

Media and Historical Literacy: Reinterpreting the Context of History

Rina Bousalis, Ph.D.
Florida Atlantic University
rbousalis@fau.edu

Jillian R. Powers, Ph.D.
Florida Atlantic University
jrpowers@fau.edu

Ann T. Musgrove, Ed.D.
Florida Atlantic University
musgrove@fau.edu

Abstract

Due to the vast amount of technology resources accessible to the public today, depictions of people, places, and events which were once held as true are no longer being accepted as reality. History is being reinterpreted. While youth often resort to social media for knowledge, sensationalized news and images can promote negative stereotypes. As media writers are criticized and accused of offering fake news and historical inaccuracies, the public, particularly youth, have come to distrust the media. Educators can help students distinguish between fact and fiction by infusing historical literacy – the ability to examine a historical event through social, political, and cultural factors, with media literacy – the ability to analyze and evaluate media communication.

Keywords: fake news, history, historical literacy, media, media literacy

Although historical events do not change, our perspectives of history can. Historical depictions of people, places, and events which were once held as true are no longer being accepted as reality due to the vast amount of technological resources accessible to the public today which bring to light contrary information. Therefore, history is being reinterpreted. For example, the public has uncovered that several highly esteemed United States universities have disgraceful pasts and connections to slavery. Statues of figures such as Confederate *Silent Sam* at the University of North Carolina have been tumbled down. While opponents of dismantling statues believe this action will not cleanse the memory of slavery, supporters of the removal of statues believe the monuments should not serve as a reminder either. Street names that once honored confederate generals and Ku Klux Klan members have been altered and controversy arises over what names and figures should replace the ones removed. Textbooks and state education standards have been tweaked to reflect political correctness and cultural sensitivity, and books such as the classic *To Kill a Mockingbird* are being taken off library shelves due to their offensive content. Although there are those who justify *old* history, content accepted as fact, as having been correctly represented, others insist that *new* history, content having been challenged, should focus on the truth.

But what is truth? Despite technology offering access to archives and new sources of information that could bring understanding of past issues and events, we base our historical truth on the information delivered to us by the media (textbooks, news broadcasts, social media, and advertisements), often without investigating whether it is true. As history is a human perspective linked to the mindset of people during a certain time period, history is “subject to repetition, transformation and reactivation” (Costache, 2013, p. 387). Therefore, what is true today may not

be true tomorrow, for history is never closed. Our goal then is to find the real facts, or to be “as sure as we can of them” (Arragon, 1964, p. 233).

Media and Youth

In contemporary society, however, students generally resort to popular culture and the media for knowledge, yet often receive sensationalized news and images that promote negative stereotypes (Greenfield, 2014). The term *fake news*, which arose among contemporary politics and news broadcasts, has become a term that symbolizes an attack on democracy, society, education, and scholarly research (Tandoc, Lim, & Ling, 2018). As newspapers and journalists have been criticized and accused of offering inaccurate information, the public, most notably the youth, have come to distrust the media (Dermody, Hanmer-Lloyd & Scullion, 2010).

Adolescents are easy targets for groups who know youth can be readily manipulated since their cognitive level is not fully developed (Gasser, Cortesi, Malik, & Lee, 2012). Falsified information is created by individuals whose goal is to sway public opinion with propaganda, injure or elevate an individual’s image, attain monetary advantage, or simply for the fun of hurting the naïve and susceptible (Momigliano & Yu, 2016). Harmful images and ideas that spread like viruses online can be contagious. Conspiracy theories pertaining to government plots, apocalyptic hoaxes about the end of the world, the Illuminati and an anti-Christ take-over of the world, and the 666 scheme and technology’s control of the world, are all orchestrated by globally connected individuals and groups who use prophecies and scare tactics to warn people, particularly youth, of the changes that will come (although none have come true) (Patterson, 1988). Bogle (2017) found that publicity has the power to shape public opinion through an advertising strategy known as “crowd psychology” (p. 63). When information is presented through emotional appeals and/or images of bravery and passed on to people who display

excitement by what is heard, it is possible for the media to manipulate those who share the same feelings (Bogle, 2017).

Readers and listeners often duplicate attitudes and beliefs and allow others' perspectives to become *their* perspectives (O'Reilly et al, 2018). One's initial interest to a story may be due to how popular a story is, how bored one is, the way a story is advertised, and whether one had an unintended experience with it (Gierzynski & Eddy, 2013). While there may be some truth embedded in the stories, it can be distorted in different ways and for different purposes (Martinson, 2009). The media's added "aesthetic effect" (Katz, 1944, p. 371) often causes people to become drawn to stories and emotionally attached; when words are aimed to instigate emotions from the reader, voices become real (Barclay, 2018). As theorists Loftus and Pickrell (1995) assert, false "information can alter a person's recollection in powerful ways, even leading to the creation of false memories . . . that never in fact existed" (p. 720). With the increase of digital hoaxes and technology's ability to alter images, "anybody intending to deceive people and affect their opinion by circulating such material would have a good chance of being successful" (Sacchi, Agnoli, & Loftus, 2007, p. 1020). Although media literacy advocates have been looking for ways to cease media deceptions such as omitting racist and sexist stereotypes (Kellner, 2002), it is difficult to battle false information when freedom of speech is a central American liberty.

Historical Literacy

Although technology has the potential to hinder the information scene, it *can* assist in uncovering authentic material. Educators can help students acquire authentic knowledge by teaching historical literacy, the ability to examine a historical event through social, political, and cultural lenses (Wineburg & Reisman, 2015). By infusing a digital-based plan that could instill the analyzing and evaluating of media communication, students no longer must abide by authors'

and journalists' perspectives of history, but instead can engage in hands-on learning, and most importantly, critical thinking (Plencner, 2014). John Dewey (1923), who sought to engage students in a "practical" education which could help shape children and youth into becoming well-informed democratic citizens (p. 301), believed that the transmission of knowledge occurs "by means of communication of habits of doing, thinking, and feeling" (p. 3). Although he stressed that this communiqué could best occur between adults to children, he also noted that "communication is like art . . . any social arrangement that remains vitally social, or . . . shared, is educative to those who participate in it. Only when it becomes cast in a mold . . . a routine way does it lose its educative power" (Dewey, 1923, p. 7). With digital tools at hand, students have the potential to establish historical literacy, a skill which not only includes the ability to read and write history, but to also reinterpret the effigy of history. Through the discovery of evidence for claims, students can deliberate perspectives and conclude with individual interpretations (Keirn & Luhr, 2012). Rather than take information which they are given, students will understand that there is never a single reason that caused an event or issue. By bearing in mind societal influences, students should consider the analogy of what man did, what man was like during a certain time period, and what happened to man along the way (Arragon, 1964). For this reason, students must learn to interpret media differently. With technology at their disposal, youth can question and investigate new elements embedded in information and understand how issues and events are often shaped by misrepresented views.

Media Literacy

The concept of media literacy has expanded as individuals read and write using the technological tools available with the Internet. Media literacy, also referred to as information literacy, applies to having the ability to interpret text and content, detect ideologies, and

understand how information is produced, dispersed, and consumed (Potter, 2011). As students analyze media communication, it is important they question what they “see, read and hear” (Thoman & Jolls, 2004, p. 24). Government and educational organizations have made an abundance of primary sources (e.g., documents, oral histories, biographies, diary entries, etc.) available to educators and students to confirm or dispute information. Technology has enabled libraries to offer the public access to banned, forgotten, or once hidden books pertaining to, for example, African American history, multiculturalism, and women’s history (Goedeken, 2018). With digital sources such as open access journals, apps, and E-books, students can efficiently locate and access materials online spanning across all genres and topics. The collection of online recordings and films can offer students representations of individuals who experienced historical oppression, and then help them explore how forms of prejudice are linked to contemporary issues (Heppeler & Manderino, 2018). Technology may have brought about the risks of anonymity and twisting text out of context, but media *has* allowed people to communicate their stories of lived experience (Sheftel & Zembrzycki, 2017). As technology can go beyond the textbook to teach about issues and events from different angles through its ability to store and archive resources, teachers and students are no longer restricted to static, collective, or tainted histories (Ocasio, Mauskapf, & Steele, 2016).

Historical and Contemporary Reasoning

As the mutual goals of media literacy and historical literacy strive for students to become well-informed citizens, both media and historical literacy can be combined to meet this goal and balance the curriculum (Mason, Krutka, & Stoddard, 2018). While these skills are vital for 21st century learners, teachers might find it difficult to teach historical and media literacy skills since they lack the knowledge, have not had training, or are restricted from going beyond the

curriculum and textbook (Carlsson, 2019). Though classroom discussions that center on current events are essential to learning history, teachers are often uncomfortable discussing topics often deemed as controversial in fear of offending students or experiencing repercussions from parents and/or administrators – and therefore avoid tackling the contentious issues altogether (Oulton, Day, Dillon, & Grace, 2004). However, it will be difficult to prepare students for a democratic life if they rely solely on the media and fail to understand how history relates to the present – and to their own lives, if they are not afforded the ability or opportunity to go below the surface of content and question misinformation. Altering traditional modes of teaching and becoming familiar with digital tools will help close the teacher-student digital divide. However, it is important that technology be used to enhance learning about human history rather than for the sheer enjoyment of using digital tools. Through a research-based method, students can compare primary documents, question sources, and take note of not only what information exists, but also, what may be missing. As Momigliano and Yu (2016) stressed, “there can be no history where there are no documents . . . more documents make for better history . . . [and] sparse documents mean worse history” (p. 41).

Since media literacy is a crucial skill in today’s world, the Association of College and Research Libraries (ACRL) (2015) created a *Framework for Information Literacy* that includes strategies for conducting historical research. The framework consists of visual media literacy, the “show me” concept where pictures can be read and meaning can be communicated (Callow, 2008, p. 616), and digital media literacy, the ability to access, analyze, evaluate, and create digital media. These expanding categories of literacies come together under the concept of *Digital Citizenship*. The International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) (2019) includes education standards such as *Digital Citizen*, which focus on the responsibilities of living

in a safe and ethical digital world, and *Knowledge Constructor*, where students analyze digital resources to help them construct knowledge. While the ISTE (2019) standards create expectations for K-12 students, the ACRL (2015) framework creates a path for college students to navigate the complex world of media. As print media begins to die out, the ability to comprehend online information becomes more important. Students who lack digital literacy skills may soon find themselves at just as much of a disadvantage as those who cannot read or write (Lynch, 2017).

Unpacking Media Sources

In the late 1990's, the Internet made it possible for students and teachers to instantly access millions of information resources. Today, this information connectivity has become ubiquitous. Apps such as the *Google Assistant* have made it possible to verbally pose a question to a smartphone and get an instant answer in either audio or text format. However, with this increased access to information comes the challenge of discerning which information is worthwhile. Maloy, Verock-O'Loughlin, Edwards, and Woolf (2016) identified four types of information problems that students may encounter when trying to sort through information resources they find online: *misinformation*, or false, out of date, and/or incomplete information; *malinformation*, such as explicit, damaging, or extremist material; *messed-up information*, when material is disorganized, excessive, or lacking context; and *mostly messed-up information*, or trivial, mundane, and irrelevant to the question at hand. While a survey of Advanced Placement and National Writing Project teachers conducted by Purcell et al (2012) found that 94% of the teachers reported their students were *very likely* to use Google or other search engines in a research assignment, when it came to expressing students' ability to assess the quality and accuracy of information they found online, only 3% of teachers rated their students as being

excellent while 37% acknowledged students as *fair* and 24% revealed students as *poor* at deciphering credible information. Educators can help students overcome this challenge by teaching them how to spot information problems. Lessons could incorporate technology tools such as research-based films, videos, audio recordings, virtual field trips, podcasts, information graphics, oral histories, maps, and art images and other online primary sources. Teaching students how to systematically evaluate the trustworthiness of online misinformation through media and historical literacy methods equips students with the “mental tools” needed to detect and “separate the wheat from the chaff when reading” online text (Luckhardt, 2014, p. 193). Students should ask questions centered on the framework of authorship, trustworthiness, and evidence:

- Authorship: Who produced the information, when was it written, and where was it sent (geographically)? What was the creator’s intention (e.g., political or social ideology)? What was the author’s attitude (e.g., pessimistic, demanding, or controlling)? Is there limited information in the author’s message?
- Trustworthiness: Where was the information found (a trustworthy organization)? Is it published in another source? Were grammatical errors present? Were there discriminatory or stereotypical messages? Were methods of deception used to draw attention?
- Evidence: Were there similar patterns of past and present themes? Does the information include a connection to historical knowledge? Were societal aspects expressed? Is there information to support the author’s claim? Were significant figures during certain time periods portrayed in a biased manner? How was the historical and present-day information presented: fictional or textbook-like?

Evaluating Web Sources

Although amusing in nature, one popular method for evaluating information is the *CRAAP* test. According to the developer, “Sometimes a person needs an acronym that sticks . . . *CRAAP* is an acronym that most students don’t expect a librarian to be using, let alone using to lead a class” (Blakeslee, 2004, p. 6). Each of the letters in the *CRAAP* acronym stand for a different element of historical and contemporary information evaluation in a mnemonic form:

- Currency (datedness of work)
- Relevance (relatedness to topic under study)
- Authority (author credentials or experience)
- Accuracy (includes evidence)
- Purpose (to inform, persuade, or entertain)

Teachers can also download a *CRAAP* test worksheet to teach students how to apply each element to different information resources (see Appendix 1 for website links). Another strategy for evaluating Internet sources is RADAR, which stands for *Relevance, Authority, Date, Appearance, and Reason* for writing (see Appendix 1). As Mandalios (2013) points out, “while students may not always recall instantly each of the RADAR criteria, the term itself is memorable, as is its associated concept, that is, the need to be constantly alert to possible information dangers” (p. 477).

Teaching with Web-Based Primary Sources

Educators can help students reexamine history by analyzing digital newspapers. *Chronicling America* (see Appendix 1) by the *Library of Congress* allows users to search for news stories by state and publication date, zoom in and pan across the pages, or use highlighted

keywords to focus on relevant information. An example of a news story found on *Chronicling America* is shown in Figure 1.



Figure 1. One search result from *Chronicling America* about women's rights.

The story provides an opportunity for teachers to help students develop historical and media literacy skills as students are able to form their own understanding of how the women's rights movement was portrayed in early 20th century news.

Teachers can help students develop strong literacy skills by teaching them how to examine repositories of primary sources. Museums are digitizing their physical collections and have developed platforms that allow teachers to create their own collections of digital resources (Marty, 2011). The *Smithsonian Learning Lab* (see Appendix 1), an interactive platform for exploring authentic digital resources, allows users to browse the site's collection of images, audio files, videos, and text materials. Teachers can access ready-made digital learning collections or select content aligned to standards to create their own grouping. The National Archives' *DocsTeach* (see Appendix 1) provides access to digital primary resources that span the course of American History (e.g., letters, photographs, speeches, posters, maps and videos) and allows teachers to copy and modify activities. With the *DocsTeach* app, a free download via the App Store for iPad, students can enter a classroom code to access and complete assigned activities, inspect digitized primary sources, or select a learning activity arranged by a historical

era.

Virtually Going Right to the Source

Virtual reality (VR), “a computer-based environment that can simulate places in the real or imagined worlds” (Freina & Ott, 2015, p. 133), enables students to virtually explore times and places that extend beyond the classroom. Google’s *Street View* (see Appendix 1), which uses features from both *Google Earth* and *Maps*, allows students to experience 360-degree views of historical global sites such as the Taj Mahal or Versailles.

Augmented reality (AR) can be described as “a technology where virtual reality is combined with the real world” through superimposed computer-generated images (Mazlan et al., 2017, p. 315). Incorporating AR tools into instruction can make the past visible or immerse students in geographically distant places or cultures. When fifth grade students from Virginia took part in a social studies unit called *My Place in Time and Space* and used the AR application *CI-Spy*, an app developed by educators and computer scientists strictly for the project, students were able to walk in the footsteps of their predecessors and see how the *Separate but Equal* doctrine and school segregation impacted their community (Johnson et al., 2017).

Not all teachers have a team of computer scientists to help them develop a personalized AR app, but some AR tours are ready-made for teachers to access. *Google Expeditions* (see Appendix 1) features topics that have been developed into AR lessons such as *Native American Artifacts*. The app allows teachers to guide students through various 360° site scenes and 3D objects/artifacts. *Zoom In* (see Appendix 1), another web-based platform that uses VR and AR to help students build literacy and historical thinking skills, features U.S. History units that focus on reading and writing.

Examining Media from Multiple Angles

Social media can give students greater exposure to history and current events, but as noted, this information can be false or biased. One resource that students could use to identify bias in news sources is *Allsides* (see Appendix 1), a site that offers articles categorized according to their political slant (from the *left*, *right*, or *center* in media bias). The site also presents a *What's the Bias of Your Favorite Media Outlet?* which organizes news sources in a chart that depicts where each source falls on the media bias spectrum and allows students to evaluate their own media bias. In summary, these tools can help students understand historical and current events from multiple perspectives and go beyond the media's interpretation.

Conclusion

When truth becomes misleading, doubt becomes a constant, and the classroom fails to offer more than what the media presents, students may adhere to a *so what?* attitude about history, the media, citizenship, and democracy. Although technological resources accessible today have the potential to sway youth towards seeing truth in misinformation, these resources also have the power to uncover historical realities. Students can be taught how to sense and decipher misinformation through historical literacy, the ability to go beyond a collective narrative of history and investigate societal factors that influenced events, and with media literacy, the understanding of how and why information is produced, dispersed, and consumed (Potter, 2011). By shifting from traditional modes of instruction to teaching with digital tools that feature VR and AR platforms, apps, and online sites that house archived primary resources, students will have greater exposure to political, gender, racial, and cultural issues that have existed throughout all of history, as well as today. Technology offers students the means and support to question history and find answers. Students will not only engage as historians, but also as detectives who uncover the past and present evidence of inaccurate or misleading information.

While many argue that young students are not capable of challenging theories created by those with authority, or that today's digital media is ruining society and many would rather return to a non-digital media age, there are many benefits to today's technology. With a vast amount of resources offered on the Internet, students have a greater opportunity to think critically and develop the literacies they need to become well-informed citizens. As information connectivity has become omnipresent and technological skills crucial for 21st century learners, it is vital that students learn how to take into account multiple perspectives and systematically analyze and evaluate the media's interpretation of historical and current issues and events. We may be wary of what history regards as *progress* with its record of numerous wars and genocides; yet in terms of technology, for better or worse, the future will be based on how the past is recorded (Mikoski, 2017). For this reason, children and youth today must learn to critically think about and interpret media differently for they will be the newsmakers and historians of the future.

Appendix 1: Internet Resources

Website Title	Website Link
<i>CRAAP Test Worksheet</i>	https://www.csuchico.edu/lins/handouts/eval_websites.pdf
<i>RADAR</i>	http://libguides.lmu.edu/ld.php?content_id=16497232
<i>Chronicling America</i>	https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/
<i>Smithsonian Learning Lab</i>	https://learninglab.si.edu/
<i>DocsTeach</i>	https://www.docsteach.org/
<i>Street View</i>	https://artsandculture.google.com/project/street-view
<i>Google Expeditions</i>	https://edu.google.com/products/vr-ar/expeditions/?modal_active=none
<i>Zoom In</i>	http://zoomin.edc.org/

Allsides

<https://www.allsides.com/unbiased-balanced-news>

References

- Association of College and Research Libraries. (2015). Framework for information literacy for higher education. Resource document. American Library Association. Retrieved from <http://www.ala.org/acrl/standards/ilframework>.
- Arragon, R. F. (1964). History's changing image: "With such permanence as time has". *American Scholar*, 33(2), 222-233.
- Barclay, K. (2018). Falling in love with the dead. *Rethinking History*, 22(4), 459-473.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13642529.2018.1511105>
- Blakeslee, S. (2004). The CRAAP test. *LOEX Quarterly*, 31(3), 6-7.
- Bogle, L. L. (2017). Pandering to the crowd: The American governing elite's changing views on mass media and publicity during the nineteenth century. *Journalism History*, 43(2), 62-74. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00947679.2017.12059167>
- Callow, J. (2008). Show me: Principles for assessing students' visual literacy. *The Reading Teacher*, 61(8), 616-626. <https://doi.org/10.1598/RT.61.8.3>
- Carlsson, U. (2019). Media and information literacy: Field of knowledge, concepts and history (U. Carlsson, Ed.). In *Understanding media and information literacy (MIL) in the digital age: A question of democracy* (pp. 37-56). UNESCO Chair on Freedom of Expression, Media Development and Global Policy.
- Costache, A. (2013). From historical change to historical knowledge: Directions of a new epistemology of the human sciences. *Logos & Episteme*, 4(4), 381-397.
<https://doi.org/10.5840/logos-episteme2013441>

Dermody, J., Hanmer-Lloyd, S., & Scullion, R. (2010). Young people and voting behaviour:

Alienated youth and (or) an interested and critical citizenry?. *European Journal of Marketing*, 44(3/4), 421-435. <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090561011020507>

Dewey, J. (1923). *Democracy in education: An introduction to the philosophy of education*.

Macmillan Company.

Freina, L., & Ott, M. (2015). A literature review on immersive virtual reality in education: State

of the art and perspectives. *The International Scientific Conference eLearning & Software for Education*, (1), 133-140.

Gasser, U., Cortesi, S., Malik, M. M., & Lee, A. (2012). Youth and digital media: From

credibility to information quality. *Berkman Center for Internet and Society Research Publication*, (1), 1-150. <https://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2005272>

Gierzynski, A., & Eddy, K. (2013). *Harry Potter and the millennials: Research methods and the*

politics of the muggle generation. John Hopkins University Press.

Goedeken, E. A. (2018). The literature of American library history, 2014-2015. *Information &*

Culture, 53(1), 85-120. <https://doi.org/10.7560/IC53105>

Greenfield, P. M. (2014). *Mind and media: The effects of television, video games, and*

computers. Psychology Press.

Heppeler, J., & Manderino, M. (2018). Critical media literacy in the disciplines: Using *13th* to

support historical argumentation. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 61(5), 567-571. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jaal.726>

International Society for Technology in Education. (2019). *ISTE standards for students*.

Resource document. Retrieved from <https://www.iste.org/standards/for-students>

Johnson, A., Hicks, D., Ogle, T., Bowman, D., Cline, D., & Ragan, E. (2017). "If this place

- could talk": Using augmented reality to make the past visible. *Social Education*, 81(2), 112-116.
- Katz, J. (1944). A reply to J. Huizinga on the form and function of history. *Journal of the History of Ideas*, 5(3), 369-373.
- Kellner, D. (2002). Critical perspectives on visual imagery in media and cyberculture. *Journal of Visual Literacy*, 22(1), 81-90. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23796529.2002.11674582>
- Keirn, T., & Luhr, E. (2012). Subject matter counts: The pre-service teaching and learning of historical thinking. *The History Teacher*, 45(4), 493-511.
- Luckhardt, C. (2014). Teaching historical literacy and making world history relevant in the online discussion board. *The History Teacher*, 47(2), 187-196.
- Loftus, E. F., & Pickrell, J. E. (1995). The formation of false memories. *Psychiatric Annals*, 25(12), 720-725. <https://doi.org/10.3928/0048-5713-19951201-07>
- Lynch, M. (2017). What is digital literacy? Resource document. The Teck Edvocate. Retrieved from <https://www.thetechadvocate.org/what-is-digital-literacy/>
- Maloy, R. W., Verock-O'Loughlin, R., Edwards, S. A., Woolf, B. P. (2016). *Transforming learning with new technologies*. (3rd Ed.). Pearson.
- Mandalios, J. (2013). RADAR: An approach for helping students evaluate internet sources. *Journal of Information Science*, 39(4), 470-478. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0165551513478889>
- Martinson, D. L. (2009). Political advertising: A roadblock in teaching social studies students the importance of truthful political communication to a democratic society. *The Social Studies*, 100(2), 75-78. <https://doi.org/10.3200/TSSS.100.2.75-78>
- Marty, P. F. (2011). My lost museum: User expectations and motivations for creating personal

- digital collections on museum websites. *Library and Information Science Research*, 33(3), 211-219. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lisr.2010.11.003>
- Mason, L. E., Krutka, D., & Stoddard, J. (2018). Media literacy, democracy, and the challenge of fake news. *Journal of Media Literacy Education*, 10(2), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.23860/JMLE-2018-10-2-1>
- Mazlan, U. H., Ibrahim, I., Ghazali, N., Zulkifli, Z., Ahmad, S., & Ismail, W. S. A. W. (2017). Applying augmented reality in teaching and learning. *Computing Research & Innovation*, 2, 315-322.
- Mikoski, G. S. (2017). Reimagining our future in light of changing views of the evolutionary past. *Theology Today*, 73(4), 388-395. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0040573616669307>
- Momigliano, A., & Yu, K. W. (2016). The rules of the game in the study of ancient history. *History and Theory*, 55(1), 39-45. <https://doi.org/10.1111/hith.10786>
- Ocasio, W., Mauskapf, M., & Steele, C. W. (2016). History, society, and institutions: The role of collective memory in the emergence and evolution of societal logics. *Academy of Management Review*, 41(4), 676-699. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2014.0183>
- Oulton, C., Day, V., Dillon, J., & Grace, M. (2004). Controversial issues-teachers' attitudes and practices in the context of citizenship education. *Oxford Review of Education*, 30(4), 489-507. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0305498042000303973>
- O'Reilly, Dogra, Whiteman, Hughes, Eruyar, & Reilly (2018). Is social media bad for mental health and wellbeing? Exploring the perspectives of adolescents. *Clinical Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 23(4), 601-613. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1359104518775154>
- Patterson, J. A. (1988). Changing images of the beast: Apocalyptic conspiracy theories in American history. *Journal of the Evangelical Theological Society*, 31(4), 443-452.

- Plencner, A. (2014). Critical thinking and the challenges of internet. *Communication Today*, (2), 4-19.
- Potter, W. J. (2011). *Media literacy*. Sage Publishers.
- Purcell, K., Rainie, L., Heaps, A., Buchanan, J., Friedrich, L., Jacklin, A., et al. (2012). How teens do research in the digital world. Resource document. Pew Internet & American Life Project. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED537513.pdf>
- Sacchi, D. L. M., Agnoli, F., & Loftus, E. F. (2007). Changing history: Doctored photographs affect memory for past public events. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 21(8), 1005-1022. <https://doi.org/10.1002/acp.1394>
- Sheftel, A., & Zembrzycki, S. (2017). Slowing down to listen in the digital age: How new technology is changing oral history practice. *The Oral History Review*, 44(1), 94-112. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ohr/ohx016>
- Tandoc Jr., E. C., Lim, Z. W., & Ling, R. (2018). Defining “fake news”: A typology of scholarly definitions. *Digital Journalism*, 6(2), 137-153. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21670811.2017.1360143>
- Thoman, E., & Jolls, T. (2004). Media literacy-A national priority for a changing world. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 48(1), 18-29. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764204267246>
- Wineburg, S., & Reisman, A. (2015). Disciplinary literacy in history: A toolkit for digital citizenship. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 58(8), 636-639. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jaal.410>