematoria. Elizabeth stated:

> I think trying to debunk some of those misconceptions or myths that they had previously held is really important because now not only do they know but going back into the classroom it will reflect in their teaching. And they'll also be able to share that knowledge with their students. (Interview with Elizabeth, July 23)

The abundance of misinformation then was clearly an influencing factor in Elizabeth's planning and implementation of the HEW, as she designed the workshop to provide a strong foundation in the content because, in her understanding of Holocaust education, historical accuracy was prominent.

Niyozov and Anwaruddin (2014) discussed the understanding of difficult knowledge as necessary to prevent past atrocities from reoccurring. Elizabeth cited similar concerns as another factor that influenced her to focus on the history and decision to include so many content sessions, stating:

> I think the issues that were faced during the Holocaust, they're still evident today. I think it's important for people to recognize that the Holocaust wasn't just Hitler and the Nazis. It was all these other people making decisions of whether or not to act, and I think it's...I mean you turn on the TV and you look at the news and all these issues that we're facing today, I think now more than ever it's important to examine that and I think it's important to examine human behavior and what people are capable of. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10)

The link to contemporary events to which Elizabeth alluded was seen several times throughout HEW, as connections were made between discrimination and prejudice in the years leading up to the Holocaust to the discrimination and prejudice displayed in the U.S. in recent months toward African-Americans and Muslims. Police-involved killings of African American men in Ferguson, MO, and Baltimore, MD, and the subsequent Black Lives Matter protests were discussed, for example, during the session in which Franklin discussed discrimination and legalized persecution of Germany's Jews. Connections were made to police-involved killings committed in Germany in the years leading up to the Holocaust, and laws that were enacted to strip Jews of their rights were compared to recent legislation requiring voters to have a photo ID, which is a form of discrimination since African-American and Latino voters are less likely to possess an approved form of identification. During BB's session on concepts of genocide, racial profiling against Muslims as a result of terrorist actions carried out by militant groups such as ISIS and whether ISIS is committing genocide were discussed. The guest speaker from the fine arts museum made contemporary connections between looting and destruction of art and artifacts by ISIS in the Middle East to actions taken by the Nazis during World War II. These conversations indicated that both museum staff and participants were working to make connections between the history discussed in the HEW and the present day, and drawing parallels particularly when they related to discrimination and prejudice.

A final representation of difficult knowledge within the HEW relates to the "desire not to know" (Alcorn, 2010). Alcorn (2010) described the desire not to know as a resistance to information or avoidance to creating links between information to prevent processing. Alcorn's desire not to know, however, relates to content knowledge rather than instructional strategies. Within the HEW, Elizabeth spoke of the desire not to know in regards to instructional

suggestions, such as through past participants who argued that simulations were a useful tool to teach the Holocaust. For example, during a 2014 session, Elizabeth recalled:

> We were talking about some appropriate resources to use in your classroom and also why simulations are not appropriate for the classroom when teaching the Holocaust. And that was really interesting for me because I had a lot of people that disagreed with that. And you know, they're going to do whatever they think is appropriate in their own classroom, but that's really a big no no in Holocaust education. No simulations because no simulation is going to recreate what people went through during that time. But we had a really heated discussion about, like I want my students to feel this, how are they going to feel this if we don't do this? I really try and get them away from the shock and awe approach…I thought they would kind of see the light, like oh yeah, I can definitely see that I should not be doing this, but there were a lot of people that said maybe if I do it the correct way or maybe if it's in a controlled environment. But I think by the end of the week, I basically told them, the way I look at a simulation is that you are not honoring survivors and victims the way that they should be. You're kind of diminishing what they went through and their experience. And I think in order to get students to feel, that's when you look at individuals that were affected by this history and talking about them and watching testimony or inviting a survivor to come speak to your class. And I think that's the way that you get them to feel. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10)

Elizabeth also described past participants who balked after learning a popular historical fiction novel, *The Boy in the Striped Pajamas*, was historically inaccurate and romanticized the Holocaust, and therefore was inappropriate for teaching the content. During the 2015 sessions, however, participants seemed to accept Elizabeth's suggestions to avoid certain resources such as *The Boy in the Striped Pajamas*. During Session One, my field notes included these annotations:

> "How are you defining romanticized when talking about novels?" One participant asks Elizabeth to define what she means by romanticized. Elizabeth says to make sure it's based in reality, is realistic, and is historically accurate. She mentions at this point that

> *Boy in the Striped Pajamas* is not a good book to use in the classroom because while it is engaging and easy for students to read, it fits her definition of romanticized because it is not historically accurate, it is not based in reality, it did not happen or could not happen. The participant seems ok with this answer. Elizabeth lets them know she has a list of recommended reading for them. She shares a couple of texts, *Salvaged Pages* and *Witness: Voices of the Holocaust*. She cautions them to check the resource first because some of them are candid. (Field notes, July 15)

Participants who exhibit the desire not to know may lead to the employment of surface acting as a means of carrying out emotional labor in response to frustration and anger that may arise in such situations. However, participants during the 2015 sessions seemed receptive to Elizabeth's statements concerning *The Boy in the Striped Pajamas*, or advice to shun simulations. She did not avoid addressing these topics based on her past experience, but explained her reasons for the suggestions, and in the case of the text, offered other books such as *Salvaged Pages* as alternatives.

Closely connected to the ideas behind difficult knowledge, in Elizabeth's case at least, was the idea of pedagogical caring. Pedagogical caring includes using a variety of activities to cover material, engaging students, and trying to reach all learners (Hargreaves, 1998). Elizabeth's concern about how the Holocaust was taught in schools, and helping teachers understand how to cover the material accurately and appropriately was a driving influence in her planning and implementation of the HEW. Evidence of her pedagogical caring was seen through her explanation to participants about avoiding *The Boy in the Striped Pajamas*, when she was careful to offer alternative texts, or in suggesting a focus on personal testimonies in place of a class simulation. Elizabeth stated her hopes for the HEW:

To have the teacher walk away with at least one new thing, or one new approach. To take an approach or to be more mindful of the guidelines of Holocaust education, I think are really important and to me that's a success. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10)

Elizabeth mentioned that she hasn't "actually gone out to see any teachers" from past workshops, and while it is too soon to tell definitively what changes 2015 participants may make, she did describe comments made to her by teachers that indicated they would make changes, stating:

I mean I think it went really well and I think for the most part…they seemed really open to what we were talking about…Some comments that were made also were I'll never use certain resources again. One of them was *The Boy in the Striped Pajamas*. Which is great for me to hear. That people had used it before and no longer are going to use it. I think there was definite growth during the week, which we like to see. Other comments were like "I look at this history in a different way and I'm going to teach it in a different way now." And now they have the resources, the background, and they have some of the tools to help do that. (Interview with Elizabeth, July 23)

Though Elizabeth described her desire to employ pedagogical caring and make the workshop interesting and engaging for teachers, the reality did not always adhere to her desire. Due to the focus on historical accuracy, the workshop was primarily lecture based, which rendered participants as passive audience members. One pedagogical strategy that was used, however, and referred to repeatedly, was the need to humanize the Holocaust by focusing on the stories of the multiple groups involved through oral histories, written testimonies and primary sources, or photographs. Lindquist (2010) cautioned against teaching the Holocaust through the difficult-to-fully-grasp figure of six million victims, and instead advised focusing on the personal stories of victims. Simon and Eppert (1997) suggested that using testimony to teach traumatic events should be taught as a pedagogical skill. Elizabeth did demonstrate a desire to humanize the Holocaust and included a session taught by BB on oral histories during the week, which focused on recorded testimonies from survivors and how they might be incorporated into the

classroom. During the oral history session, BB alternated between sharing examples of oral

history clips and providing context on each of the survivors that was the subject of the clips.

Participants were engaged throughout this session, and particularly interested in the applicability

of the clips in the classroom.

> It's time for BB to get started…He's going over oral histories first…BB offers
> suggestions for doing oral histories appropriately in the classroom, suggesting that
> students don't conduct interviews like the ones the participants will see, so no
> interviewing survivors because of the need for extensive background information to
> know how to guide the interview. BB shows several examples: a Hungarian Jew who
> was in Auschwitz; and another survivor who was also in Auschwitz. Everyone seems
> attentive to the oral history clips. I don't see anyone doing anything else. He checks for
> questions after the clip and provides a bit of background history on the survivor and the
> context (when Hungarian Jews were shipped to Auschwitz, etc.) but it's not too in depth
> and provides good context…Participants do ask clarifying questions, one of the survivors
> mentioned the sonderkommando and BB clarifies that and provides some background,
> details what happens during selection and gas chambers. (Field notes, July 14)

Another method of humanizing the Holocaust occurred on "Survivor Night," when

participants had the opportunity to hear a survivor speak and then participate in a question and

answer session with the survivor. According to Elizabeth,

> I think another unique aspect of this course is every session we have a Holocaust survivor
> speak to the teachers about their experience and it's a very casual atmosphere. They're
> able to have dinner with them, it's a small room, you're not in a large lecture hall, and
> they're able to share their story and I think that's really important because every day
> we're losing people in that community and there's this immediacy to get their story out
> there to have them heard. I think it's such an effective way to learn about this history as
> well, and it really personalizes it too. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10)

In humanizing the Holocaust, however, Elizabeth recognized the connection to difficult knowledge, as human behavior is often challenging to understand. In describing this phenomenon, Elizabeth stated:

> I always told my students and I tell the teachers, history isn't black and white. It's not, this was right, this was wrong. Human behavior is very complex, it's gray, it's messy, and I think it's important to recognize that, that these were human beings. (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10).

Humanizing the Holocaust also links back to Niyozov and Anwaruddin's (2014) discussion of understanding difficult knowledge as a necessity in preventing similar events from reoccurring. Elizabeth commented several times that, in addition to humanizing the Holocaust and examining complex human behaviors, personal testimonies of Holocaust victims also highlight similar issues that are occurring in the world today, which makes the history of the Holocaust relevant and potentially creates connections for students.

For Elizabeth, the main goal of the HEW was greater content knowledge. According to Schutz and Lee (2014), the goals, values, and beliefs of a teacher may influence how they place themselves in the classroom. In Elizabeth's case, with the clearly-defined purpose of preparing teachers to cover the Holocaust through accurate historical context, she played a smaller role during the HEW. This reduced role was a combination of her own planning, since she limited her own number of pedagogy sessions, but was also a result of Franklin's tendency to extend his sessions, which cut into her pedagogy time and therefore her instructor role in the HEW. She allowed the majority of the sessions to focus on content, and refused to interrupt extended lectures even when it reduced her own teaching time because she considered the history as the key factor in teaching the Holocaust appropriately. Although she did not always make clear connections between the social trauma content and pedagogy, which Pitt and Britzman (2003)

used to define difficult knowledge, Elizabeth believed a strong content background would enable teachers to better answer student questions and guide discussion. Additionally, while conducting the instructional strategies shared during the HEW, teachers would again be better prepared to ground those activities in accurate content in order to benefit their students. Stronger connections to Niyozov and Anwaruddin's (2014) ideas of difficult knowledge were made when Elizabeth discussed the complexities of human behavior and the atrocities that have reoccurred since the Holocaust in multiple areas of the world.

Despite the fact that Elizabeth's motivations and goals for the HEW may have contributed to her limited role, other factors also influenced her actions and role during the workshop. As the weeks progressed, Elizabeth exhibited behaviors indicative of a gendered role, specifically those that were stereotypical of females in teaching and academia, which may also have contributed to her reduced role—even though she was the museum staff member in charge of the overall workshop.

Elizabeth's gendered role. Even though Elizabeth never brought up ideas of gender or gender stereotypes in her interviews, evidence of such stereotypes was noticed during HEW observations. Recall that the HEW is organized as a graduate-level course for which participants receive three hours of graduate credit upon completion. Of the three areas of work typically associated with higher education—teaching, research, and service—women are most frequently responsible for teaching and service, while men are responsible for research (Bellas, 1999). Male professors are also most often considered to help students mature intellectually through their sharing of knowledge (Bellas, 1999). In the case of the HEW, the Executive Director or administrator, and the Director of Collections, who plays a research role, are both male. While Elizabeth did not perform the bulk of the teaching in this instance, she was in charge of planning

and logistics for the workshop overall, or the practical side of the workshop. Franklin and BB, on the other hand, taught about their areas of expertise and could be considered to help participants mature intellectually since they focused on content. The sessions for which Elizabeth was responsible concerned pedagogy and the final project, and her area of expertise was teaching, rather than content.   Due to this designation, Elizabeth could be described as fulfilling more of an advisory role, which is also often associated with women in academia rather than men (Bellas, 1999). Elizabeth most frequently fielded questions regarding the final project, whereas Franklin fielded content questions specifically and BB fielded a combination of the two. This role also meant she dealt with the majority of complaints from participants who did not teach the Holocaust and found the final project irrelevant, which forced emotional labor on Elizabeth as she concealed her frustration over the complaints.

Emotional labor is also connected to Elizabeth's gendered role, which supports the findings of Bellas (1999), who indicated that professors do sometimes have to suppress impatience, annoyance, and anger they feel toward students, particularly when students do not take a class seriously or are rude. In addition, female professors are often expected to exhibit friendly behaviors and perform enthusiastically during class (Bellas, 1999). Elizabeth demonstrated these behaviors during her sessions when she maintained a friendly and positive demeanor, even while participants talked with one another or worked during her session. Her positive demeanor was particularly noticeable during the photo activity in Session Two, as indicated in my field notes:

> Elizabeth has to stop two times because people aren't listening during photo activity. All six groups are engaged. Elizabeth was trying to give directions and people are working on their assignments and focused. Lots of discussion, focused on the photos, coming up with themes, and they're not listening. She doesn't fuss, just calls for their attention a

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few times and reiterates directions, some groups were skipping ahead and not doing what they were supposed to and she repeats directions to get everyone on the right track. (Field notes, July 28)

She never indicated she was annoyed with such behaviors—nor did she mention them. In contrast, Franklin called out two women who were whispering to each other during one of his lectures, asking what he was missing, prompting one of them to explain she was only mentioning she was having a hot flash (Field notes, July 29). Elizabeth was also frequently interrupted during her sessions for questions, whereas Franklin was allowed to lecture at length without interruption. While Franklin fielded content questions, questions directed toward Elizabeth all focused on the post-workshop project or pedagogy, indicating their concern with successfully completing the project to earn graduate credit, and connections to classroom practice. She stated:

> So questions about projects, do they need to list the guidelines for Holocaust education like they list standards in lesson plans. My answer was no, your lesson should just reflect or illustrate those guidelines. They should just be embedded in there. Another question was just about citing things and bibliographies. Questions about resources, we get a lot of those, you know what are the best resources to use and that's why the one day I put out those books that they could use or I share different links to different websites with videos or suggestions with examples of lesson plans so they could get an idea of what an appropriate Holocaust lesson plan might look like. So things like that. It was a lot about lesson planning and their project, questions about can I change my topic because now I've gotten into this and I realize there isn't very much for this or I would really like to go along these lines instead because this is more interesting to me. (Interview with Elizabeth, July 23)

Some of these questions were asked during breaks, while others were asked during Elizabeth's sessions. Participants also asked her clarifying questions related to pedagogy, such as during the second pedagogy session when Elizabeth shared the USHMM guidelines for teaching the

Holocaust (see Appendix D), and an English teacher asked: "How are you defining romanticized when talking about novels?" (Field notes, July 15), prompting Elizabeth to better explain the need for texts to be historically accurate and to suggest texts that fit the criteria such as *Salvaged Pages*.

A final difference in Elizabeth's presentations was that she allowed for the longest periods of interaction and discussion during her sessions, enabling participants to contribute; this choice indicates that she was more concerned with student learning and showing links to pedagogical caring. Franklin, on the other hand, focused on teaching and transmitting his expertise rather than student learning (Field notes, July 13-17, 27-31).

Summary and conclusions. For Elizabeth, the themes of emotional labor, difficult knowledge and pedagogical caring, and her gendered role most clearly defined the role she played during the week, which was limited—despite the fact that she was the museum staff member in charge of the workshop. Content knowledge was a strong influencing factor on Elizabeth, as well as her concern over how the Holocaust is approached in schools and her desire to prepare teachers to cover the topic accurately and sensitively. For Elizabeth, this meant first and foremost a focus on transferring content knowledge to participants. Therefore, she designed the workshop to contain predominately content-heavy sessions presented by either Franklin or BB in order to accomplish the goal of providing teachers a stronger historical background, since that was the biggest factor influencing her planning process. At the same time, she recognized that the history of the Holocaust is difficult knowledge and attempted to exhibit pedagogical caring by involving participants in active learning during her sessions and introducing the idea of humanizing the Holocaust to aid in teaching the topic. Elizabeth also focused on preparing teachers to cover the Holocaust in an appropriate and sensitive fashion—as reflected in the fact

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that she included two pedagogy sessions to provide teachers with suggestions for instructional strategies and resources for their classrooms. However, as the workshop unfolded she allowed content to remain the forerunner, even permitting her own pedagogy session time to be reduced when Franklin extended his lectures.

Throughout the workshop, Elizabeth demonstrated emotional labor in multiple ways, such as sacrificing her session time, suppressing frustration over complaints from participants who did not teach the Holocaust, or constantly exhibiting a friendly and caring demeanor. Although Gray (2010) found emotional labor and caring to be gender stereotypes among female nurses, since education is also considered a caring profession, a similar sentiment could be applied to Elizabeth's role in the HEW. She clearly fulfilled roles commonly attributed to females in academia, in addition to performing any emotional labor connected to the workshop. Even though Elizabeth found successes and rewards in her work, emotional labor may also cause stress and anxieties. However, perhaps in part because of her gendered role, she never indicated feelings of stress, anxiety, frustration, or any other negative emotions during the week. Instead she remained focused on the participants and made sure that the workshop ran smoothly in order to provide the strong content foundation she felt was so important, as well as what pedagogy she could cover during her sessions.

Elizabeth, as the Director of Education, was most closely involved in all aspects of the workshop. Therefore, her role in the HEW (though much of it was behind the scenes) was more prominent than that of either Franklin or BB. Franklin, in particular, had a narrow focus during the workshop, although since he presented the bulk of the sessions, his focus and role as the intellectual authority was most easily recognized.

Franklin: The Intellectual Center of the HEW

As the Executive Director, Franklin's responsibilities extended to all aspects of the museum. For the HEW, however, he was responsible for teaching specific sections to participants. Due to his background as a historian, as well as his experience serving as an expert witness in cases against Nazi war criminals found in the United States, all of Franklin's sessions were content based. Of the 15 content sessions offered throughout the week, Franklin taught eight of them alone, and co-taught two of them with BB. In short, Franklin was responsible for the majority of the content sessions (see Appendix C).

While Elizabeth's role in the HEW was more multi-faceted, Franklin played a more straightforward and one-dimensional role. In comparison to Franklin, Elizabeth's teaching was severely limited. However, as the overall organizer and decision-maker of the workshop, she was involved in all aspects, with a great deal of her work completed behind the scenes or unrecognized, as in the case of her emotional labor. Franklin, however, was clearly the historian, and it was his identity as a historian that drove Franklin's planning and presentation of his sessions.

Two main themes emerged regarding Franklin's role in the HEW. These themes showed that, like Elizabeth, Franklin was concerned with the idea of presenting difficult knowledge, although he approached it strictly from an accuracy and credibility standpoint. Elizabeth was concerned with accuracy as well, but she also approached difficult knowledge from a pedagogical caring standpoint, whereas Franklin made no connections to pedagogy through his sessions. The second theme defined Franklin as the intellectual authority in the HEW, a role that was clear in his presentations, as well as through the questions participants asked him. He felt

that his background with Holocaust history was an important component of his background in relation to the HEW, describing it in the following way:

> A long career related to modern German history and particularly the history of the Holocaust. In addition to doing the research and then rewriting and publishing my dissertation as a book, I began working with the Office of Special Investigations in the criminal division of the justice department and for 25 years served as an expert witness in cases that were brought against Nazi war criminals who had gotten into the United States illegally. So in the course of that I had a much more direct and intense and at the same time broad involvement with the history of the Holocaust. Because all of the men I testified against had been SS guards at concentration camps or extermination centers like Auschwitz. (Interview with Franklin, July 10)

During the workshop Franklin repeatedly drew on this experience in his lectures, or in conversations with participants. His focus on the history was constant during the week, and he never ventured into pedagogy, leaving that to Elizabeth and BB. Franklin's role, then, as the intellectual center of the HEW was the most clearly defined.

Difficult knowledge. Like Elizabeth, Franklin recognized that the history of the Holocaust is difficult knowledge and that participants may be challenged in grasping certain concepts. He identified several topics he felt teachers struggle to understand, stating:

> I think the hardest thing for teachers in this class to get a hand around, or get a grip on, is how the transition from traditional Christian anti-Semitism as a matter of religion became racist anti-Semitism which in the Nazi view was a matter of blood and kinship. And it's a little hard for teachers to understand why the two are so different…two other things teachers have a hard time working their way through is how Hitler was able to do this, how the Nazis were able to gain such complete power in a great modern industrial state. And why in the view of many there wasn't more Jewish resistance to the Germans than there was. (Interview with Franklin, July 10)

Franklin specifically covered these topics during his sessions. On the first day of the workshop, for example, he discussed Jewish background and anti-Semitism; the rise of Hitler was covered on the second day; the third day contained a session on legalized persecution of Germany's Jews; and on the fourth day Franklin was scheduled to cover resistance and the righteous, although these topics were limited or removed completely due to time constraints during the week (see Appendix C). Franklin's belief that these topics are difficult for participants to understand, as well as his goal of providing accurate and credible history (which he felt he could provide due to his background), supports the idea that, for Franklin, accurate historical background was the strongest factor that influenced his HEW planning.

Franklin was supportive of state mandates to teach the Holocaust, though perhaps because of his view of the history as difficult to grasp, he stated: "I don't believe you ask people to teach something like this and not give them the advantage of instruction in it. I just don't think that's fair" (Interview with Franklin, July 10). He clearly felt that the HEW was fulfilling an important role:

> So a class like this, HEW, gives a teacher who may not have had anything like this, at least an introduction to it in a reasonably brief period of time with instruction by people who are experts in the subject with access to materials that are as professionally reliable and historically accurate as any that anybody's going to have anywhere. (Interview with Franklin, July 10)

Again, Franklin focused on the accuracy and credibility of the content in relation to difficult knowledge, and highlighted the importance of learning from professionals. Elizabeth pointed out the need for accurate history several times, although she also made links to the importance of pedagogy and humanizing the Holocaust, describing the difficulty in understanding concepts was due to the fact that "human behavior is very complex" (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10).

Franklin, however, pointed out historical concepts such as traditional vs. racist anti-Semitism that made the content challenging, but did not seem to consider difficulties teacher may have in transferring such historical concepts to their own students.

All three museum staff members mentioned the danger of Holocaust denial, but for Franklin this idea was particularly related to difficult knowledge and the need to teach participants accurate history. He stated:

> There are things about it that are very dangerous if they get mythologized or if they get to be made up…with the evolution of the internet has come substantial opportunities to gain fingertip access to information. The people who want to make mischief with the Holocaust, the deniers, the revisionists, the people who are just malevolent, anti-Semitic, or for whatever reason have a bias against this are destructive in what they do. You have to point this out for teachers and show a schoolteacher how, without meaning to, one of their students can end up on a denier website. The people who are the deniers have really gone to extraordinary lengths to figure out how to insinuate themselves into the internet. I mean they're proselytizing electronically with this. (Interview with Franklin, July 10)

Franklin further supported his position of preparing teachers to counter denial by providing a strong foundation in history, saying:

> I think if you put down a list of things that are most important about why teachers should be in a class like this, it's not only to learn the material but to learn how to keep the material from being misused. Because the stakes in this are serious. If you get a public consensus that denies or revises the idea that there was a Holocaust you open the door to this sort of thing happening again. (Interview with Franklin, July 10)

Franklin recognized that "in a week a high school teacher cannot transform themselves into an expert on the subject" (Interview with Franklin, July 10), but through the HEW participants were receiving "ammunition to address what will probably most likely be the questions that will be asked" (Interview with Franklin, July 10), which again supports his decision to focus strongly on

sharing accurate history with participants so they are prepared to field questions from their own students on a variety of Holocaust-related topics. In choosing the topics he felt were most important for preparing teachers to cover the Holocaust in the classroom, Franklin stated:

> I use my own judgment in trying to focus on the most significant aspects of this given the amount of time we have to teach it in. So I'm focusing on the evolution of anti-Semitism in history. The development of racism in the 19th century. The acceptance of racial anti-Semitism in Germany early in the 20th century. And then how the Nazis took racial hatred and transformed it into a coherent political ideology. I mean these are the most important things. I'm picking the themes I think are the most important to concentrate on. (Interview with Franklin, July 10)

This statement closely relates to his comment on the topics he believed teachers have the most difficulty in understanding, and it is clear that his expertise in modern German history contributes to the importance he places on these topics—as well as his decision to focus on them during the HEW. However, Franklin's reliance on his history expertise in choosing the topics he covered during the HEW did not necessarily align all of his sessions with state standards. When his topics did align with state standards—such as his lecture on anti-Semitism, which is listed in the United States history state standards at the middle school and World Geography state standards at the high school levels—Franklin provided lectures that were very in-depth. The session on Jewish background and anti-Semitism lasted for two hours and 15 minutes, for example, and covered much more content that teachers would be able to incorporate into their classrooms. While the session accomplished the goal of providing participants with the strong historic background Franklin advocated, it did not provide explicit classroom connections to help teachers understand how to transfer such in depth knowledge to their students in the most effective way. Franklin also spent an extended period of time describing the events in the bunker leading up to Hitler's death (Field notes, July 30th), even though it was not related to the state

standards and was not one of his identified topics of difficulty, showing that pedagogical connections did not appear to be a crucial concern in Franklin's planning process.

Franklin and Elizabeth did share common ideas in that Holocaust history is difficult knowledge, and that some topics within that history are challenging for participants to fully grasp in the limited workshop timeframe, as well as the goal of presenting accurate historical content to the audience. However, their approach to that difficult knowledge was markedly different, with Elizabeth introducing the idea of humanizing the Holocaust to help participants and their students better understand the history, as well as a limited number of instructional strategies to help teachers transfer content to their students. Franklin, on the other hand, focused solely on history—particularly on his self-identified critical topics that he felt were key in teachers understanding that history; it was this focus that was the major influencing factor on how Franklin designed his HEW sessions.

A final influence in how Franklin presented his HEW sessions was his personal experience as a university lecturer. This experience was clear during Franklin's presentations, and contributed to his role as the intellectual authority of the HEW. Franklin's implementation of his sessions as well as his intellectual authority will be discussed in the following section.

Intellectual authority. Franklin felt as though his expertise in history was a crucial component of the HEW and contributed to his goal of providing accurate background context to better prepare teachers to not only cover Holocaust history, but also to answer student questions and counter Holocaust deniers. He stressed that whoever held the position of Executive Director should have a background in history: "Whoever the director is here should be a historian with some knowledge of the history of the Holocaust and should be directly involved in this [HEW]" (Interview with Franklin, July 10). This statement reinforces his main motivation in designing

and implementing his sessions as he did—namely, to share content knowledge rather than deliver pedagogical strategies for use in secondary classrooms.

Franklin never varied his presentation style during the week, and his sessions were reminiscent of a university-level history lecture. All eight of Franklin's solo sessions, as well as his components in the two shared sessions with BB, consisted of Franklin lecturing to the audience for an extended period of time (Field notes, July 13-17, 27-31). He did not employ visuals to accompany his sessions and was rarely interrupted for questions, although he did ask for questions at the end of his lectures. All of the questions directed toward Franklin were related to content. For example, after viewing a documentary on Hitler, participants asked multiple content related questions, as indicated in my field notes:

> Franklin takes questions related to the documentary on Hitler. Someone asks where Hitler's paintings are. Someone else asks about the US helping to rebuild Germany after the war, said it was a myth, Franklin says no it's not a myth, and describes the Marshall Plan. Answers to these questions are providing more content and background for teachers. That's been the main focus so far during the workshop. More questions focus on Hitler's early life, how he cherry picked ideas, wasn't really a theorist. Franklin suggests Kershaw's biography of Hitler, and discusses Hitler's early life, it's influence, how he was looking for things to validate his already held anti-Semitic beliefs. One participant asks a two-part question about documents and national security. Franklin explains that docs US had that were related to WWII have been declassified. Now he's discussing what happened in the bunker and what was done with the corpses afterward, which were completely destroyed by burning. Yes, source of misconception about his survival, which Franklin says comes mostly from Stalin and his paranoia that Hitler wasn't really dead. Addresses other misconceptions, about Hitler having syphilis, which was not true; early relationship with younger cousin; he was heterosexual; Hitler did not have Jewish relatives. Addresses misconception and then provides background history/accurate information on each misconception. More history questions-why did Hitler have leadership of SA murdered? (Field notes, July 14)

Frequently, the questions he was asked resulted in lengthy answers that led to further lecture that sometimes seemed to stray from the topic, and this phenomenon occurred during each of the question-and-answer periods after Franklin's sessions. It was evident early on during each week that participants had difficulty keeping up with the flood of information, and would often tune out for periods of time, as indicated in my notes:

> Very lengthy answers to questions again, moving into history lecture. Providing lots of background information though, lots of content. I can't remember how we got from Hitler's early life to the Battle of Stalingrad. I think interest is lost faster this morning than the lecture yesterday. There are a few people whispering, looking at documents or their computer, doing other things, and seemingly not paying attention to Franklin. (Field notes, July 14)

In discussing development intervention or development practice, Wilson (2006) defined a technocrat as a "professional expert who engages in developmental work" (p. 501) and a professional expert as "someone who combines theoretical knowledge and experiential knowledge that is derived from professional practice" (p. 502). As a professional historian engaged in helping educators better understand Holocaust history, the term technocrat could be applied to Franklin. Franklin certainly possessed the theoretical and experiential knowledge from his experiences as a historian and professor, and this is what he relied upon in designing and implementing his HEW sessions. The term "technocrat," however, is often used in a negative sense because development practices by technocrats often avoid engagement by participants and therefore limit learning outcomes among audiences (Wilson, 2006). Though the literature on professional development suggests that workshops have evolved to include more interaction and collaboration among participants (Borko, 2004; Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Park et al., 2007; Porter et al., 2003; van Hover, 2008), observational data indicate that Franklin continued to rely on a technocrat or expert lecturer model during his sessions.

Within the literature on development practice, Tapio and Hietanen (2002) suggested that a lack of public participation—or in the case of the HEW, teacher participation—can prevent different forms of professional knowledge from being shared. Within development practice, this lack of sharing can lead to poorer decisions being made. Within the context of a professional development workshop such as HEW, it means that teacher participants were unable to share their professional knowledge, which may have curtailed the sharing of ideas and practical classroom strategies developed from past experiences that might have been applied to teaching the Holocaust. Elizabeth, too, when her pedagogy sessions were cut short due to Franklin's extended lectures, was also prevented from sharing all of her professional knowledge. With Franklin acting as a technocrat sharing his wealth of knowledge, the focus of the workshop tended to be on the in-depth historical information Franklin knew—whether it was applicable to the everyday classroom contexts of participants or not—but did not draw on the plethora of professional knowledge possessed by other museum staff members or teacher participants.

In order to be successful in developmental interventions, Chambers (1997) suggested continuous learning on the part of all stakeholders. One of the goals of the HEW was to develop teacher abilities to teach the Holocaust appropriately, since studies suggest that harmful methods or resources are often used (Totten, 2002; Totten & Riley, 2005; Lindquist, 2006). In that sense, the HEW could be considered an intervention. However, a large group of stakeholders, namely the participants, were not directly involved for a large majority of the HEW, since the source of knowledge was centered on Franklin. Wenger (1998) made similar statements about the importance of interaction in learning when discussing communities of practice, which is another characteristic attributed to useful professional development (Borko, 2004; Garet et al., 2001; Howe & Stubbs, 1996; Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Kubota, 1997). In considering Wenger's

ideas about communities of practice, Wilson stated, "Organizational learning is not simply a matter of linear knowledge transfer from one party to another, but a process of joint knowledge construction through interaction and conscious reflection on practice" (p. 96). During the HEW, however, with Franklin's desire to provide teachers a strong foundation in Holocaust history, his sessions tended to manifest as a linear transfer of his knowledge to participants. With limited opportunities to ask questions, reflect on the information discussed, or share their own professional knowledge, participants were placed in a passive role and not provided the opportunity to apply their learning. Wilson (2006) furthermore described a community of practice as "driven by collective knowledge requirements for improving practices in relation to a defined problem domain" (p. 515)—in this instance, teaching the Holocaust appropriately. Again, however, with Franklin as the intellectual center of the workshop and disseminating his knowledge strictly through lecture, the opportunity to create a community of practice around the problem of appropriately teaching the Holocaust was lacking. Dadds (2014) described the tendency to assume "that change can be 'delivered' in a linear way from the 'center' to teachers from implementation in the classroom" as a "technicist view of curriculum and teaching" (p. 9), which closely describes Franklin's actions during the workshop. Dadds (2014) pointed out that within this model the expertise, judgment, and understanding of teachers are not incorporated, which is deficient in professional development models since teachers require the opportunity to develop and apply their learning, and since such models tend to ignore the variety and complexities of teachers everyday lives. Franklin did not appear to seriously consider classroom application and instead focused on delivering content without making links to state standards; nor did he appear to consider that teachers might need more than a strong history to grow or make useful changes in their teaching of the Holocaust. The lack of connection to the classroom,

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lack of interaction, and linear delivery were noted early on, as well as Franklin's tendency to run over his allotted time in order to provide further historic content to participants. For example,

> All questions so far from participants focused on content and background, history. Not much on how to use this in the classroom. Is this because they haven't really touched pedagogy in the workshop yet? Will the type of question shift when they get to the education portion? No interaction this morning among participants, movie and then Q and A about Hitler with Franklin, one break in between but no interaction or movement really. I think this has also run about 30 minutes over (11:15), which is running into the pedagogy portion of the workshop. Are they going to wind up with mostly history and very little pedagogy or ideas for how to implement these things into the classroom? This is covering some pretty detailed information and history here. How much of this can they actually use in the classroom? No movement yet (11:22) to stop questions or to move onto the next session. Could they put together a resource covering some of these misconceptions to hand out so they don't have to spend so much time focusing on them, and that might potentially cut down on Q and A time regarding Hitler? It would also give teachers something in hand to take to the classroom they could potentially use with their students. At 11:24 Elizabeth finally wanders up to the front of the room. Participant directly in front of me makes a slashing mark at her throat several times, recognizing that Franklin has gone over and they are well into the time for the next session. Does this also indicate a lack or loss of interest in the topic? At least 6 participants have indicated they are not paying attention, or are tired of the topic by making comments to each other, laughing and talking with each other or doing other things rather than paying attention to the lecture. Elizabeth has changed the PowerPoint from her title slide to the first slide which calls for group discussion about the articles they read last night, but hasn't motioned to Franklin he needs to wrap up. It's now 11:30am, I think she was supposed to start at 10:45. Yes, she was, I confirmed with BB. (Field notes, July 14)

Like Wilson (2006), Dadds (2014) mentioned the insights, practice, experiences, perspectives, and anxieties that teachers possess and bring to professional development. They may also harbor preconceptions, disagreements, or differences in their thinking. These

comments align with Knowles (1990) ideas about adult learning theory, which suggests that adults draw on their prior knowledge and experiences to learn and process new information. However, with Franklin assuming the role of a technocrat, participants were not afforded the opportunity to use their previous knowledge or experience, collaborate, or reflect on the new knowledge presented to them. Franklin, then, did not nurture participant's "professional self," which Dadds (2014) suggested is crucial in professional development.

In examining models of participatory development in New Zealand, Sanderson and Kindon (2004) made the following observation:

> Frameworks of participation both enable and constrain the ability of different stakeholders to participate in the knowledge that they produce. Iterating the participatory frameworks and methods themselves, thereby making implicit knowledge explicit, can potentially ensure that the expression and inclusion of different knowledges can be facilitated within a participatory process, rather than subordinated. (p. 125)

By allowing teachers to participate more frequently during the HEW, their implicit knowledge would be made explicit, allowing different and relevant sources of knowledge to be shared, the teachers' professional selves to develop, and could perhaps make the workshop more relevant to their personal classroom contexts.

Summary and conclusions. Throughout the week, Franklin was clearly the intellectual authority of the HEW, as evidenced by his content-driven actions as an instructor, as well as the types of questions he fielded from participants during breaks. Benne (1970) describes authority in the following way:

> . . . a function of concrete human situations however large or complex the situation may be. It operates in situations in which a person or group, fulfilling some purpose, project, or need, requires guidance or direction from a source outside himself or itself…The bearer of authority claims competence to help the subjects of authority to fulfill some

need which they cannot now achieve through the exercise of their own unaided powers. (p. 392-393)

The literature clearly describes the need for active involvement in learning and particularly in the context of professional development. In Franklin's case, however, his teaching style more closely resembled Benne's (1970) definition of authority or Wilson's (2006) version of a technocrat. He clearly demonstrated his competency in the history of the Holocaust, and possessed the specialized skills, knowledge, and experience that Benne (1970) stressed as being necessary for authorities in a topic. Franklin's goal was to share his expertise related to Holocaust and modern German history with participants in order to provide them a strong foundation to better cover the topic with students. This goal drove his planning and implementation of his sessions, which all revolved strictly around content. It was obvious that Franklin left the connections to pedagogy and the classroom to Elizabeth and BB, thereby remaining firmly in the role of the intellectual authority for the duration of the workshop.

BB: The Practical Center of the HEW

As the Director of Collections, BB's responsibilities at the museum were predominately focused on the library and archives. His responsibilities regarding HEW were strictly teaching, and he described his position as such, stating,

> I'm of one of the guys who just shows up and teaches what I'm supposed to teach. I have some input as far as the components that I'm going to do for the genocide parts. Other than that I'm kind of out of the planning. Usually I'm asked about duration and things like that, how long this section should be, or if this section can be moved from one place to another and that sort of thing. (Interview with BB, May 29)

Other than these logistical components related to his sessions, BB was not involved in the overall planning of the HEW and prepared only the sessions he conducted. During the 2015 HEW, BB

led five sessions individually, and co-taught two sessions with Franklin. Despite the fact that BB covered several Holocaust-related topics such as non-Jewish victims, intervention, Auschwitz, and Nuremburg, his area of expertise targeted other 20th century genocides. For example, he taught a session on Rwanda and had intended to cover Darfur as well; however, he had to reduce this lecture during the first session, and removed it completely from the second session, due to time constraints. Another area of BB's expertise was oral histories. In fact, BB conducted such interviews for the museum, resulting in BB leading the oral history session during the HEW.

Three main themes emerged from interviews and observation data regarding BB's role in the HEW. Like Elizabeth and Franklin, the idea of the Holocaust as difficult knowledge does influence his planning process. BB, however, more closely aligned with Elizabeth's stance on the Holocaust as difficult knowledge, as he did have pedagogical concerns related to teaching the topic as described by Pitt and Britzman (2003). BB's evident concern for pedagogy led to his second theme of relevancy and curricular connections between HEW and the classroom. Finally, since BB has worked with HEW the longest, he had a stronger professional identity related to the workshop and strong opinions regarding its usefulness and design in comparison to Elizabeth and Franklin. These themes defined BB's role as the practical center of the HEW.

Difficult knowledge. Like Elizabeth and Franklin, BB considered the Holocaust to be difficult knowledge and described how participants typically struggle with the complexities of the history, stating, "These are real people, they have real motives, you can't put the spaghetti western black or white hat on them" (Interview with BB, May 29). He indicated that teachers frequently want an easy explanation that neatly breaks down the history of an event into good and evil. In fact, he described helping participants understand the complex history of the Holocaust as "probably one of the hardest pieces we try to get across, is that unfortunately

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history is very complicated and in order to present it accurately it gets really ugly really fast," (Interview with BB, May 29). BB found that teachers also frequently struggled with . . .

> . . . that question of how and why and even though I try to address that a little bit and even lead them away from that and tell them you're not going to get this answer, there is no answer for this, nobody knows the answer for this. The more they learn and the more they hear, the more those questions come back up. (Interview with BB, May 29)

It was clear that all three museum staff members held similar ideas about the Holocaust being difficult for teachers to fully understand, particularly in the limited workshop timeframe. Perhaps due to this idea of the Holocaust as difficult knowledge, all three staff members also indicated that teachers need a better grasp of the historic information in order to cover the topic in the classroom, which tended to result in a content-heavy workshop. BB, however, more closely aligned with Elizabeth's concerns regarding difficult knowledge, as he did suggest that the content presented in the HEW should have clear classroom connections.

With the belief that HEW sessions should connect to classroom practice, BB (like Elizabeth) did display some pedagogical caring (Hargreaves, 1998). Unlike Elizabeth, however, who focused entirely on pedagogy during her sessions—and certainly different from Franklin who focused entirely on content—BB tried to find a balance between the two and work classroom connections into his lecture sessions. For example,

> BB is up first going over concepts of genocide. He introduces himself and hands out an activity. Participants look over 5 quotes and think about who is speaking, what the quote is describing, and if the quote brings to mind a specific place. Group discussion about the quotations. Several participants speak up right away to answer the questions and give their opinion. It's very informal, with participants just speaking out to provide answers. After discussion, BB goes over each quote and gives a little background on where the quote came from. He discusses where he got the activity, and what the benefits to using this activity are. It offers different points of view (perpetrators, victims, witnesses,

rescuers, bystanders). It also shows the universal experiences of survivors, because if the name of the genocide or place names were dropped you wouldn't know which genocide was being talked about. (Field notes, July 13)

This particular activity shows that from his very first session on Day One, which covered concepts of genocide, it was clear that BB was working to help teachers to understand how they could use the information in their classroom. He also provided occasions for teachers to participate in discussion and share ideas, and though these opportunities were limited throughout the week, there were some instances for active involvement. Other examples of BB making pedagogical connections included providing examples of how to cover content in the classroom. For example, while he introduced teachers to the ten stages of genocide, BB stated:

> They are helpful if you're on the ground in a foreign country trying to identify genocide but "if you're a teacher in the classroom it's absolute rubbish." He explains why, that it's very complex, and he provides a much simpler explanation to use in the classroom, such as having an us and them group, mass murder, and euphemisms as easier ways to explain things you find in a genocide for students. He discusses definitions of genocide and suggests teachers look at what definition they're using. He offers further practical classroom advice: start simple, with two groups, victims and perpetrators because they are the most easily defined and have the most documentation. Put aside the how and why because "there's really nothing I can tell you that's going to make sense because it doesn't make sense. Try to distance yourself from asking that question. Present it as the history that it is. Your students should ask. Everybody should ask. But it's a really complex question to answer. (Field notes, July 13)

The idea of the Holocaust as difficult knowledge and teachers struggling to understand certain concepts influenced BB when he planned his sessions. Although he was only responsible for content, he was also concerned that teachers understand how to transfer that content to their students. This goal was evidenced in the fact that BB sought to make pedagogical suggestions and worked to break down complex concepts to provide teachers an idea of how to cover

information in the classroom. BB explained his reasoning for including pedagogical suggestions within his content sessions, stating,

> I think if you have good pedagogical skills you're more apt to be able to take denser historical knowledge and boil it down into pieces that your students can take away. So I certainly think that pedagogy is a huge part of it. But with this particular subject history winds up being the part that they're [teachers] really bad at. I think a lot of teachers come in with pretty good pedagogical skills but they come in with really bad Holocaust knowledge. So from my standpoint it's usually Holocaust knowledge although I think teachers get the most sometimes out of the pedagogical stuff and it's not that they don't have good pedagogical skills, it's that they're uncertain how to approach certain subjects, difficult subjects, like the Holocaust with the skill set they already have. And I think sometimes they're just not thinking oh wait a minute, I can do the same thing I do with this other subject, it's just in a slightly different way. And so I think that's, I mean I think both sides are really important. And I think that's one of the reasons why it's important to offer both. It's because some people, you know, there are going to be teachers in there who are going struggle with how to present it and do need examples of how to present it. (Interview with BB, May 29)

Perhaps due to his years of working with HEW, this statement indicated that BB understands not only the complexities of teaching Holocaust history, but also has developed ideas about an audience comprised of teachers and their needs. While he recognized that teachers already possess pedagogical knowledge and skills, many teachers appreciated suggestions and examples of instructional strategies for delivering content that is as difficult as the Holocaust. BB further commented that he would like to expand what he is able to cover pedagogically during the HEW:

> I'd love to actually do some pedagogical exercises with documents and stuff like that but there's just not enough time. We just don't have enough time in the week. But certainly when you bring those components in I think it goes better. I think they respond better to it. And I think it gives them ideas for other things they, even if it's not using that

particular piece, it gives them ideas for other things that they could use. (Interview with

BB, May 29)

If BB were able to structure sessions around pedagogical exercises, that would expand the

pedagogical offerings of the HEW and make even stronger connections between the classroom

and the workshop content and how teachers are applying that knowledge. In addition to

considering how teachers might apply the content he does present, BB also considered the state

standards and what HEW participants are actually responsible for covering in the classroom.

Examining the state standards and focusing on the topics included within the standards to create

relevancy further confirmed BB's role as the most practical member of the HEW.

      Relevancy and curricular connections. Multiple studies have confirmed that

professional development opportunities that relate to the curriculum and fit the local context

create relevancy for teachers and are more likely to be applied in the classroom (De La Paz et al.,

2011; Dixon et al., 2014; Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Loucks-Horsley et al., 1998; Porter et al.,

2003; Penuel et al., 2007; Thompson & Zeuli, 1999; Yerrick & Beatty-Adler, 2011). When

planning his sessions, BB clearly considered the topics within the state standards and focused

only on those that were included, creating the curricular connections and relevancy between his

lectures and the standards. When discussing his planning process BB stated:

> Almost all of my teaching is guided by is what they can actually take away. You know if
> they can't really take it away in any way I feel like it's probably a waste of my time to do
> it. I really want them to be able to take something I'm telling them and use it in some
> way. (Interview with BB, May 29)

During the planning process, BB was responsible for choosing the topics he covered during his

sessions. While it was clear that BB would have liked to discuss lesser-known genocides, such

as the one that occurred in Guatemala, it lacked a strong curricular link. Thus, he indicated that

he avoids the topic each year, choosing instead to focus on Rwanda or Cambodia, since those genocides are mentioned within state standards. This decision to focus strictly on topics included within state standards indicates that BB is aware of the influence of standards on the classroom. During his sessions, BB worked to create connections, while at the same time maintaining relevancy with the classroom during a time when high-stakes testing tends to dictate what information is covered and when. BB put it this way:

> A lot of it comes down to honestly what I think a teacher may be able to walk away with and use in some fashion. It's especially difficult for outside of the Holocaust when you're talking about other genocides, and that's one of the ways I try to pick the genocides I'm going to cover. It's based on what some of-I know not all of them, but what some of the teachers might be covering within the context of something else. For example, I often teach Cambodia because I know that there are a lot of history teachers who in high school are going to be covering the Vietnam War. And you can't really talk about the Cambodian genocide without talking about the Vietnam War. So it fits well within that compartment. If things don't fit within that compartment then I don't cover them. For example, I'd love to cover Guatemala at some point, but it fits within nothing almost. I mean almost nobody is going to be able to walk away and be able to teach it. (Interview with BB, May 29)

BB had also altered his sessions in the past to include topics of particular interest to teacher-participants. For example, "I started sort of doing some small pieces on Native Americans because there are a lot of US history teachers and I knew ok, you can take this and you can actually drop this into a class" (Interview with BB, May 29). Again, BB relied on the standards—and in this instance, teacher interest—to guide his planning process and ensure that the topics were useful to teachers and aligned with the standards. This consistent reliance on the standards to create relevancy highlights BB's practical role in the HEW; he was clearly the museum staff member who worked to combine both content and pedagogy rather than focusing

solely on one or the other. The literature suggests that when the realities of teachers are not taken into account during a PD opportunity, workshop information is less likely to be used in the classroom (O'Sullivan, 2002). While BB incorporated classroom realities in his own sessions, he indicated that other sessions did not do so. Specifically, he told me during an informal conversation on Day Two of the HEW that the 90-minute Hitler documentary that Franklin showed in its entirety was not helpful because teachers would be unable to use it in the classroom due to its length (Field notes, July 14).

Among the three staff members, BB was the one who took pedagogical practices into account the most in delivering HEW content. Rodrigues (2006) suggested that when teachers are engaged in a task that directly relates to their classrooms, they take ownership of the activity and information, and are more likely to transfer that information into the classroom. While Elizabeth did involve teachers in activities that could be directly implemented in the classroom, her sessions focused more on the actual strategy rather than content. BB, however, did work to engage teachers with that content and helped them understand how to apply learned content in the classroom. An example of this process was the quote activity on Day One, during which teachers had the opportunity to discuss the quotes, but also to consider how the activity would be useful as an instructional strategy. Later in the week he shared video clips of oral testimonies that were classroom-appropriate and discussed how oral histories were useful as a teaching tool (Field notes, July 14). He also indicated that he also took classroom time constraints into consideration by providing short clips that could be easily incorporated into a lesson without requiring a large time commitment (unlike Franklin's 90-minute Hitler documentary).

Of the three museum staff members involved in the HEW, BB demonstrated the longest history with the workshop. As such, he had the longest period of time to develop a professional

identity related to the workshop and to understand the needs of teacher participants—despite the fact that he lacked K-12 classroom experience himself. This professional identity, in part, has helped BB understand the necessity in creating relevancy and curricular connections and to develop his role as the most practical member of the HEW.

       Professional identity. Sachs (2005) described a professional identity as something that is "negotiated through experience and the sense that is made of that experience" (p. 15). BB clearly used his years of experience with the HEW to develop his professional identity. He was able to draw on his past experiences as an HEW instructor and his interactions with teacher participants in creating his role as the practical center of the HEW. It is clear in his planning and implementation of his sessions that BB learned from his past involvement with HEW about what is most useful and relevant for teacher participants, how curricular connections are crucial in standards-driven instruction, and that teachers appreciate pedagogical suggestions even when they already possess that knowledge. He seemed adept as using this knowledge to inform his decision making when planning his sessions.

       As part of his professional identity, BB also demonstrated the importance of relationship-building with teacher participants. Therefore, like Elizabeth, BB could be described as displaying a caring role during the HEW. Elizabeth, however, displayed a more gendered caring role involving warmth and a positive attitude, whereas BB displayed a more practical caring role by focusing on intentionality within his sessions and providing some opportunities for active engagement within his lectures (Noddings, 2003). Noddings (2003) also posited that ethics of care is based on the idea that education is relational, and described relation building as the ways in which instructors interact with students. Flint, Zisook, and Fisher (2011) suggested that ethics of care should not be restricted to a teacher's interaction with students, but should also extend to

teachers as adult learners when they participate in professional development. Of the three

museum staff members, BB demonstrated the strongest attempts at relationship-building with

teacher participants. Some examples of these efforts were evidenced in practical interactions

with teachers, such as checking for understanding, pausing for questions during lecture, using

content to make curricular connections, or providing suggestions to help teachers cover complex

ideas in the classroom. From my field notes:

> BB talks about intervention, about how people have to decide how to teach it and what
> they want kids to learn. He asks do you intervene to stop fights? There is a discussion,
> participants share their experiences, what they can or can't do in these situations, more
> people contribute to this discussion, a wider variety, probably because they all have
> experience in this or know someone who has dealt with it and everyone could potentially
> share. This is making a connection to their everyday life and engaging them, creating
> discussion. To help explain the complexity of intervention, BB shares a story about a
> group of docents, during docent training who discussed how the Allies should have
> intervened during the Holocaust, but when he discussed Rwanda not one of the 20 some
> odd docents thought we should have intervened even though it would have been much
> easier and more effective. So BB asks the participants "should the Allies have intervened
> to stop the Final Solution?" Several participants engage in a brief discussion. BB isn't
> looking for definite answers, just getting them thinking. I imagine this is a question or
> discussion they could have in the classroom with their students, or that their students
> might bring up. (Field notes, July 14)

In short, it was clear that BB was intentional within his sessions with respect to providing

opportunities for active engagement; he wanted to make sure that teachers understood the

concepts he introduced.

Other examples of BB's relationship-building with teacher participants related to sharing

personal stories and using humor during his sessions. Within the PowerPoints that accompanied

each of his lectures, BB included a slide every so often that reminded him to stop for questions.

The question slides all contained personal photos depicting BB as a child or places he had traveled, resulting in brief tangential explanations about the photos. However, through these brief explanations, BB was able to share his personal history with participants and allowed them the opportunity to learn more about him outside of his role as an instructor, as evidenced in my notes:

> He stops to tell a personal story-his question slide has coffee and beignets, and he tells them about a restaurant that used to be here run by a Katrina refugee that made beignets on Wednesday morning, and when HEW was in session then he would bring beignets that morning. Then he says "too bad, the shop is closed now." One participant asks what he's bringing tomorrow, he says nothing! They all laugh, they can joke with him, they are comfortable with him. They more easily engage with BB. He's more personable and humorous and while he's throwing a lot of info at them too, and a lot of history, I think they feel more comfortable and are willing to contribute (because they have the opportunity, BB provides it by asking questions to start discussion or asking for questions) but also to break in and ask questions when they have them. (Field notes, July 15)

Throughout the two weeks of the HEW, it was evident that teacher participants were more at ease with BB. During informal discussions during breaks or lunch, several teacher participants indicated they appreciated his sense of humor and would be comfortable calling on him over the school year for suggestions or information (Field notes, July 13-17, 27-31). These comments support BB's success in building relationships with participants.

A final example of BB's professional identity is evident through his evaluation and criticisms of the HEW. Perhaps because of the lack of collaboration, or due to the fact that BB had been working with the HEW almost since its inception (in comparison to Franklin and Elizabeth), the evaluation of the HEW by museum staff varied greatly. Two distinct evaluations emerged, with BB holding one view and Franklin and Elizabeth holding the opposite view.

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These viewpoints were particularly noticeable in the interviews following the first HEW session—although there were discrepancies evidenced during the pre-workshop interviews when discussing past workshops. The differing viewpoints also supported the idea of BB as the practical center of the workshop, since most of his criticisms revolved around more strongly promoting the Holocaust museum as a resource, as well as finding a better balance between content and pedagogy offerings.

A major concern voiced by BB, which was noted during observation, was the reliance on material created by USHMM, specifically the guidelines for teaching the Holocaust, as well as the photo and timeline activities that were presented during the HEW. A tour of their website was also included, and participants were shown how to access other resources located on the site. USHMM remains, as Elizabeth described it, the "mother ship" of Holocaust institutions (Interview with Elizabeth, June 10th). BB, however, noted that the reliance and presentation on USHMM materials—rather than using materials created in-house, could end up driving participants toward USHMM instead of seeing the Holocaust Museum as a useful resource. The USHMM materials are free and accessible on the website, and the only benefit to receiving them in the HEW is the graduate credit hours. HEW staff all discussed the importance of creating museum-teacher relationships, but this goal may not be as easily accomplished if the Holocaust Museum continues to act as an advocate for USHMM, rather than promoting itself as a teacher and classroom-friendly resource. BB stated:

> What we hope they'll do is use the museum as a resource. The way it's structured right now I don't really see that happening. Because we're not selling the museum as a resource as part of the HEW and I think that needs to happen. (Interview with BB, July 23)

Reliance on USHMM resources prevents the Holocaust Museum from sharing its own expertise and collection. Staff at the museum also are in a better position to create materials that are relevant and applicable to teachers within the state, since they are familiar with the state standards and could tailor activities and lessons to meet those requirements.

BB also felt that changes made to HEW, which included the loss of a sixth day and a reduction in the number of pedagogy sessions, have hurt the program:

> I mean I think it's not as good as last year. I think last year there were more pedagogical pieces. There was more variety last year. There was more time last year as well. We actually shaved a good six hours I think off of our time…I don't think students are getting as much information as they did last year, or even in the years before that. (Interview with BB, July 23)

Many of BB's thoughts seem to have stemmed from what he referred to as the "balance" of the HEW. He stated, "I think part of the problem is currently the balance of the HEW is off. It has been for a couple of years. I think until we fundamentally fix that, I think they're all going to be off to some extent" (Interview with BB, July 23rd). For BB, this issue seemed to target content and pedagogy: "I think there needs to be a better integration between the historical background pieces and the pedagogical pieces and its just not there" (Interview with BB, July 23rd). The workshop was content heavy, with Elizabeth supporting the strong focus on historical background because she placed great importance on providing accurate historical information to participants and, of course, history was Franklin's area of expertise. According to Marcus (2008), it is common for museums to help teachers acquire knowledge in their area of expertise, and this was clearly demonstrated during the HEW. Elizabeth presented only two pedagogical sessions out of 20 sessions overall, both of which were cut short due to the previous session running over time. BB went on to say that the pedagogy sessions "don't really have anything to

do with what the other workshops are doing. So it's almost like they're two different workshops going on at the same time" (Interview with BB, July 23rd).

This discussion relates to the idea of PCKg. It was this relationship between content and pedagogy to which BB referred when he described the balance as being "off." According to Cochran et al. (1993), PCKg is "a teacher's integrated understanding of four components of pedagogy, subject matter content, student characteristics, and the environmental context of learning" (p. 266). While HEW did not directly address student learning or the environmental context of learning, it did seek to address content and pedagogy and provide teachers with a means of teaching the Holocaust accurately and appropriately. It was this offering of content and appropriate pedagogical strategies to incorporate that information into the classroom that made MIPD opportunities examined in other studies so successful (Grenier, 2010).

By presenting a lecture-heavy MIPD opportunity, participants were passive rather than active. They were not offered the opportunity to construct their own knowledge and there was little interaction among participants—both of which contradict the idea of learning as a social activity as described by social constructivism (Palincsar, 1998). In this instance, the environment, rather than the learner, is the driving factor behind the learning that takes place. Marcus (2008) suggested that when museum staff plan professional development opportunities, they should consider "educators as both teachers and learners" (p. 55). While the three interviewees indicated their understanding of this concept, it was not always seen in practice. BB, as previously mentioned, indicated that he wanted to provide a better balance of content and pedagogy, such as including pedagogical exercises related to documents and the museum's collection. Elizabeth also cited changes she would like to see, stating, "I definitely think there are going to be changes made for next year, maybe with session topics, adding in more pedagogy

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and different lesson plans we can use, using the museum's collection more" (Interview with Elizabeth, July 23rd). However, whether any changes will actually be implemented is unknown—although BB did state: "I'm certainly going to advocate for some different strategies for next year" (Interview with BB, July 23).

Perhaps due to these changes and the uneven nature of the workshop, BB did not feel as though the first 2015 session went well at all. In contrast, both Franklin and Elizabeth felt that the first session went very well, with Franklin stating that the participants in Session One were "intensively engaged" and the session was one of the best he had worked with in his three years with the HEW. However, BB described those same participants as "a lot less motivated, or a lot less enthusiastic" (Interview with BB, July 23), stating that Session One was one of the quietest sessions he can remember, and even described the participants as "lethargic" (Field notes, July 30). An outside presenter who shared graphic novel resources seemed to support BB's description of Session One. After receiving very little response or communication in response to his session, he commented on the "tough room," after which he appeared to avoid further attempts for interaction. The second session, however, seemed to be a better experience for both, as evidenced from BB's comments and the outside presenter responding much more openly with participants during the second week—including revealing personal information about himself that he had not shared with the first group (Field notes, July 16th; July 30th).

Despite these differing viewpoints, there was no evidence of visible hostility between HEW staff. As noted earlier, there was limited interaction in terms of planning the HEW, but the workshop came together and ran fairly smoothly (Field notes, July 13-17, 27-31). Many of Franklin, Elizabeth, and BB's goals were aligned in theory, and upheld the museum's overall goal of presenting itself as an educational institution. However, when it came to planning and

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carrying out individual sessions, the ideas were not always brought to fruition—as evidenced by the heavy lecture focus, promotion of USHMM as the informational "mother ship," and the mostly-passive state of participants. While a different, and more appropriate, vision exists, in which there is a stronger balance between pedagogy and content knowledge and participants are more engaged, this vision has yet to be realized.

Summary and conclusion. Throughout his interviews and the HEW workshops, BB consistently demonstrated his belief that in order for the HEW to be truly successful, it should provide teachers both content and pedagogy as it relates to the Holocaust. While BB was responsible for sharing historic content with teacher participants, he did work to make connections between the content and the classroom by sharing instructional suggestions, allowing participants to examine documents and participate in group discussions, and offering suggestions to aid teachers in explaining complex ideas related to the Holocaust and genocide to their students. Franklin and Elizabeth, on the other hand, focused solely on content or pedagogy, respectively, rather than seeking to bridge the two.

The key finding that emerged from this study of museum educators and the HEW showed that museum educators' understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust education greatly shaped the role they fulfilled in implementing a MIPD workshop for teachers. While all three museum staff members felt that a strong background knowledge of the Holocaust was crucial to teach it appropriately, they approached this idea in different ways. Elizabeth, who understood the importance of pedagogy for K-12 teachers, opted to relegate pedagogy to a reduced role and instead chose to design a content-heavy workshop to better prepare teachers with historic background. Though she was responsible for the pedagogical structure of the HEW, she allowed the content sessions to reduce her allotted timeframe, resulting in participants receiving very few

opportunities to participate in classroom strategies. In addition, as the museum employee in charge of the HEW and the only female instructor, Elizabeth was responsible for handling complaints from teacher participants and ensuring that the workshop ran smoothly. In order to accomplish this goal, she frequently employed emotional labor to hide her frustrations with teachers and fellow museum staff members and maintain a positive learning environment. She also frequently fulfilled a more gendered caring role toward teacher participants than either Franklin or BB.

Franklin, as the Executive Director and a historian, had the most clearly-defined role as the intellectual authority of the HEW. He lacked personal K-12 teaching experience, having worked as a university instructor—although he was previously responsible for creating resources for teachers in his position at the local public broadcasting station. Franklin strongly believed that teachers need a thorough understanding of Holocaust history in order to teach the topic, and did not seem to consider pedagogy at all in his planning or implementation of the sessions for which he was responsible. Throughout the entire week he focused solely on sharing his expertise as it related to the history of Germany and the Holocaust.

BB, as the practical center of the HEW, worked to provide a balance between Franklin and Elizabeth. Although he too lacked actual K-12 teaching experience, his extensive experience with HEW contributed to the fact that he was well aware of the needs of teacher participants and recognized that they wanted and needed both pedagogical instruction *and* content delivery. Therefore, during his sessions he provided some opportunities for active participation and made connections between the content and the classroom by providing suggestions for application. Due to the uneven balance evidenced in both HEW sessions between content and pedagogy, BB did not feel as though the workshop was as useful as it could

have been or should be—as was previously the case when the pedagogical component of the workshop was more strongly emphasized.

It is helpful to compare the three museum staff members to better understand their similarities and differences in their roles, planning process, and implementation of HEW. Figure 1 shows the similarities and differences between Elizabeth, Franklin, and BB.

ELIZABETH
Taught pedagogy
Emotional Labor
Positive learning atmosphere
Gendered role-advising, planning, teaching
HEW content heavy

FRANKLIN
Taught content
Intellectual authority
Academic background vital
Historical concepts difficult

Content
Difficult
knowledge
Historical
accuracy

Pedagogical caring
Active participation
Human behavior

Lecture

BB
Taught content + pedagogy
Relationship building
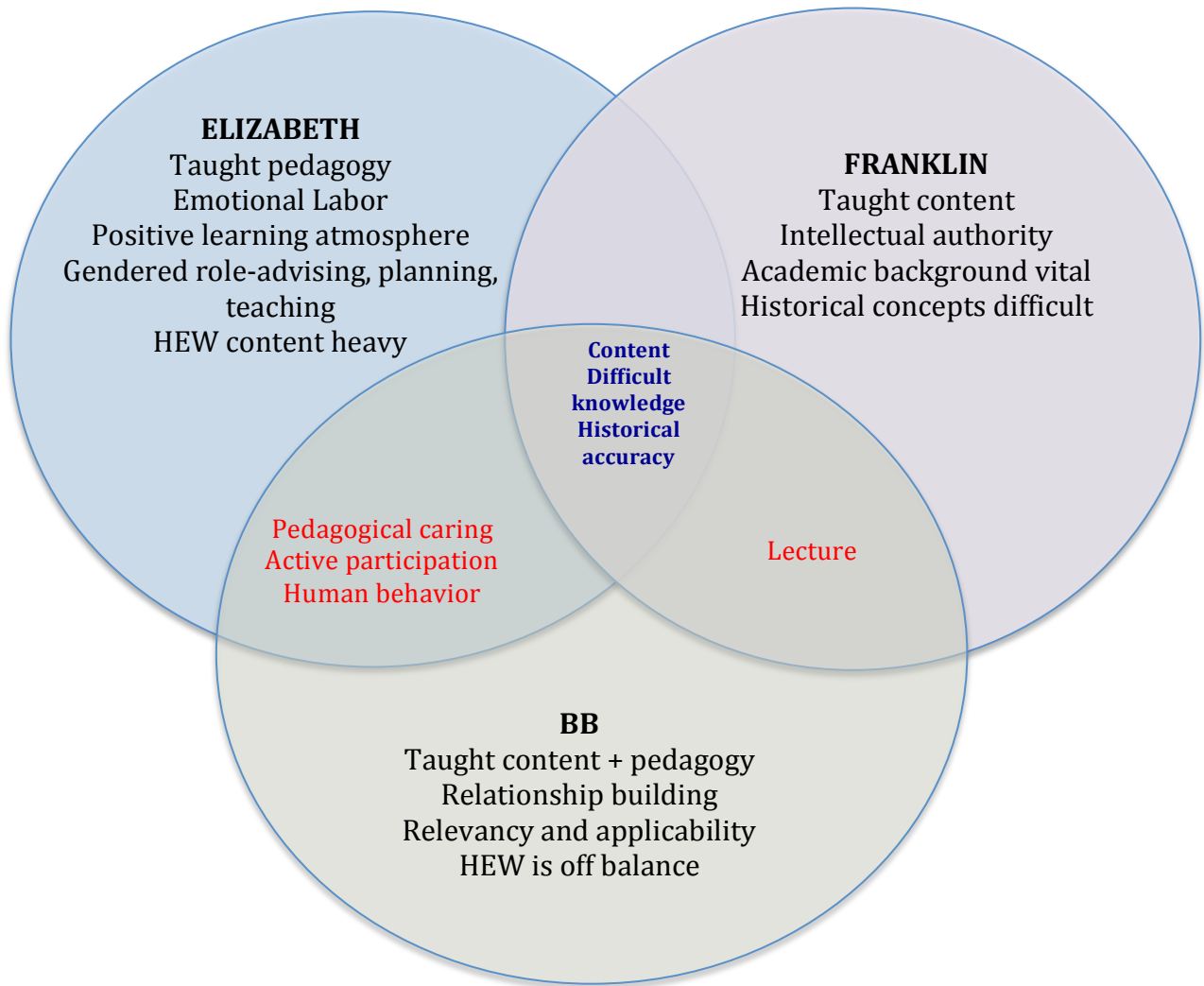Relevancy and applicability
HEW is off balance

Figure 1. Similarities and Differences Between the Three Study Participants

Figure 1 helps to highlight the roles played by each museum staff member during HEW, as well as their understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust education, and answer the research question, which was as follows:

1. How does museum staff members' understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust education shape their role in implementing a MIPD workshop for teachers?

The center of the diagram indicates that Elizabeth, Franklin, and BB all felt that in order to teach the Holocaust appropriately, teachers first and foremost needed strong content knowledge that was historically accurate. All three staff members also felt that Holocaust history was difficult knowledge to impart—although for Franklin this related strictly to content, while Elizabeth and BB also made connections to the need for appropriate pedagogy to transfer that content to students. The similarities between all three staff members were limited to these concepts.

Additional similarities between staff members were also limited. Franklin had little in common with his colleagues, aside from the fact that he and BB both planned and conducted sessions that included lectures. In contrast, BB and Elizabeth had more in common, stemming from their pedagogical caring and actively involving participants during the workshop, as well as the idea that Holocaust history is difficult to understand, in part due to the complexities of human behavior. Both BB and Elizabeth displayed pedagogical caring, although for BB this was demonstrated through his practical approach in which he worked to connect the content he shared to the classroom by involving participants in brief activities and discussion related to the topic at hand. For Elizabeth, pedagogical caring was demonstrated in actively involving and engaging the audience (Hargreaves, 1998) in order to cover the material. In doing so, Elizabeth also shared instructional strategies that were appropriate for the classroom. Finally, in their interviews, both Elizabeth and BB alluded to the fact that Holocaust history is a complex topic to

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grasp, in part due to human behavior and the inability to explain how or why people chose to carry out particular actions. As a comparison, Franklin (as indicated within his portion of Figure 1), felt that historical concepts were difficult for participants to understand.

The individual circles of this figure highlight the differences between the museum staff members and indicate their roles during HEW. To continue with Franklin, since he believed that historical concepts were most challenging for participants to understand, he focused strictly on content during his sessions, supporting his role as the intellectual authority during HEW who was responsible for sharing his vast knowledge with teachers in a linear fashion. In sharing this knowledge, Franklin's background as an academic with a PhD in history was vital to this role.

In contrast, although Elizabeth felt that content was the most crucial aspect in teaching the Holocaust appropriately, she chose to plan a content-heavy workshop and focused largely on pedagogy during her two scheduled sessions. She also had the most complex role during HEW. Though she was in charge of the overall workshop, she was removed from center stage given that the content-heavy workshop was led primarily by Franklin and BB. In her behind-the-scenes role, Elizabeth employed emotional labor in interacting with her colleagues and participants, as she worked to maintain a positive learning environment and accomplish workshop goals by suppressing her frustration at her shortened session time and complaints directed toward her from participants. Her role was also more gender-driven, as she planned the logistics of the workshop, focused on teaching rather than content, and acted as an advisor for participants in regards to their final projects.

BB served a more hybrid role, and was the most practical staff member in that he opted to focus on both content and pedagogy during his sessions, thereby making curricular connections and seeking to achieve relevancy and applicability of his session topics. Due to his experience

with HEW, BB understood the need to offer both content and pedagogy to the audience, and criticized the workshop for being off balance and not accomplishing this goal due to changes that were made—such as the loss of a sixth workshop day. His experience also has helped BB to understand the importance of relationship building with the audience, which he worked to achieve in multiple ways, leading to participants feeling more at ease with BB and comfortable in approaching him for assistance.

Though similarities between the museum staff members were limited, they did have key ideas in common, such as the need to provide teachers with accurate historic information about the Holocaust as preparation for teaching the topic. Overall, however, their differences were more noticeable as they contributed to the distinct roles fulfilled by each staff member during HEW.

Chapter Five will describe the implications of the findings as they pertain to the fields of museum education, professional development, and Holocaust education. Chapter Five will also describe the limitations of the study, and provide suggestions for future Holocaust related MIPD workshops, as well as areas of continued research in the areas of museum and Holocaust education.

CHAPTER FIVE.

DISCUSSION

Introduction

This study sought to better understand how museum staff at a regional Holocaust Museum understands the Holocaust and Holocaust education, and how that understanding influenced their planning and implementation of a MIPD workshop for educators. In addition, the study examined the role fulfilled by each museum staff member during the weeklong workshop as they presented their individual sessions to an audience of teacher participants. The Holocaust Museum, like many museums, has educational goals and seeks to support teachers; however, little is known about the museum educator perspective as they plan and present professional development opportunities, and what they understand to be of critical importance in preparing teachers to cover the Holocaust. This study then worked to contribute to that understanding and delve into how museum educators plan workshops to support an audience of teachers with whom they have had little prior contact.

Despite their primary role as repositories of the cultural, literary, and scientific history of a place, museums did not always strive to support educators. Over the years, museums have evolved from elite institutions catering to the upper classes with very little in the way of an educational focus, to settings for rich learning opportunities for an increasingly diverse society (Boyd, 1993; Hudson, 1975). In today's era of high-stakes testing, it is common for educational institutions such as museums to align their resources and professional development opportunities to state standards in order to demonstrate their relevance (Davis, 2005; Tran, 2007). Therefore, in designing lesson plans, field trips, and professional development opportunities, museum educators frequently draw on state standards to ensure that their resources will be useful to

teachers. Yet, even as both museums and teachers work toward the same goal of engaging and educating students using the same set of standards, there is frequently a lack of communication between the two entities.

Since many museums now offer professional development opportunities, I was curious as to how museum educators plan and present such opportunities for an audience with whom they interact only sporadically. In addition, the research examining museum-initiated professional development has frequently focused on the teacher participants, rather than the museum educators responsible for designing and presenting such workshops (Marcus et al., 2012). To that end, this study sought to examine an MIPD opportunity at a regional Holocaust Museum to determine how museum staff members planned a Holocaust education workshop, and what role each staff member fulfilled during implementation. The Holocaust is often the only genocide-related historical event taught in schools (Totten, 2001), in part due to the fact that over 30 states have now mandated its inclusion in the curriculum. Unfortunately and paradoxically, state boards of education rarely provide training for educators on appropriate methodologies for teaching such difficult content. Therefore, this investigation was designed to elucidate how museum educators understood not only the Holocaust, but also what is embodied in the term "Holocaust education." Furthermore, I hoped to learn how those understandings may have influenced their planning and implementation of the Holocaust Educator's Workshop (HEW) and gain an idea of how museum educators designed MIPD to support teachers. The following research question guided this study:

1. How does museum staff members' understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust education shape their role in implementing a MIPD workshop for teachers?

The remainder of the chapter will briefly review the literature and methodology that guided this investigation, prior to discussing the findings and implications of the study. The implications will address the HEW specifically, as well as offer suggestions for planning MIPD in general. The chapter will also review the educational significance of the study and review the areas of interest that were addressed. Finally, the limitations of this particular study, as well as avenues for future research, will be discussed.

Literature Review

Beginning in the 1990s, museums began to reconsider their role as educational institutions and began to set specific educational goals (Boyd, 1993). One way in which museums have focused more strongly on educational aspirations has been through the creation of the museum educator, a museum staff member tasked with helping the museum fulfill its educational mission (American Association of Museums, 2002). There is a lack of consistency across the field in terms of knowledge requirements and expectations for museum educators (Tran & King, 2007); indeed, their job description is likely to include leading tours and delivering lessons, writing grants, and training volunteers (Dragotto et al., 2006). After the implementation of the national No Child Left Behind act, museum educators were increasingly tasked to align their institution's programming and resources with state standards to ensure relevancy for teachers and schools (Davis, 2005; Tran, 2007).

One of the ways that museum educators have reached out to teachers is through professional development opportunities. Museum-initiated professional development is "programming designed and provided by museums to support the professional development and workplace learning needs of individuals" (Grenier, 2010, p. 502). These MIPD opportunities, which are often tailored to a museum's mission and educational goals (Grenier, 2010), frequently

have several purposes that include providing content knowledge, sharing instructional strategies, sharing museum resources, and creating stronger connections between teachers and museums. As evidenced by Marcus et al. (2012) and Grenier (2010), such opportunities typically incorporate several characteristics of effective professional development, such as a focus on PCKg (Kallemeyn et al., 2013; Ryan & Valadez, 2009), active participation (Garet et al., 2001; Howe & Stubbs, 1996; Porter et al., 2003), and an extended learning period (Borko, 2004; Dixon et al, 2014)—ideally resulting in positive evaluations of MIPD by teacher participants (Hodgson, 1986; Kuster, 2008; Melber & Cox-Petersen, 2005; Yu & Yang, 2010). In contrast, the available literature examining MIPD is lacking in terms of how museum educators design such opportunities. Available studies do indicate that museums and teachers lack strong communication, which points to the need to better understand how museum educators responsible for such community outreach activities plan and implement professional development opportunities.

Some professional development opportunities are designed to help teachers cover difficult content, such as the Holocaust, which is the genocidal event most frequently taught in schools today since over 30 states mandate its inclusion in secondary school curricula (Cohan & Sleeper, 2010; Keller & Manzo, 2007). For example, the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum offers workshops annually for English and History teachers who cover the topic. In general, however, teacher training to cover this sensitive topic is often not provided by states that mandate Holocaust teaching, which means that the majority of teachers will have to seek out information on their own through informal means (Donnelly, 2006). A related problem is that even when state-sponsored curricular materials related to the Holocaust are available, they are known to contain errors (Riley & Totten, 2002; Totten & Riley, 2005). Thus, determining an

effective method to prepare educators to cover the Holocaust is crucial. Currently, very few teachers learn about the Holocaust through professional development activities (Donnelly, 2006)—but given the goals and potential benefits of MIPD, such workshops may be a solution for preparing more teachers to cover this difficult topic.

Conceptual Frameworks

Two overarching frameworks and two supplemental frameworks were used to guide this examination of the HEW. Social constructivism and adult learning theory were used concurrently to guide this study. Social constructivism describes learning as a social activity, in which cultural activities and tools are crucial for learner concept development (Palincsar, 1998). Such learning frequently occurs because individuals need to gain particular skills due to sociocultural influences. Therefore, social constructivism was appropriate for this study since the HEW focused on the particular knowledge set and pedagogical strategies recommended by the state board of education for teaching the Holocaust. Additionally, adult learning theory allowed for a focus on the audience and their learning needs. Knowles (1990) developed the andragogy model, which focuses on learner-centered instruction for adults and seeks to help those planning instruction for adults. Knowles (1990) described six assumptions about adult learners, including self-direction, drawing on previous experience, and wanting to learn information that is necessary and applicable to their everyday contexts. Several of these assumptions align with social constructivism, and allowed for close examination of how the workshop was presented to an audience of adult learners with particular needs.

Two supplemental frameworks were combined with social constructivism and adult learning theory to examine the HEW. Since the workshop was planned and presented by a regional Holocaust Museum, museum-initiated professional development was used as a

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framework to observe how museum staff at this particular museum designed and implemented the HEW. It also allowed for a better understanding of how HEW, as an MIPD, differed from other types of professional development offerings.

Finally, pedagogical content knowing, or the understanding of content and pedagogy with an emphasis on how students learn (Cochran et al., 1993) was also used to examine this HEW. Numerous studies have found that professional development opportunities that combine content knowledge and pedagogical offerings are more relevant for teachers and more likely to influence classroom activities (Garet et al., 2001; Goldschmidt & Phelps, 2010; Kallemeyn et al., 2013; Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Van Driel & Berry, 2012). The lens of PCKg, when used to examine a MIPD opportunity designed by museum staff, offered additional insights into how museum educators planned the professional development opportunity, and what they considered to be the most crucial components when educating adult learners on how to teach the Holocaust.

Using social constructivism and adult learning theory—combined with MIPD and PCKg—as the overall framework for this study ensured that I was able to remain focused on the environment of the workshop. These frameworks also helped me target aspects of professional development that were unique to MIPD, how museum educators presented this particular form of professional development, and what role each museum staff member fulfilled in its implementation

Methodology

This qualitative case study examined the perspectives of museum educators at a regional Holocaust Museum as they planned and presented a weeklong MIPD on the Holocaust for teachers. The workshop was offered for five days twice each summer for educators and partnered with a local university to enable teachers to receive graduate credit hours in either

history or education. Data was collected primarily through semi-structured pre- and post-workshop interviews with each of three museum staff members responsible for planning and presenting during the HEW, as well as ten days of observation during the two workshop weeks. A researcher journal was maintained throughout the observation period to record field notes. The study participants were the three museum staff members responsible for presenting HEW: Elizabeth, the Director of Education, who was responsible for planning the overall workshop; Franklin, the Executive Director of the Holocaust Museum, and BB, the Director of Collections—both of whom served as instructors during the week.

Data was analyzed using First and Second Cycle coding methods as described by Saldaña (2013). Eclectic Coding was employed during the First Cycle process in order to strategically choose those coding methods that best served the purposes of the study. Under Eclectic Coding, descriptive, *in vivo*, values, and evaluation coding methods were combined to focus on general topics, participant voice, participant values, and participant evaluation of the significance of the program. Code mapping, or reorganizing initial codes into categories was completed in conjunction with Second Cycle coding methods. Pattern and focused coding were used during the Second Cycle process to organize data into the major findings of the study as well as to eliminate negligible or redundant categories. Finally, episode profiles were created for each of the three museum staff members to more closely examine participant voices using key quotes from pre- and post-workshop interviews.

Findings

The primary finding from this study indicated that museum educators' understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust education, as well as their personal experiences, greatly influenced their planning and implementation of the HEW, as well as the role they played during the

workshop week. While all three museum staff members agreed that the Holocaust was a difficult

topic to each—and indicated that teacher participants often have a difficult time grasping certain

concepts and themes—each staff member chose a different method of preparing the audience for

covering that difficult knowledge in the classroom. Franklin, for example, approached

Holocaust education from a standpoint strictly related to content, and organized all of his

sessions around providing teachers with in-depth historic background. Elizabeth, while she

agreed that content was the most critical component to prepare teachers to cover the Holocaust,

planned a workshop that revolved around the history, but focused solely on pedagogy during her

particular sessions because she was concerned about how the content would be shared with

students. BB, as the most experienced member of the museum staff, sought to connect the two

by making explicit classroom connections to the information he shared.

These approaches to Holocaust history and education led to three distinct roles fulfilled

by museum staff during HEW. Franklin, with his focus on history, had the most clearly-defined

role as the intellectual authority. Again, Franklin's understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust

education related solely to the history, and each of his sessions involved sharing that history in a

linear fashion through lengthy lectures. While participants were respectful of his vast and

thorough understanding of the Holocaust, his technocratic presentation mode led to difficulties in

not only participants following his lectures, but also in keeping to the HEW schedule. Franklin's

tendency to run over his scheduled session times had ramifications for the other presenters, as

they lost their allotted time and were forced to reduce or skip topics altogether.

Elizabeth, as the Director of Education, was in charge of HEW. However, her role was

more behind-the-scenes than either Franklin or BB; moreover, much of her work went unnoticed.

Elizabeth did believe that a strong grasp of content knowledge was crucial for teaching the

Holocaust, but she also displayed some concern for how that information was shared with students, and thus scheduled two pedagogy sessions to share appropriate instructional strategies with the audience. Both sessions were cut short, however, when Franklin ran over his allotted timeframe, and Elizabeth was unable to have teachers fully participate in the instructional activities as intended. In her behind-the-scenes role, Elizabeth employed emotional labor with both her colleagues and teacher participants, as she maintained a positive and friendly demeanor throughout the workshop. In particularly frustrating situations, such as when Franklin reduced her session time, or participants complained the workshop was not relevant to them, Elizabeth chose to use surface acting to present an expected emotional response rather than allowing her frustration to present itself. In suppressing her negative emotions, Elizabeth maintained a positive learning atmosphere, which contributed to accomplishing workshop goals. She also fulfilled a gendered role as the carer who was responsible for providing advice and guidance about the final project for example, rather than acting as a content expert like her male counterparts.

Finally, BB fulfilled the role of the most practical member of HEW staff. BB had the most experience with the workshop, and clearly drew on what he had learned over the years to create a strong professional identity related to HEW. For example, while he understood that teachers required a strong background in Holocaust history, he also recognized that teachers may need assistance in transferring that difficult knowledge to their students in meaningful ways. Therefore, BB focused on presenting content and pedagogy, and offered suggestions for how to apply the content he covered to the classroom. In planning, BB was guided by the state standards and chose to present only information that was applicable to the classroom, ensuring that his sessions had curricular relevancy. Finally, due to his extensive experience with HEW

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when compared to Franklin and Elizabeth, BB expressed concerns about the workshop and its usefulness and applicability to the audience. He believed the balance between content and pedagogy was lacking, meaning that teachers were not as prepared to cover the Holocaust as they had the potential to be. Finally, BB was also worried that the Holocaust Museum was not promoting itself and rather was acting as an advocate for the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, since all the activities shared during the week were from USHMM, rather than the museum itself.

Since the workshop sessions were planned individually with little-to-no collaboration between the three, the potential for each museum staff member to draw heavily on his or her own personal experiences and understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust education was high; as such, it appeared to be the strongest influences when the workshop was implemented. While the museum staff may have worked toward the same overall goal of preparing teachers to appropriately cover the Holocaust in the classroom, their experiences and understandings led to three distinct approaches toward accomplishing that goal.

Implications

Several implications for the HEW, in particular—and for the MIPD, in general—emerged from this investigation. With respect to how the HEW was structured and presented, it was clear that scheduling represented a serious problem that must be addressed in order to ensure that all topics can be covered for the benefit of participants. Due to Franklin's tendency to run well over his allotted timeframe, it was necessary to shorten other sessions or skip information altogether to keep on schedule. This dilemma was most noticeable during Elizabeth's two pedagogy sessions, one of which was reduced by half. As a result, teachers did not have the opportunity to participate in the full instructional strategies Elizabeth planned to share, and time for discussion

of those activities, as well as the rationale statements and guidelines for teaching the Holocaust, were limited. For example, the timeline activity during Elizabeth's second pedagogy session was cut short and teachers were not able to work through each of the categories she intended to cover on the timeline. Though they were able to place victims and laws on the timeline, teachers did not have time to work through the US and world response layer. While Elizabeth offered suggestions for using the timeline activity in class, she had to end the session rather abruptly to avoid encroaching on BB's time, which meant that there was no time for teacher participants to ask questions about the activity or interact with each other to share ideas or suggestions for classroom use. Similarly, while Elizabeth explained rationale statements and allowed teachers to write their own, there was no sharing of statements or feedback offered to help teachers master this task. Discussion of the guidelines for teaching the Holocaust followed the same pattern in that Elizabeth verbally shared information and offered several examples, but there was no time for discussion or brainstorming among the audience to determine appropriate use or applicability for their individual situations. By running over his allotted lecture period time and again, Franklin then inhibited the few opportunities built into HEW for teachers to interact and discuss the application of the material they were learning to their local contexts.

Social constructivism (Palinscar, 1998) and adult learning theory (Knowles, 1990) posit that learners need interaction and collaboration in order to fully grasp new information. In the case of the HEW, Franklin's extended lectures reduced the amount of time teacher-participants had to collaborate with each other, thus limiting their opportunities to discuss the significance of the information shared, as well as how it might relate to their classroom contexts or be altered to better relate to their individual situations. This issue also aligns with Knowles (1990) ideas of orientation to learning. Therefore, by addressing the time constraints first and adhering more

closely to the schedule, HEW may better cater to its audience of adult learners by providing

more time for active participation and interaction to process new information and brainstorm

ways in which it may be applicable to the classroom.

Related to scheduling (but also to presentation), a second implication for the HEW

concerns not only the topics that were presented, but also the way in which they were presented.

Again, these suggestions relate specifically to Franklin and his technocratic presentation style.

Though Elizabeth created a schedule that included 15 separate content sessions, the topics listed

on the schedule were not always covered, or some were covered in much greater depth than

others. In addition to extending his lectures, Franklin also had a tendency to get sidetracked

from the topic at hand, which often resulted in parts of his discussion lacking any connections to

the scheduled topic or the state standards. Thus, although the teacher-participants might have

been personally interested in the information—and were certainly impressed with the vast

amount of information at Franklin's fingertips—significant chunks of lecture were likely not

applicable to the classroom in any way. Since adult learning theory suggests that adults are life-

centered learners who want their learning to be beneficial to specific life situations (Knowles,

1990), it is likely that much of the information Franklin shared (particularly when he was off

track) was not useful to participants. His tendency to follow tangents in his lectures also

contributed to a reduced focus, or as was the case of the first HEW, entirely skipping certain

topics. One teacher-participant during the first HEW session was overheard expressing her

disappointment at lunch over the fact that Franklin never talked about resistance, which was a

scheduled topic for the morning, and one around which she had planned to create a lesson for her

post-workshop project (Field notes, July 16). In other words, this teacher believed that the topic

of the resistance fit her individual classroom context, but due to Franklin's presentation style it

was not addressed. While it is understandable and expected that instructors may occasionally get sidetracked by a question or comment (or a topic in which they are particularly interested)—or participants may express interest in knowing more about information an instructor shares—the frequency with which this phenomenon occurred during the HEW had a negative influence on at least one participant who voiced her disappointment. Remaining flexible in order to address the interests of teacher participants as sessions progressed, while at the same time staying on schedule and covering listed topics, is a difficult balance to strike. Nonetheless, in a setting such as MIPD, where participants are required to use information learned to develop a required workshop project, it is a balance that must be achieved.

In addition to Franklin's tangents and extending his lectures, multiple participants were overhead discussing their difficulty in paying attention for long periods of time when there were no visuals or resources to accompany the lecture, as well as limited opportunities to ask questions during lecture (Field notes, July 13-17, July 27-31). A handout with a timeline covering the events leading to and during the Holocaust may have benefitted teachers. A PowerPoint presentation with maps, photos of historical figures, or key pieces of information could also have been helpful. Such a presentation may have served to keep Franklin on track during his presentation, in addition to providing teacher participants with an engaging guide for the lecture.

A final suggestion for the HEW is to incorporate more pedagogy, and to ensure that the pedagogy that is offered more explicitly links to the content being taught so that teachers understand how to apply the learned content to their classrooms. While BB did work to connect the content he covered to either a resource or a suggested method for sharing it with students, he was hampered in doing so because Franklin taught the majority of the sessions. Studies show

that when workshop content makes curricular connections, teachers are more likely to use that content in the classroom (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1998; Penuel et al., 2007; Thompson & Zeuli, 1999). Creating curricular connections would also align with adult learning theory, in particular Knowles' (1990) assumptions that adults are life-centered learners and "need to know why they need to learn something before undertaking to learn it" (Knowles, 1990, p. 57). Making more explicit connections to the classroom would fit with the idea of adults as life-centered learners, since those connections would show how the information being shared is necessary and relevant to their classroom situations. Additionally, explaining how workshop content connects to the classroom highlights its applicability, and would help teacher participants understand why information and materials are included within the workshop.

Other implications that emerged as a result of the study, while relevant to HEW, may also be applicable to MIPD in general. As reported in prior studies (e.g., Cochran et al., 1993; Garet et al., 2001; Goldschmidt & Phelps, 2010; Kallemeyn et al., 2013; Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Kubota, 1997; Shulman & Shulman, 2004; Van Driel & Berry, 2012), when pedagogical content is purposefully incorporated to positively influence professional development experiences (i.e., the use of PCKg), teachers are more likely to incorporate workshop material in their own classrooms. Grenier (2010), for example, reported that her focus on PCKg was well received by teachers in a summer MIPD. It is suggested, then, that MIPD opportunities should focus on providing educators content knowledge and instructional strategies in order to create relevance for their audience of teachers. For the HEW in particular, advertisements indicated that the workshop would cover content and pedagogy related to the Holocaust; in contrast, as observational data showed, the focus was clearly on content.

One potential method to accomplish this goal for the HEW and MIPD in general is to ground content sessions around documents, artifacts, or resources that may be used in the classroom. By focusing on a resource, content knowledge could be shared about that resource, as well as the overall context into which the resource fits, thereby providing teachers with a strong background. Discussion could also cover how a particular resource might be useful in the classroom, where museum staff could offer suggestions, but teacher participants could also collaborate with each other and share ideas. Allowing teachers time to work with the document, and perhaps brainstorming instructional activities using the document, would allow not only for active participation and collaboration, but also help teachers to see the applicability of the resource to their individual contexts. Additionally, planning content sessions around a resource or set of resources would allow teacher participants to ask questions of museum staff concerning the items, allowing them further access to content knowledge provided by experts in the subject. A session designed in such a way then would provide teachers with stronger content knowledge but also ideas for how to apply that knowledge in the classroom, with specific resources, in ways that are appropriate for their students and the topic at hand.

Blending lecture time with a focus on resources could also highlight the museum's collection. In the case of the HEW, a concern for BB was that the workshop was not promoting the museum itself as a resource. By planning sessions around items from a museum's collections, teachers could be made aware of what resources the museum possesses and may be more likely to draw on the museum as a resource. Grenier (2010) found that an added benefit of MIPD in particular was the creation of stronger relationships between museums and teachers. Sessions that draw on museum resources may contribute to building those relationships, as

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teachers would be aware of the resources within the museum's collection and conclude the workshop with ideas for how to access and use those resources.

Designing sessions that incorporate content and pedagogy, and allowing teachers to work firsthand with museum resources, would also incorporate characteristics of effective professional development such as active learning and communities of practice—both of which also align with ideas behind social constructivism and adult learning theory. Creating curricular connections that fit the local context was another characteristic of effective professional development that may be achieved via blended sessions. A regional museum such as the Holocaust Museum is particularly positioned to make those connections since it is familiar with state standards and could tailor its activities to align with the requirements.

In order to design MIPD that includes PCKg, as well as characteristics of effective professional development, it may be helpful to consider questions posed by Marcus (2008), as well as the components of authentic intellectual work (AIW). First, Marcus (2008) suggested three questions to consider when planning MIPD for teachers: (1) What is unique about teachers as adult learners? (2) What is unique about learning at museums? (3) How can museum staff and teachers work together to enhance K-12 students' learning? As Marcus (2008) pointed out, these questions may help to design more highly focused MIPD for teachers. The first question would help museum staff consider the learning needs of teachers not only as adults, but also as teachers responsible for transferring content to diverse groups of students of varying abilities. Teachers must also contend with state standards, testing schedules, and a plethora of other factors that influence their day-to-day activities in the classroom. Keeping the unique needs of teachers as adult learners in mind may help to tailor information and activities to more closely align with

everyday classroom contexts as well as state standards, creating curricular connections previous studies have found to be so useful.

Many teachers are unfamiliar with informal learning strategies suited to museums (Marcus, 2008). By considering the unique learning possibilities presented by museums and understanding teachers unfamiliarity with them, museum educators could tailor sessions to focus on the distinctive content of the museum, and help teachers to understand how to transfer that content to students. Blended sessions covering content and instructional strategies as described above could help to accomplish this goal. Marcus (2008) also recommended that museum personnel share behind the scenes information, such as how exhibits are constructed. Sessions that draw on museum resources, whether they are archived or on display, could provide that opportunity.

Finally, Marcus (2008) suggested stronger communication and collaboration between museums and schools in order to best serve students. While both teacher and museum staff are experts in their fields, and both seek to educate, they often approach this task separately. For example, when teachers plan a field trip they rarely call on museum staff for assistance in preparing students for the trip. By the same token, museum staff who plan MIPD or classroom resources seldom reach out to teachers to determine specific needs. Strengthening communication could not only help teachers better prepare their students to learn in museums, but also help museum staff design more relevant and useful resources or professional development opportunities (Marcus, 2008), both of which would ultimately benefit students.

The questions posed by Marcus (2008) could help museum educators to focus more specifically on their audience of teacher-learners, as well as the unique learning experiences and environment the museum itself can offer. Those questions, when coupled with the ideas behind

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AIW, could help to cement many of the characteristics of effective professional development, as well as ensure that the theories behind adult learning theory and social constructivism are well incorporated into MIPD opportunities. The three criteria within AIW—construction of knowledge, disciplined inquiry, and value beyond school—naturally incorporate multiple ideas that align with quality professional development, adult learning theory, and social constructivism, and could result in engaging and useful MIPD for teacher participants.

By using the first criteria of AIW, construction of knowledge, teacher participants in a MIPD would be responsible for "organizing, interpreting, evaluating, or synthesizing prior knowledge to solve new problems" (Newman, King, & Carmichael, 2007, p. 3). Workshops in which teachers are able to apply their prior knowledge and skills to solve problems would lend to participants actively engaging in the learning opportunity and working firsthand with workshop information to determine its usefulness and applicability in the classroom. In addition, constructing knowledge with colleagues would allow teachers to not only draw on their own experiences, but those of their peers as they process new information and strategies. This criterion, then, would (a) allow teachers to experiment with new content or strategies to determine how the new information is applicable to the classroom (Little, 1993); (b) allow participants to actively engage in learning opportunities (Garet et al., 2001; Howe & Stubbs, 1996; Neathery, 1998; Porter et al., 2003); (c) provide participants the opportunity to self-direct and draw on their own experiences in an enhanced learning setting (Knowles, 1990); and (d) participate in learning as a social activity (Greenhalgh, 2000; Palincsar, 1998) while potentially creating communities of practice devoted to learning and teaching about the topic at hand (Borko, 2004; Kortecamp & Steeves, 2006; Park et al., 2007; Porter et al., 2003; van Hover, 2008).

The second criterion of AIW, disciplined inquiry, aligns with the construction of knowledge component in that participants draw on their prior knowledge as they work to achieve an in-depth understanding and share communication about a topic (Newman, Marks, & Gamoran, 1996). During MIPD, teachers are likely to draw on their prior knowledge related to content and/or strategies when considering the applicability of workshop information. By allowing participants time to work with new knowledge and create links to the classroom, in-depth understanding may be acquired. By engaging in higher-level communication with colleagues to brainstorm, share ideas, or offer suggestions, teachers in a PD workshop may help each other realize the relevance and applicability of the workshop content. Teacher's elaborated communication is likely to be demonstrated through presentation of content or instructional strategies to students, making the communication component critical. Marcus' (2008) first question (*What is unique about teachers as adult learners*?) is applicable here, since museum staff must consider how the information they share with teachers can be further disseminated to students within a specific context. This criterion of AIW then highlights the importance of PCKg (Cochran, et al., 1993) and designing MIPD with this component in mind could aid teachers in gaining a more in-depth understanding of their particular content area, but also an understanding of how to transfer that content to students.

The final criterion of AIW, value beyond school, describes the need for assignments to be useful outside of the school setting to make information and skills valuable to students beyond simply completing an assignment for a grade. Designing MIPD with this component in mind suggests that workshop content should be applicable to everyday classroom contexts in order for maximum relevance and usefulness. This notion closely relates to the idea found in several studies suggesting that PD content should have local curricular connections in order to achieve

classroom applicability and result in teachers incorporating workshop content in the classroom (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1998; Penuel et al., 2007; Thompson & Zeuli, 1999). It also supports ideas behind adult learning theory, which state that adults are often motivated by their needs and interests, and are life-centered learners who seek knowledge that is relevant and applicable to life-situations (Knowles, 1990), or, in the case of professional development, applicable to the classroom context. Workshops designed using AIW will allow teachers to participate in the construction of knowledge and disciplined inquiry, making them more likely to reflect on how workshop content is useful and relevant to their own particular classroom contexts. Teachers will have the opportunity to experiment with workshop information and make determinations or adaptations of workshop information for their own particular classrooms. In short, teachers will be able to see how the PD opportunity is relevant outside of the workshop, and return to their classrooms with more in-depth knowledge and practice, resulting in the use of workshop information in the classroom.

Considering these implications and the conceptual frameworks that guided this study, several suggestions emerged for museum educators responsible for planning Holocaust education MIPD for adult learners. First, incorporating Knowles (1990) andragogy model when designing a MIPD opportunity would be useful in ensuring that museum educators help their audience to understand why it is necessary to learn the information presented, and how it relates to their everyday context. Using the andragogy model as a guide would also ensure that the audience is provided the opportunity for interaction, since adult learning theory posits that adults learn best when they engage with their peers (Greenhalgh, 2000). By allowing the audience to collaborate with each other as they process new information, they would also be able to draw on their previous experiences, another aspect of the andragogy model, and share their professional

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knowledges (Tapio & Hietanen, 2002) as they consider how workshop content and resources could be applied to their classrooms. Many of these opportunities would also align with social constructivism (Palinscar, 1998), since the learning taking place would be a social event comprised of collaboration and interaction.

Second, active participation is crucial, and incorporating the ideas behind adult learning theory and social constructivism would actively involve the audience in the learning experience and avoid placing them in the position of passive learners. Professional development should provide opportunities for practice and allow teachers to experiment with new strategies and discover the ways in which they are compatible with their own classroom experiences. Multiple studies (Garet et al., 2001; Howe & Stubbs, 1996; Neathery, 1998; Porter et al., 2003) have identified active participation as a necessity in professional development, with Kubota (1997) arguing that teachers tend to teach as they were taught. Therefore, teachers who are actively engaged and provided time to experiment with new content and strategies would be more likely to use that same information and hands on strategies with their own students.

A third suggestion would be to ensure that the workshop presents both content and pedagogy, since numerous scholars (Cochran, et. al., 1993; Goldschmidt & Phelps, 2010; Kallemeyn et al., 2013; Van Driel & Berry, 2012) have indicated that teachers involved in professional development that incorporates pedagogical content knowing felt more confident after receiving instruction in both. While content knowledge is important in helping teachers gain a better understanding of the topic at hand and may contribute to increased confidence, they must also understand how to transfer that content to students. Therefore, if a professional development does not help its audience understand how to share complex concepts and large

amounts of history with students, delivering that content in ways that support learning may be imperiled.

A fourth suggestion is to make curricular connections between workshop content and state standards. Several scholars (Loucks-Horsley et al., 1998; Penuel et al., 2007; Thompson & Zeuli, 1999) have suggested that for maximum classroom applicability, professional development information should align to the local context. This relates to adult learning theory, in that adults are typically life-long learners who seek to gain new information because it is applicable to their everyday contexts (Knowles, 1990). When teachers understand how workshop content is applicable to their classrooms—and particularly if they have been afforded the opportunity to experiment with new knowledge—they are more likely to better understand the benefit of using new information in the classroom.

A fifth and final suggestion for planning Holocaust education MIPD draws on the benefits that Grenier (2010) identified as associated with MIPD. Museums should seek to share their collections and draw on resources within that collection that align with state standards (or the local context) in order to help teachers see the museum as a resource on which to draw for information and assistance. This could lend to another benefit of MIPD as suggested by Grenier (2010)—that of strengthening the relationship between the museum and teachers and schools. If teachers view the museum as a resource, lines of communication may develop between the two (as suggested by Marcus [2008]), which may also contribute to a stronger museum-teacher relationship.

Additionally, in regards to the power dynamic displayed at HEW, with Franklin allowed free reign in conducting his sessions, perhaps due to his position as the Executive Director of the Museum, a Director of Education in charge of planning a MIPD opportunity should exercise

their authority in implementing the workshop in order to ensure that the schedule is followed, objectives are accomplished, and participants overall are receiving all the instruction and resources planned for the workshop. By allowing one staff member to dominate instructional time there is a risk of failure in meeting workshop goals set by a Director of Education, which, as in the case of HEW, could negatively impact participants in completing their post-workshop responsibilities.

As professional development continues to evolve to meet the needs of teachers, the components that comprise authentic intellectual work—coupled with the guiding questions posed by Marcus (2008)—should serve as an essential foundation in the design of MIPD opportunities that enable museum staff to focus on the unique learning needs of teachers and the museum environment. In so doing, participant-learners would have the opportunity to actively engage with workshop content during professional development sessions to better understand how it may be applied to everyday contexts—thereby presenting workshops that are relevant, useful, and applicable for classroom teachers.

Educational Significance

This study sought to address several relevant lines of inquiry. First, although museums and schools both work toward the goal of educating students, they frequently work as separate entities with little communication and cooperation. Museum educators, however, plan lessons, field trips, and professional development opportunities for teachers—often guided by mandated state standards in order to ensure relevancy (Davis, 2005; Tran, 2007). Studies have shown that professional development opportunities offered by museums have been well received by teacher participants, and teachers are willing to attend such professional development offerings (Grenier, 2010; Marcus, 2008). However, exploration of the perspectives of museum educators regarding

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the planning and implementation process of such workshops has been limited; moreover, the process used by museum educators to plan professional development for an audience with whom they have little contact is not well known. Therefore, this study sought to contribute to that scholarly gap by focusing on three museum staff responsible for planning and presenting a Holocaust education MIPD opportunity.

Related to the first line of inquiry, this study also sought to explore how museum educators understood the Holocaust and Holocaust education, and how those understandings influenced the implementation of the workshop and the role fulfilled by museum staff during the workshop. The literature has indicated that museum educators lack consistency in knowledge and practice across the field, and not all museum educators have a background or training in education (Tran & King, 2007). Thus, elucidating how museum educators who may not have a background in pedagogical theories and strategies are able to design effective workshops for teachers was a second relevant area of exploration. Additionally, the Holocaust, as a mandated topic in many states, is often considered to be difficult knowledge to deliver to the classroom. Although teachers are required to cover the material, training for teaching this sensitive topic is often lacking. Therefore, understanding how museum educators approached the Holocaust and what they considered to be crucial for preparing teachers to cover the topic was important.

Finally, the study offered insight into a MIPD, which may differ from other professional development offerings in several ways, such as by drawing on the expertise of museum staff members, or by relying on the museum collection during the workshop (Grenier, 2010). MIPD has also been found to incorporate several characteristics of effective professional development, such as active participation (Garet et al., 2001; Howe & Stubbs, 1996; Neathery, 1998; Porter et al., 2003) and communities of practice (Borko, 2004; Park et al., 2007; Porter et al., 2003; van

Hover, 2008). In addition, Grenier (2010) found that MIPD resulted in stronger relationships between museums and teachers, which may aid in shrinking the communication gap between the two groups. Therefore this study examined if a MIPD at a regional Holocaust museum offered similar benefits and drew on effective characteristics of professional development while preparing teachers to cover difficult content related to genocide.

In summary, the educational significance of this study provided valuable insights into the methods, understandings, and perspectives of museum educators as they planned and presented professional development opportunities for teachers. It also examined how difficult knowledge was presented to an audience of educators through the MIPD format and what role each museum staff member played during implementation of the workshop. There are, however, several limitations associated with this investigation that must be addressed, as well as areas for future research that may continue to build on the understanding of museum educators, MIPD, and Holocaust and genocide education. These topics will be addressed in the following sections.

Limitations

There were several limitations to this study regarding (a) personnel, (b) the workshop itself, and (c) the potential for the workshop to change. The most significant limitation pertained to the length of time both Franklin and Elizabeth had worked with HEW. Specifically, both were hired at the Holocaust Museum in 2013, which was the first year they were able to observe how the HEW was planned and carried out. They then took over those responsibilities from their predecessors the following year. Thus, the 2015 sessions were only the second HEW in which both Franklin and Elizabeth were fully involved. Recall that BB had been involved from the inception of the HEW. Therefore, when compared to BB, their experience was much more limited. They had not worked with as many participants and did not have multiple workshop

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experiences to draw on when providing answers to these interview questions. And although they may have been aware of changes that had occurred to HEW, they did not have the firsthand experience BB did with those changes. Therefore, Franklin and Elizabeth were more limited in their estimation of how the workshop had changed and whether those changes were helping or hurting the HEW. Thus, it was only BB who spoke about the negative effects he felt the changes have had on the workshop. The perspectives of additional participants at this museum would have been helpful in elucidating the plusses and minuses of the HEW. Additionally, learning the perspectives of museum educators at other Holocaust museum would have made the findings discussed herein more generalizable.

Another potential limitation of this study pertained to Franklin and his impending retirement. The final day of the second HEW session, July 31, was his last day as Executive Director at the Holocaust Museum. At that point, Franklin may not have been as invested in the workshop or the study as were Elizabeth and BB, since he would play no part in the HEW the following year. While Elizabeth and BB spoke at length during both their pre- and post-workshop interviews, Franklin's interviews were much briefer, with his post-workshop interview lasting only 15 minutes and consisting of concise answers with very little expansion or explanation.

Finally, both Elizabeth and BB mentioned potential changes to HEW for the 2016 sessions—though at the time of the pre- and post-workshop interviews no decisions had been made regarding changes. Planning for the 2016 HEW was slated to begin in the fall. However, the Holocaust Museum was considering a partnership with a different university to offer graduate credits. The current accrediting university clearly had an influence on HEW, as they determined which teacher participants were enrolled in the workshop. The requirements of a

new accrediting university, as well as the extent of their involvement, could potentially result in a very different workshop from the 2015 sessions. For example, the influence of a new accrediting institution, new workshop staff (to replace Franklin), and a new workshop design could result in a different and improved focus—in particular, a more balanced presentation between content and pedagogy. An examination into the effect of any changes to HEW between the 2015-2016 sessions is one of several areas of potential future research.

Suggestions for Future Research

Future research in the areas of museum-initiated professional development and Holocaust education could focus on several different areas. First, a comparison of Holocaust education workshops offered by other regional Holocaust museums would provide valuable insights into similarities and differences between such workshops, as well as a better understanding of how museum staff at multiple institutions plan and implement MIPD opportunities. Such studies, in addition to examining the roles fulfilled by museum staff at a variety of institutions, would also allow for a comparison of the goals, problems, and influences on workshops between institutions to determine if those issues are similar or if they vary according to the institution and its mission.

Despite the fact that prior studies have examined teacher participant reaction to MIPD opportunities, none of them have focused on a Holocaust education MIPD. A second avenue for further research could focus on the HEW teacher participants, their reception of the workshop, as well as any influence the workshop may have had on their coverage of the Holocaust. Additionally, few longitudinal studies with teacher participants have been completed that explore whether workshop information has had a long-term influence on teaching. Such a study would suggest what workshop materials and information proved to be the most valuable, relevant, and useful to teachers, perhaps helping to shape professional development offerings.

A third area for future research would include a follow-up with museum staff at the Holocaust Museum. Since both Elizabeth and BB mentioned the potential for changes for the 2016 sessions, a follow-up study would offer insights into what changes were made to HEW and why. Such as study would also indicate whether any changes impacted the roles played by Elizabeth and BB during the 2015 HEW sessions.

Finally, while the Holocaust is frequently covered in schools, far less attention is paid to other genocides (Totten, 2001). Future research should examine whether or not professional development opportunities related to other genocides exist, what those might look like, and to what extent they influence teachers to cover other genocides in their classrooms.

Conclusion

This study investigated how museum education staff members understood the Holocaust and Holocaust education, as well as the role they played in implementing a museum-initiated professional development workshop for teachers. The major finding that emerged from this study suggests that a museum educator's individualized understanding of the Holocaust and Holocaust education strongly influenced how he or she planned and presented sessions during the workshop. Moreover, museum staff also tended to draw on their personal experiences when planning and presenting sessions to teachers—a finding quite evident in the case of both Franklin (content heavy) and BB (pedagogy-driven). It must be noted, however, that Elizabeth's personal experience was subjugated in favor of accomplishing the larger goal of providing teacher participants with strong content knowledge.

The findings from this study support the need for further investigation into the process by which museum educators plan and present MIPD opportunities for teachers. The data suggests that museum staff at the Holocaust Museum *did* understand the Holocaust to be difficult

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knowledge and had clear ideas as to the best way to prepare teachers to cover that material in class for the ultimate benefit of secondary school students. However, in practice it was evident that the roles they fulfilled during the workshop were more strongly influenced by those beliefs and their personal experiences—rather than by what would ultimately be most useful and relevant for their audience of educators.

In order to best support the needs of teachers as learners and to aid in the development of stronger relationships between museums and teachers, it is important for museums to consider the learning needs of teachers as adults and as educators—perhaps by incorporating the components of AIW in designing MIPD opportunities. Additionally, by creating a more balanced focus between content and pedagogy, and by focusing more strongly on the museum itself as a rich local resource, educators can increase the relevance and usefulness of MIPD. Despite the fact that teacher-participants did make positive comments to museum staff about the HEW, a stronger curricular connection may prove to be more effective for the audience. Such changes could result in an HEW-type professional development experience that endures well beyond five days of the workshop by enhancing students' understanding of the Holocaust in particular, and genocide more broadly, in ways that reduce prejudice, discrimination, stereotyping, and racism—and instead promote social justice and tolerance in the classroom and beyond.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Interview Protocol: Museum Educators (Pre-workshop)

<u>Biographic information</u>:
Describe your educational background.

How does this background benefit/prepare you to design Holocaust education workshops for teachers?

How long have you worked with HEW?

Describe your role in planning/implementing HEW?

How did you learn to plan professional development opportunities for teachers?

What factors do you take into account when planning for adult learners?

Why do you think it's important to offer a Holocaust education workshop to educators?

What benefits do you think HEW offers to participants?

<u>Workshop design</u>:
What led to the decision to conduct a workshop in the first place?

What factors, questions, and pedagogical influences guided your decision making when planning this workshop?

How do you take the state sponsored curriculum into account when designing a workshop?

How do you take teacher constraints such as pacing guide and mandated tests into account when designing a workshop?

What are the biggest school related issues/factors that influence how you design the workshop?

Do you design the workshop with a particular group of teachers in mind? (particular content area, grade level?) Why?

How do you determine which topics to cover during the workshop?

When designing the workshop, what is the end goal?
       What do you hope teachers get out of the workshop?

How has the workshop changed since its inception?
       Why have you implemented those changes?

How do you determine which speakers to invite to the workshop?

Do you focus more on content or pedagogy when designing the workshop? Why?

Do you think it's more important for teachers to have a stronger content knowledge background, or stronger pedagogical skills when it comes to teaching the Holocaust? Why?

How do you choose workshop participants?

What characteristics make a strong workshop participant?
>What characteristics make a weak workshop participant?
>Do you more frequently see strong or weak participants?

Which parts of the workshop do participants really seem to respond to?
>Are they typically positive or negative responses?
>Why do you think participants respond this way?

Are there any areas where participants appear to struggle?
>Why do you think these are difficult areas for participants?
>What do you do to try to make this area easier on participants?

What are your goals for these two specific workshops?
>Do the goals for these workshops differ from the goals you had for previous sessions?

Is there anything else about the planning process you would like to share?

Workshop materials:
How did you choose the materials (texts) that you ask the teachers to read prior to the workshop?
What was the goal/purpose in having teachers read these materials prior to the workshop?

How did you choose which text documents to share with the teachers during the workshop?
What is the goal/purpose in using these documents?

Describe the process for choosing which multi-media sources you share with the teachers during the workshop. What is the goal/purpose in introducing these resources?

Have you changed the materials you use since the workshops inception? Why or why not?

Who develops the resources introduced to the teachers during the workshop?

Who determines which pre-made resources are incorporated into the workshop?

Do you prefer to use museum created resources or resources created by other teachers/organizations during the workshop? Why?

How have teachers responded to the materials in the past?

Which resources do you think are most important to introduce to teachers? Why?

Which resources do you find that many of your participants rely on when teaching the Holocaust?

Do you find that many participants rely on resources that are inappropriate for teaching the Holocaust?
       What inappropriate resources are used most frequently?
       How do you address the use of inappropriate resources in the classroom?

Workshop implementation:
How do you advertise the workshop to teachers?
       What are your recruitment methods?
       How have your recruitment methods changed since the workshop began?
       What area do most participants come from?

What assignments/activities do participants complete during the workshop?
       Why do you choose those particular assignments/activities?

What culminating assignment or activity do teachers complete after the workshop?
       Why choose this particular activity/assignment?
       How is this activity/assignment assessed by museum staff?

How do you intend for the workshop to be received by participants?

Have you had participants who do not agree with the methods or content you share during the workshop? How do you deal with those who disagree?

Workshop evaluation:
Do you alter the workshop year to year? Week to week? Day to day?

What leads you to make any changes to the workshop?

Are you able to see, or are you aware of any changes in participants teaching after attending the workshop?

How do you think constraints such as pacing guides, curriculum, tests, etc., impact how teachers are able to implement what they learn in the workshop?

Is there anything else you would like to share?

Appendix B: Interview Protocol: Museum Educators (Post-workshop)

<u>HEW session 1 and 2 overall evaluation</u>:
Did the workshop progress as you intended? Why or why not?

How do you think participants received the workshop? Was this your intent?

Were there any particular sessions you felt went very well? Why?

Were there any particular sessions you felt did not go so well? Why?

Were there any participant concerns about the workshop material? Why do you think they have those concerns?

What kinds of questions did participants ask you during breaks, or any other downtime? What kinds of conversations were had? Are these kinds of questions/conversations normal? What do these kinds of questions/conversations indicate about how participants are receiving the workshop, what they're taking in?

<u>HEW session 1 and 2 alterations</u>:
Were any changes made to the workshop as it progressed? Why or why not?

Based on this summer session, do you foresee any changes for next year? Why or why not?

<u>Workshop materials</u>:
How do you feel the workshop materials were received by the teachers?

Which materials did you feel were most useful for the teachers? Why?

Which materials did you feel were not as useful for the teachers? Why?

Did participants struggle with any materials in particular? Which ones?
      Why do you think they struggle with these materials?
      Did you make any changes to your plans based on participant difficulty with the
      materials?
      Would you consider changing these materials for next year?

Were there any materials the participants were very receptive to? Which ones?
      Why do you think they were so receptive to these materials?
      Have you used these materials in previous workshops?

Which resources did you find that many participants relied on when teaching the Holocaust?

Did you feel that workshop participants were receptive to the materials introduced to them? Why or why not?

Will you make any changes to the materials used during the workshop for the HEW next year? Why or why not?

How do you think this year compared to last year?

Is there anything else about the workshop you would like to share?

Appendix C: HEW Schedule

Day	Time	Topic	Instructor
Monday	8:30-10:30	Museum Tour	Franklin
	10:45-12:45	Concepts of Genocide	BB
	12:45-1:15	Lunch	
	1:30-2:30	Project Overview	Elizabeth
	2:45-5:00	Jewish Background and Anti-Semitism	Franklin
Tuesday	8:30-10:30	Rise of Hitler	Franklin
	10:45-12:30	Holocaust Education in the Classroom	Elizabeth
	12:30-1:00	Lunch	
	1:00-2:30	Oral History	BB
	2:45-5:00	Non-Jewish Victims	BB
Wednesday	8:30-10:00	Legalized Persecution of Germany's Jews	Franklin
	10:15-11:15	Early Stages of the Holocaust	Elizabeth
	11:30-12:30	Intervention	BB
	12:30-1:00	Lunch	
	1:00-2:30	Holocaust I: 1939-1941	Franklin
	2:45-4:15	Graphic Novels	Guest Speaker
	4:30-6:00	Dinner at accrediting university	
	6:15-8:00	Survivor Panel	
Thursday	9:00-10:15	Holocaust II: 1941-1945	Franklin
	10:30-11:30	Righteous and Resistance	Franklin
	11:30-12:00	Lunch	
	12:15-1:30	Tour of Auschwitz Exhibit	Franklin and BB
	1:45-3:15	Reconstituted Art or *Three Minutes in Poland*	Guest Speakers
	3:30-5:00	Guided work on projects	
Friday	8:30-10:30	Nuremberg	Franklin and BB
	10:45-11:30	Post War	Franklin
	11:30-12:00	Lunch	
	12:00-3:00	Genocide II	BB
	3:00-5:00	Round table, Graduation	All

Appendix D: Guidelines for Teaching about the Holocaust from the United States

Holocaust Memorial Museum

Teaching Holocaust history demands a high level of sensitivity and keen awareness of the complexity of the subject matter. The following guidelines, while reflecting approaches appropriate for effective teaching in general, are particularly relevant to Holocaust education.

DEFINE THE TERM "HOLOCAUST"
The Holocaust was the systematic, bureaucratic, state-sponsored persecution and murder of approximately six million Jews by the Nazi regime and its collaborators. During the era of the Holocaust, German authorities also targeted other groups because of their perceived "racial inferiority": Roma (Gypsies), the disabled, and some of the Slavic peoples (Poles, Russians, and others). Other groups were persecuted on political, ideological, and behavioral grounds, among them Communists, Socialists, Jehovah's Witnesses, and homosexuals.

DO NOT TEACH OR IMPLY THAT THE HOLOCAUST WAS INEVITABLE
Just because a historical event took place, and it is documented in textbooks and on film, does not mean that it had to happen. This seemingly obvious concept is often overlooked by students and teachers alike. The Holocaust took place because individuals, groups, and nations made decisions to act or not to act. Focusing on those decisions leads to insights into history and human nature and can help your students to become better critical thinkers.

AVOID SIMPLE ANSWERS TO COMPLEX QUESTIONS
The history of the Holocaust raises difficult questions about human behavior and the context within which individual decisions are made. Be wary of simplification. Seek instead to convey the nuances of this history. Allow students to think about the many factors and events that contributed to the Holocaust and that often made decision making difficult and uncertain.

STRIVE FOR PRECISION OF LANGUAGE
Any study of the Holocaust touches upon nuances of human behavior. Because of the complexity of the history, there is a temptation to generalize and, thus, to distort the facts (e.g., "all concentration camps were killing centers" or "all Germans were collaborators"). Avoid this by helping your students clarify the information presented and encourage them to distinguish, for example, the differences between prejudice and discrimination, collaborators and bystanders, armed and spiritual resistance, direct and assumed orders, concentration camps and killing centers, and guilt and responsibility.

Words that describe human behavior often have multiple meanings. Resistance, for example, usually refers to a physical act of armed revolt. During the Holocaust, it also encompassed partisan activity; the smuggling of messages, food, and weapons; sabotage; and actual military engagement. Resistance may also be thought of as willful disobedience, such as continuing to practice religious and cultural traditions in defiance of the rules or creating fine art, music, and poetry inside ghettos and concentration camps. For many, simply maintaining the will to live in the face of abject brutality was an act of spiritual resistance.

Try to avoid stereotypical descriptions. Though all Jews were targeted for destruction by the Nazis, the experiences of all Jews were not the same. Remind your students that, although members of a group may share common experiences and beliefs, generalizations about them without benefit of modifying or qualifying terms (e.g., "sometimes," "usually," "in many cases but not all") tend to stereotype group behavior and distort historical reality. Thus, all Germans cannot be characterized as Nazis, nor should any nationality be reduced to a singular or one-dimensional description.

STRIVE FOR BALANCE IN ESTABLISHING WHOSE PERSPECTIVE INFORMS YOUR STUDY OF THE HOLOCAUST

Most students express empathy for victims of mass murder. However, it is not uncommon for students to assume that the victims may have done something to justify the actions against them and for students to thus place inappropriate blame on the victims themselves. One helpful technique for engaging students in a discussion of the Holocaust is to think of the participants as belonging to one of four categories: victims, perpetrators, rescuers, or bystanders. Examine the actions, motives, and decisions of each group. Portray all individuals, including victims and perpetrators, as human beings who are capable of moral judgment and independent decision making.

As with any topic, students should make careful distinctions about sources of information. Students should be encouraged to consider why a particular text was written, who wrote it, who the intended audience was, whether any biases were inherent in the information, whether any gaps occurred in discussion, whether omissions in certain passages were inadvertent or not, and how the information has been used to interpret various events. Because scholars often base their research on different bodies of information, varying interpretations of history can emerge. Consequently, all interpretations are subject to analytical evaluation. Strongly encourage your students to investigate carefully the origin and authorship of all material, particularly anything found on the Internet.

AVOID COMPARISONS OF PAIN

A study of the Holocaust should always highlight the different policies carried out by the Nazi regime toward various groups of people; however, these distinctions should not be presented as a basis for comparison of the level of suffering between those groups during the Holocaust. One cannot presume that the horror of an individual, family, or community destroyed by the Nazis was any greater than that experienced by victims of other genocides. Avoid generalizations that suggest exclusivity such as "The victims of the Holocaust suffered the most cruelty ever faced by a people in the history of humanity."

DO NOT ROMANTICIZE HISTORY

People who risked their lives to rescue victims of Nazi oppression provide useful, important, and compelling role models for students. But given that only a small fraction of non-Jews under Nazi occupation helped rescue Jews, an overemphasis on heroic actions in a unit on the Holocaust can result in an inaccurate and unbalanced account of the history. Similarly, in exposing students to the worst aspects of human nature as revealed in the history of the Holocaust, you run the risk of fostering cynicism in your students. Accuracy of fact, together with a balanced perspective on the history, must be a priority.

CONTEXTUALIZE THE HISTORY

Events of the Holocaust, and particularly how individuals and organizations behaved at that time, should be placed in historical context. The Holocaust must be studied in the context of European history as a whole to give students a perspective on the precedents and circumstances that may have contributed to it.

Similarly, the Holocaust should be studied within its contemporaneous context so students can begin to comprehend the circumstances that encouraged or discouraged particular actions or events. For example, when thinking about resistance, consider when and where an act took place; the immediate consequences of one's actions to self and family; the degree of control the Nazis had on a country or local population; the cultural attitudes of particular native populations toward different victim groups historically; and the availability and risk of potential hiding places.

Encourage your students not to categorize groups of people only on the basis of their experiences during the Holocaust; contextualization is critical so that victims are not perceived only as victims. By exposing students to some of the cultural contributions and achievements of 2,000 years of European Jewish life, for example, you help them to balance their perception of Jews as victims and to appreciate more fully the traumatic disruption in Jewish history caused by the Holocaust.

TRANSLATE STATISTICS INTO PEOPLE

In any study of the Holocaust, the sheer number of victims challenges easy comprehension. Show that individual people—grandparents, parents, and children—are behind the statistics and emphasize the diversity of personal experiences within the larger historical narrative. Precisely because they portray people in the fullness of their lives and not just as victims, first-person accounts and memoir literature add individual voices to a collective experience and help students make meaning out of the statistics.

MAKE RESPONSIBLE METHODOLOGICAL CHOICES

One of the primary concerns of educators teaching the history of the Holocaust is how to present horrific, historical images in a sensitive and appropriate manner. Graphic material should be used judiciously and only to the extent necessary to achieve the lesson objective. Try to select images and texts that do not exploit the students' emotional vulnerability or that might be construed as disrespectful to the victims themselves. Do not skip any of the suggested topics because the visual images are too graphic; instead, use other approaches to address the material.

In studying complex human behavior, many teachers rely upon simulation exercises meant to help students "experience" unfamiliar situations. Even when great care is taken to prepare a class for such an activity, simulating experiences from the Holocaust remains pedagogically unsound. The activity may engage students, but they often forget the purpose of the lesson and, even worse, they are left with the impression that they now know what it was like to suffer or even to participate during the Holocaust. It is best to draw upon numerous primary sources, provide survivor testimony, and refrain from simulation games that lead to a trivialization of the subject matter.

Furthermore, word scrambles, crossword puzzles, counting objects, model building, and other gimmicky exercises tend not to encourage critical analysis but lead instead to low-level types of thinking and, in the case of Holocaust curricula, trivialization of the history. If the effects of a particular activity, even when popular with you and your students, run counter to the rationale for studying the history, then that activity should not be used.

https://www.ushmm.org/educators/teaching-about-the-holocaust/general-teaching-guidelines