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The Promise of the Taxonomy of Online Racism for Critical Race Media Literacy in Social Studies Education Research

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Abstract

The purpose of this article is to present an argument for the uptake of the online taxonomy of

racism as an analytical framework for online analyses of racism to support the adoption of

critical race media literacy (CRML) within social studies education. First, we provide an

overview of the utility of the taxonomy of online racism. We then offer a discussion of how

hashtag analysis is currently used to study racism in other fields and can be adapted for use

among teacher educators, pre-service, and in-service social studies teachers.   Then we present

#hashtag content analysis as an exemplar for implementing the online taxonomy of racism to

support social studies education research through CRML with implications for global contexts.

Finally, we provide a call to action for critical social studies and multicultural education scholars.

Keywords: hashtag analytics, critical race media literacy, multicultural education

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Social media platforms represent the fastest-growing news and information media resources globally (Lenhart, 2015). Therefore, social studies educators must prepare critical consumers of social media. Twitter, Facebook, and Instagram (see Table 1) are becoming a more popular choice among   teachers, policymakers, and researchers for educational related information. According to Education Week (2017), less experienced teachers turn to social media at a "relatively high" rate compared to their more experienced counterparts. Forty percent of K-12 teachers overall used social media sites over both research journals and news websites for educational ideas for their classrooms. Likewise, youth across urbanicity (e.g., urban, suburban, and rural) tend to interact on multiple social media outlets throughout the day. Social media platforms exist under the guise of neutrality and objectivity despite inherent biases and hidden agendas (Gillespie, 2020). For instance, Facebook is advertised as a technology, Twitter is packaged as a communication service platform, and YouTube is an information 'distribution platform' (D'Onfro, 2016; Frier et al., 2016; YouTube, n.d.). Ultimately, all social media platforms act in their best interest by intervening in public discourse and often serving as a digital mechanism to sustain the status quo (De la Peña, 2010; Gillespie, 2015). As these platforms continue to grow exponentially, the most enduring challenge for consumers is how to remain active critical consumers of these messages.

Table 1

Definitions of Social Media Platforms — Tufts University, 2021

Social Media Platform	Definition
Facebook	The world's largest social network, with more than 1.55 billion monthly active users (as of the third quarter of 2015). Users create a personal profile,

	add other users as friends, and exchange messages, including status updates. Brands create pages and Facebook users can "like" brands' pages.
Instagram	A free photo and video sharing app that allows users to apply digital filters, frames and special effects to their photos and then share them on a variety of social networking sites.
Twitter	A social networking/micro-blogging platform that allows groups and individuals to stay connected through the exchange of short status messages (140-character limit).

This challenge is uniquely present within the Twitter social media platform. its dedication to brevity and ease of use, many users post and receive copious amounts of information. Recent Twitter statistics indicate that there are over 500 million tweets sent each day worldwide, and there were more than 11 million downloads of the Twitter application in the first quarter of 2019 (Lin, 2019). Data from the Pew Research Center indicate that Facebook remains the most popular social media outlet, while Twitter remains the least popular (Greenwood et al., 2016). However, despite representing far less than the lion's share of the social media market, Twitter remains a crucial platform for teacher educators to create community spaces of cultural capital among themselves and their students (Coleman et al., 2018; Dharamshi, 2018; Hofer & Aubert, 2013). Additionally, contrary to Facebook, Twitter provides an open social network that facilitates more open access to content and asymmetrical relationships that do not require users to follow each other to view and receive content. "Following" requires a user to click on a follow button in order to see another user's content, alerting that user to a new follower. Hence, one Twitter user can follow another without mandatory participation in following back, or they can see a user's public profile and Tweets as if it were an open website   . According to Junco et al. (2011), Twitter is the "social networking platform most amenable to ongoing, public dialogue"

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(p. 1). Yet t   his benefit of Twitter can facilitate some unhealthy and harmful social media

practices.

One unfortunate reality is that Tweets, publicly posted messages created by users that

contain less than 140 characters, are often laden with overt racism, misogyny, and homophobic

rhetoric. Anti-Black slurs account for 83.2 Tweets per every 100,000 in the highest-ranking state

for racist Tweets, and derogatory language toward women and gay people occurred in 894

Tweets per 100,000 for states most highly ranked in misogyny and homophobia (Cauterucci,

2016). Given the rise of these messages, imagery, and other propaganda designed to inflict harm

on traditionally marginalized populations, it is ever more important that educators both at the K-

12 and collegiate level equip students with knowledge and skills to capture, analyze, and

interpret these data cross-culturally. Thus, we recommend utilizing the Taxonomy of Online

Racism as an analytic tool for the critical appraisal of social media content to support social

justice within social studies education in K-12 settings and among pre-service teachers.

Problem Statement

In a study conducted by researchers at Northwestern University, a   pproximately 95%

of youth in the U.S. have access to the Internet, and students of color spend 4.5 more hours per

day than their White counterparts using various forms of digital media, including mobile devices

(Rideout et al., 2011). This creates a conundrum because the Internet provides unique

opportunities to develop and refine racial identity (Nakamura & Chow-White, 2019), while

simultaneously reproducing power relations and hierarchies (McIlwain, 2016) that can amplify

racism (Daniels, 2019). As we have evolved into a digitally dependent world   , racism has

followed suit. Numerous scholars have documented multiple accounts of racism, sexism, and

homophobia across multiple social media platforms. Makombe et al. (2020) found that white

supremacists in South Africa used social media as a platform for perpetuating racism in an attempt to undermine the ruling party. Trindade (2020) documented internet hate speech in Brazil and concluded that "major social media platforms represent the contemporary arena for the manifestation, dissemination, and reinforcement of racist ideologies" (p. 2766). In the U.S., recent events such as the 2016 presidential election resulted in an uptick of anti-Mexican/Hispanic sentiment (Hswen et al., 2020). Researchers also found a statistically significant relationship between social media use and likelihood to experience discrimination during the Covid pandemic for Asian Americans (Yu et al., 2020). Specifically, Twitter is recognized as a space that tends to allow and in some respects facilitate hate speech and cyber-abuse (e.g., racial and sexist abuse) through its functionality (Hardaker & McGlashan, 2016; Sharma, 2013; Shepherd et al., 2015). Identifying and classifying instances of racism online remains a challenge.

Frameworks, instruments, and lenses that support the hierarchical characterization of racism within social media have remained elusive until recently. The emergence of Critical Race Theory in the public sphere has turned attention toward ways that educators can prepare students not just for a digital age but for a diverse world were identifying and categorizing acts of racism may require a specific set of critical skills. In an effort to address this problem, researchers are developing and testing instruments that can help pre-service teachers and students recognize and more successfully ameliorate racist acts (Rowan-Kenyon, 2021). Frameworks are necessary to foster future critical examinations of social media content and help learners navigate an ever-changing online learning environment. Twitter was chosen for the present study because it is often described as a news and information exchange platform rather than a more traditional social media outlet. Unfortunately, Twitter allows users to follow and tweet relatively

uninhibited, which can create an environment that can spawn and catalyze extremely offensive and violent behavior due to the relatively low level of online policing. Therefore, we present an argument for the uptake of the Online Taxonomy of Racism as an analytical framework for applying critical race media literacy (CRML) in social studies to combat online racism. To achieve this goal, we first define CRML. Then we provide examples of its utility and ability to foster critical social justice discourse in social studies education. We then discuss how the online taxonomy of racism can be utilized explicitly to support critical race media literacy social studies education. Finally, we provide recommendations to support the expansion of CRML within social studies education.

What is Critical Race Media Literacy Studies?

Critical Race Media Literacy (CRML) combines critical race theory and critical media literacy to analyze how race, class, and gender are portrayed in media content (Yosso, 2002). Thus, CRML can act as a theoretical framework and a methodology to deconstruct oppressive implicit — and intentional — messages embedded within both social and entertainment media: s ocial media allows people to connect with each other and engage with entertainment media, the latter encompassing mostly what people consume. Tisdell & Thompson (2007) summarize CRML's theoretical assumptions made explicit to those using CRML as pedagogy:

1) Money drives and controls media

2) Media makers construct images and characters, bringing their experience and perceptions to their creations

3) Media consumers make meaning of content through their lens of experience

As a lens or methodology, CRML utilizes popular media to engage students in unfamiliar and sometimes uncomfortable reflection on the pervasiveness of racism and classicism in American

society (Joanou, 2017). Derived from Freire's critical process,   its purpose is to provide tools for students to "read the world" (Yosso, 2002) and incline them toward social justice.

      CRML's utility in social studies education is extensive, especially considering the shift from print to digital in the past few decades. Illinois is the first state to officially implement digital news literacy into the mandatory curriculum, but more states will likely follow suit (Medlin, 2021). Without CRML, students may be able to analyze digital artifacts, but they are likely to miss the embedded systemic and structural forms of racism and classicism that CRML has the power to uncover. It is nearly impossible to avoid media consumption daily, which has driven media literacy into Common Core standards — a set of "high quality academic standards in mathematics and English language arts/literacy" initiated by the U.S. government in 2010 for all K-12 public schools — that require students to become creators of media content (CCSS Initiative, 2021). Educators would be remiss to release students into a diverse world without critically analyzing the stereotypes present in entertainment media that perpetuate inequities and deficit perspectives toward people of color. CRML disallows whitewashing concepts such as respect and tolerance   by bringing a lens to analyze media's stories of other races (Carr & Parfilio, 2009). In other words, CRML disallows analyzing constructs through a colorblind lens that centers Whiteness rather than recognizing their multicultural and multifaceted applications. For example, Doerr-Stevens & Buckley-Marudas (2019) conducted an action research study utilizing qualitative methodology to work with students on video-based composition projects. The researchers discuss music and sound as pedagogy that allowed their high school students to disrupt hegemonic narratives; students then replace them with their creations as they develop social studies understanding.

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Additionally, CRML is a critical tool for change outside of diverse settings. Social studies education within majority White schools is particularly important because it challenges White privilege, asking students to reflect on their part in the fight for racial equity (Caldera, 2020). Using CRML within that framework motivates students to become active participants in consuming and creating media content that subverts the status quo (Degand, 2020). These students develop the ability to circumvent ethnocentrism within classrooms and create safer spaces that resist discrimination (Degand, 2020). Too often, social studies education programs resort to simplistic representations of the "Other" (Carr & Parfilio, 2009), potentially leading to problematic conclusions such as poverty itself has a culture (Payne, 2001) rather than studying the rich histories of various ethnic groups. Pre-service teachers interact with K-12 students of color in high volumes every day, making them most vulnerable to becoming perpetrators of racism. Degand (2019 as cited in Degand 2020) asserts that "teachers who lack the skills needed to interrogate the media landscape are at risk of attributing greater importance to White and Eurocentric aesthetics and stories, and accordingly of privileging the work of students that preference those aesthetics and narratives" (p. 97). It is the task of social studies educators to destabilize narratives that keep students of color from opportunities offered to their White counterparts, which includes helping pre-service teachers unpack their biases before they impact student learning. CRML provides teacher educators, pre-service teachers, and in-service social studies teachers with that opportunity in addition to a culturally responsive teaching method for students. Culturally responsive teaching or pedagogy contains three main categories that must all be met: "student learning, cultural competence, and sociopolitical or critical consciousness" (Clark, 2021, p. 26). This kind of teaching requires more than the inclusion of diverse texts and posters. For a classroom to implement culturally responsive pedagogy, it must focus on student

growth, help students develop fluency in their own culture as well as at least one other culture, and expose students to issues such as racism and inequity occurring in our world, ultimately helping them develop skills to address these issues.

Past research in CRML tends to focus on context-specific implementation, typically at the secondary to post-secondary level (Cho & Johnson, 2020; Patterson & McWhorter, 2020; Stanton et al., 2020). According to Cho & Johnson (2020), previous CRML studies focused on developing critical consciousness around racism in educational contexts. Still, CRML's evolution has expanded to include analyses of sexism or classicism in entertainment media. In reflection of her previous work, Yosso (2020) states the necessity of CRML's sustained focus on the intentionality of racism in media, attention to "racial scripts" due to history, and the resistance and questioning of dominant narratives. CRML reinserts "community histories" in the study of media to debunk the dominant "urban school formula" myth that demonizes people of color as "a racial problem requiring the intervention of a White teacher" (Yosso, 2020, p. 8). Multimodality becomes critical within the framework of CRML as students learn how to "speak" and interpret the language of media content (Degand, 2020; Doerr-Stevens & Buckley-Marudas, 2019). Social media has changed how we use language; schools must adapt to reflect these changes.

The Utility of the Online Racism Taxonomy as a Framework for Critical Race Media Literacy Studies

Critical race theory (CRT) originated from Critical Legal Studies. It has been used in education to call out racial oppression of people of color and students from historically marginalized communities (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Ladson-Billings, 2020   . CRT's tenets include: (1) unequivocal claims that race and racism are central, endemic,

permanent, and fundamental in defining and explaining how U.S. society functions; (2)

challenges dominant ideologies and claims of race neutrality, objectivity, meritocracy,

colorblindness, and equal opportunity; (3) the principles of CRT are activist in nature and

propagate a commitment to social justice; (4) it centers the experiences and voices of the

marginalized and oppressed, and (5) is necessarily interdisciplinary in scope and function (

Bernal, 2002; Solorzano & Yosso, 2000). For the purpose of the present discussion, it is

important to draw attention to the first tenant of CRT. When mediated by social media through a

CRT framework, understanding racism provides the necessary theoretical foundation for

exploring the possible affordances and constraints of an online space for enhanced social studies

educational praxis.

Working on the assumption that racism is persistent, permanent, and present everywhere,

it is safe to assume that racism is present in online environments. Thus, it is not surprising that

racism is a rising concern for scholars and educators serving traditionally marginalized students

of color. In the United States, Black and Latinx students remain the prime target for many overt,

co   vert, and not digital acts of racism. National trend data suggest that adolescents' reports of

online harassment are increasing across ethnic-racial groups, with Black youth reporting the

highest, though not statistically significantly different from the other groups (Jones et al.,

2012). According to a 2017 survey by the Pew Research Center, 25 percent and 10 percent of

Black and Latinx adults, respectively between the ages of 18-64, were the target of an online

racial attack compared to a mere 3 percent of White adults (Duggan, 2017). Our focus centers

primarily on application of this literacy nationally, but the framework would translate to online

spaces globally anywhere there are instances of racism. The rise of these and other online acts of

racism warranted new analytical tools to examine the nature of online racism and how it can be

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categorized for further investigations. This form of characterization and coding scheme has

extreme potential for critical race media literacy applications within social studies education

internationally, especially in areas with densely diverse populations. It provides a new analytical

framework to guide research in digital media literacy. The Taxonomy of Online Racism

represents a promising framework to support this empirical need.

Online Taxonomy of Racism

According to Stewart et al. (2019), online racism can be characterized in a hierarchical

categorical structure that places microaggressions, microassaults, and online hate crimes in the

primary organization category. These three forms of online racism provide the primary

categories for the eight subcategories of online racism (i.e., miseducation, microinvalidation,

microinsult, misinformation/disinformation, individual microassaults, vicarious microassaults,

and abuse). All of these online acts of racism occur in digital spaces; thus, the media include

educational apps (short for "application" that can be digitally downloaded), games, wikis

(websites that allow multiple editors), blogs, online courses, news, and other text, videos,

images, and symbols present on the Internet.

According to Tynes et al. (2018), online microaggressions represent subtle, intentional,

or unintentional visual nonverbal, and verbal representations of racist ideas about people of color

in online settings. These types of online racism can be further categorized as either miseducation,

microinvalidation, microinsults, or misinformation/disinformation. The second major category

proposed by Tynes, and colleagues is online microassaults or online discrimination. Online

microassaults are defined as victimization that threatens, excludes, or targets individuals based

on their race through online symbols, voice, video, images, and other graphic representations.

These can be further categorized as individual or vicarious. Finally, arguably the most egregious

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of these forms of online racism are online hate crimes. These include criminal activities related

to stalking, cyberbullying, harassment, and cyber mobs conducted based on race. Together, these

form the taxonomy of online racism.

Figure 1

Taxonomy of Online Racism - Stewart, Schuschke, Tynes (2019)
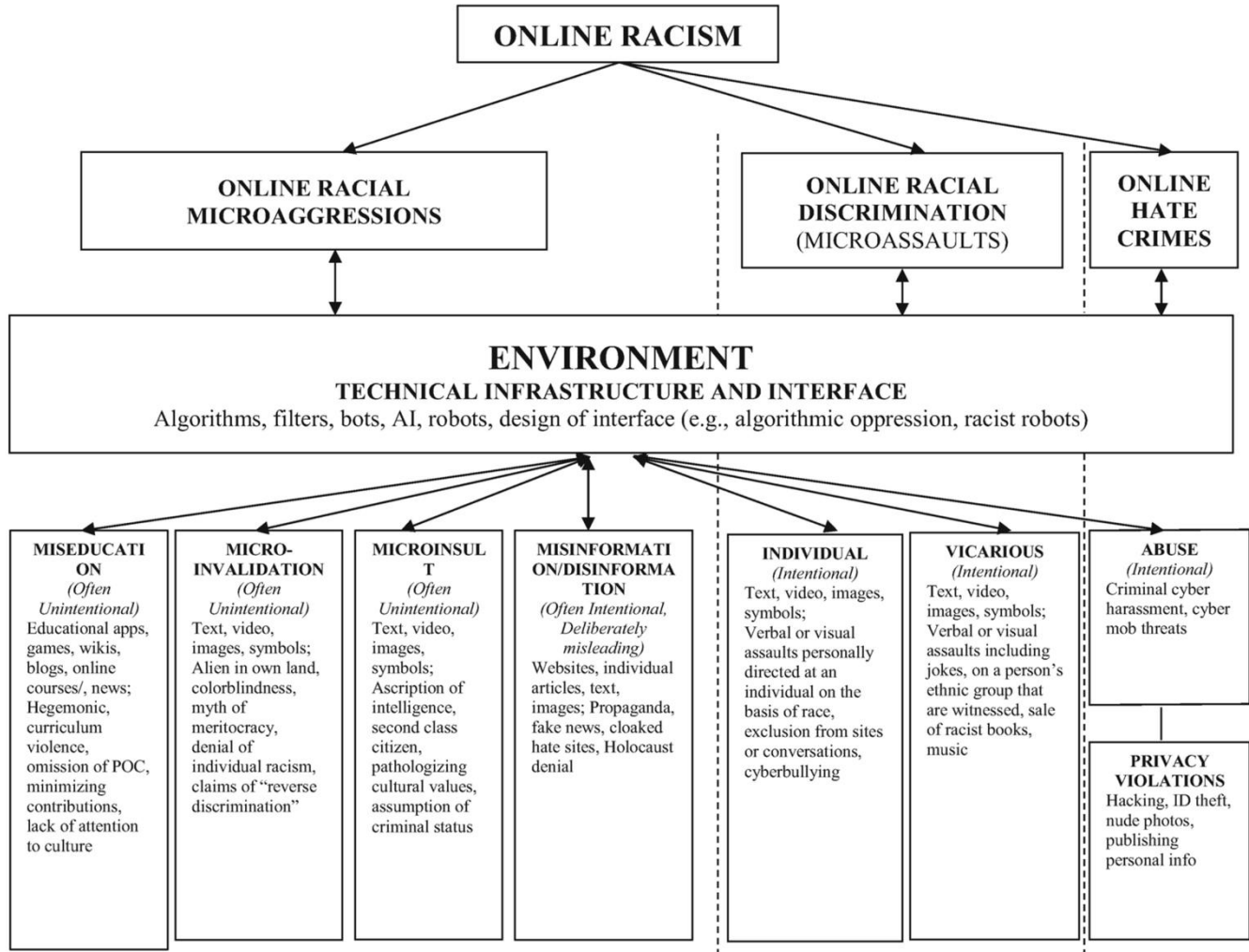
Examining Online Racism to Support Social Studies Education Research: #hashtag

Content Analysis

Critical race media studies provide a mechanism to prepare educational professionals to

consume information presented in popular media outlets critically. The convenience of Twitter

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facilitates the presentation and dissemination of millions of tweets, most of which are unrelated to race or racism. One limitation of Twitter as a blog space is that content is word count restricted. Thus, tweets are limited to 140 characters. Therefore, it is important to have mechanisms similar to keywords to identify potential topics worth further consideration and analysis. The extensive use of *hashtags* (i.e., keywords preceded by the # symbol) is a Twitter convention with important implications for understanding the platform's instructional and research potential for educators.

Moreover, hashtags help users, and their followers generate "social capital and [bind] a community together through the weak ties of brief interactions" (Coleman et al., 2018). Users with common interests, needs, or agendas can share beliefs and resources   while engaging in a microblog (Carpenter & Krutka, 2014; Rosenberg et al., 2016), or short personal entries. The hashtag is a "simple yet powerful method of connecting tweets to larger themes, specific people, and groups (Murthy & Longwell, 2013).

Hashtags are therefore essential to characterizing tweets because they help to converge the data around a single topic. As Murthy explains, hashtags are an integral part of Twitter's ability to link conversations and strangers together (Murthy & Longwell, 2013). More importantly, as hashtags start to trend, they can attract numerous followers (i.e., supporters and opposition). Thus, when one attempts to investigate race-related content on Twitter, it is important to consider that much of the content will be discovered as responses to generally harmless tweets on a particular topic. For example, hashtags like #BlackLivesMatter, #ICantBreathe, and #HandsUpDontShoot were all designed to mobilize support to end police brutality, but often these hashtags catalyzed substantial negative and even violent opposition.

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There is some evidence that more explicit and aggressive racially-biased tweets exist. For example, many Black professional soccer players have been subject to thousands of incessant abusive tweets. According to the anti-racism organization Kick It Out, there were approximately 134,000 abusive messages posted between August 2014 and March 2015 (Kilvington & Price, 2019). Several empirical studies indicate that social networking can facilitate hate and even provide a platform for racist rhetoric and hate speech. Matamoros-Fernández (2017) suggests that platformed racism has dual meanings. First, it presents platforms as amplifiers and manufactures of racist discourse, and second, it describes the modes of platform governance that reproduce or address social inequalities. Hence, the accessibility, popularity, and influence for platforms such as Twitter provide a rich data resource for identifying, examining, and interpreting online racism. This is evidenced by the increase in race-related hashtag content analyses and the significant attention place on these investigations in fields such as sociology, psychology, economics, medicine, and political science (Bonilla & Rosa, 2015; Carney, 2016; Kwate, 2014; Leach & Allen, 2017). Unfortunately, similar studies remain relatively absent within   the educational research space. Thus, social studies education and critical race media literacy studies specifically are primed for this line of inquiry. Yet, what remains underdeveloped are robust actualizations of hashtag content analyses that attempt to categorize the severity of racist content on an ordinal scale. To inform future work in this area, we present an analytic framework in the form of a coding scheme (see Table 2) to support this line of inquiry in critical race media literacy studies and social studies education.

#Hashtag Content Analysis

Content analysis is an established research "technique for examining information and content, in written or symbolic materials" (Neuman, 1997, p. 31). The nature of content analysis

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makes it uniquely well suited to handle the content presented on Twitter. As Riffe et al.

(2019) assert, content analysis is an "information-gathering technique [that] enables us to

illuminate patterns in large sets of communication content with reliability and validity" (p. 2).

One important aspect of content analysis is establishing the unit of analysis. However, within

Twitter hashtag content analysis, the unit of analysis is most often the tweets related to the

specified hashtag under investigation. Content is considered valid, rigorous, reliable, and

replicable (Sampert & Trimble, 2010). Yet we   would be remiss not to acknowledge that

hashtag content analysis is in its infancy compared to more traditional approaches to content

analysis. Therefore, in the section that follows, we provide an overview of how to design a

hashtag content analysis that utilizes the Taxonomy of Online Racism as an analytical

framework.

Three units of analysis are most common for a hashtag content analysis. The first is the

hashtag, which essentially serves as the keyword or search term from which the second unit of

analysis is generated (i.e., the tweet). The second unit of analysis is the individual tweet or

tweets. As discussed earlier, a tweet is a post on Twitter that is limited to 140 characters. To be

included in the analysis is essential that that tweet includes the chosen hashtag for validity,

reliability, or trustworthiness, depending on your analytical approach to content analysis. Finally,

the profile associated with each tweet should be considered as a unit of analysis. The type of

information and the amount of detail can vary from profile to profile; however, you must

characterize the type of Twitter user. Once the units of analysis have been established, one can

consider the coding scheme adapted from the Taxonomy of Online Racism presented in table 2

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Table 2

Critical Race Media Literacy Social Media Coding Scheme for Online Racism

Category	Definition	Example
Microaggressions	Subtle, intentional, or unintentional visual nonverbal and verbal, representations of racist ideas about people of color in online settings	- negations of perspective or experiences - Decontextualization statistics or misrepresented quotations - Stereotypes presented as facts
Miseducation	The development of materials designed to facilitate learning while unintentionally excluding or denigrating people of color	- Omission of People of Color - Minimizing contributions - Lack of attention to culture
Microinvalidation	Messages that may endorse color-blind ideologies or endorse meritocracy are communicated via text, videos, images, and/or games online.	- Alien in own land - Colorblindness

		● Myth of Meritocracy ● Denial of individual racism ● Claims of "reverse discrimination"
Microinsult	Text, videos, images, and/or games that often communicate messages around intelligence, criminal status, or pathologizing cultural values.	● Ascription of intelligence ● Second class citizen ● Pathologizing cultural values ● Assumption of criminal status
Misinformation	Occur in electronic venues and unintentionally (misinformation) or deliberately (disinformation) communicate false information about people of color	● Propaganda ● Fake news ● Cloaked hate sites ● Holocaust denial
Microassaults	Victimization that threatens, excludes, or targets an individual based on race and ethnicity through the use of	● Sending racially insensitive imagery to threaten an

	symbols, voice, video, images, text, and graphic representations online	individual based on race or ethnicity
Individual	Verbal or visual assaults are personally directed at an individual based on race.	● Exclusion from sites or conversations ● Cyberbullying
Vicarious	Verbal or visual assaults, including jokes, on a person's ethnic group that are witnessed.	● Sale of racist books ● Music
Hate Crimes	Racially motivated criminal activity punishable by law.	● Planning, facilitating or executing racial motivated criminal activities online
Abuse	Cruel of violent treatment of a person.	● Criminal cyber harassment ● Cyber mob threats
Privacy Violations	Invasions of personal space and information	● Hacking ● ID theft ● Nude photos

		● Publishing personal info

The coding scheme can categorize tweets within the hashtag content analysis as specific forms of online racism. These data would help researchers determine trends and themes related to the actualization of certain types of online racism that commences on Twitter and which type of users commit certain categories of online racism. In the discussion that follows, we further illustrate the utility of this coding scheme and the taxonomy of online racism for critical race media literacy and social studies education.

Recommendations for Future Research

The purpose of this paper was to develop a more rigorous framework with which to analyze what is now an informal practice. The Online Racism Taxonomy provides a streamlined methodological approach that can be used for research and adapted for future use as technology evolves. This coding scheme has practical applications for both theory and practice:

Theory

Quantitative Research. As it relates to the research landscape, the Online Racism Taxonomy is a tool for analyzing large amounts of publicly available data. Identifying racism in its more modern, covert forms can prove difficult despite overwhelmingly visible consequences (i.e., suspension/expulsion rates by race for the same "crimes," disparate death rates between women of color and their White counterparts during childbirth, etc.). This taxonomy centers on identifying instances of covert racism using a methodology that yields quantifiable results.

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Qualitative Research. To complement methodological approaches such as focus groups, researchers can use the Online Racism Taxonomy for triangulation or garner information for question development. Interviewing participants on race can sometimes result in shallow understandings or conversations; this taxonomy is a framework for categorizing, theme-building, , and creating thick, rich data.

Practice

Scope. The Online Racism Taxonomy is interdisciplinary and multicultural in scope. Social studies education is more often incorporated into the social sciences without attention to the systemic racism embedded within STEM disciplines where it is sometimes entirely ignored or goes unnoticed (McGee, 2020). In math, this framework adds a multicultural lens to data analysis. The taxonomy has utility in any topics related to literacy for K-12 students to "read" and think critically across disciplines. Additionally, t can be used in social studies to study macro and micro perspectives that infiltrate popular media and current events.

Ease of Utility. Researchers struggle to communicate data in ways that make theory to practice more digestible for teacher educators. Developing hashtag analysis as a legitimate methodological approach with a framework for investigating overt and covert forms of online racism has practical merit for the layperson to understand and interpret.

Conclusion

Social justice scholars have a participatory obligation to address racially motivated online indignities, attacks, and crimes empirically and practically, especially considering the wealth of empirical and experiential knowledge present in social studies education. This article proposes adopting the Taxonomy of Online Racism as an analytical framework for characterizing racism within social media platforms through CRML in social studies education. The taxonomy coding scheme was derived to serve as a data categorization tool for social studies and critical race

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media literacy scholars. Although hashtag content analyses were present in tandem with the proposed coding scheme, we would be remiss not to emphasize that this is a coding scheme design for online interactions; thus, it is appropriate for other social media outlets (e.g., YouTube, Facebook, or Instagram).

In conclusion, we hope that this example provides a mechanism to support future investigations of online racism utilizing the Taxonomy of Online Racism in the field of education and, more specifically, within social studies education. This article describes the benefits, nuances, and logistics of the taxonomy of online racism. Because racism is everywhere and permanent, it is important that researchers across multiple disciplines incorporate similar tools to fight racism physically, spiritually, emotionally, and most of all empirically. This framework takes Critical Race Theory and applies it to practice, helping to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

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